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Stereotyping and job satisfaction among American Indian female supervisors

Warner, Linda Sue, Ph.D.

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300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

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STEREOTYPING AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG

AMERICAN INDIAN FEMALE SUPERVISORS

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LINDA SUE WARNER

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STEREOTYPING AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG

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APPROVED BY:

John J. Seaberg, Jr.

Charles Butler

Loy E. Prickett

_J. W._

Paul F. Klein

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The tendency of people to see the American Indian, particularly the female American Indian, in a general framework has been alternately considered to be understandable yet, insensitive at times. The acceptability of such stereotyping has been woven into accounts of, and by, American Indians since the origins of reports which focused on the descriptions of their culture and unique ethnicity. The acceptability of such stereotypic representations has been heightened by literature, and more recently, media representations.

Those representations, which simplistically refer to female American Indians, impact on individual self-concept. As the individual's self-concept has been considered the result of many variables, the variable of job satisfaction was chosen for this study because it has been established in theory as an integral aspect of an individual's professional life.

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Cultural stereotypes about the nature of work and women have been so persistent in the history of working women that the wide range of women's experiences as laboring people has been ignored in favor of stereotypical expectation (Murphy, 1988). Assumptions about the stereotypes of women have led to generalizations on the work available. Recent studies have indicated that working women have created their own culture, just as men did. These cultures have operated within an unequal society in which cultural stereotypes continually portray women as less aggressive, less competitive and less interested in financial gain. A recent court decision in its dissenting opinion indicated in summary that there were abundant indicators that women lack neither the desire to compete seriously for financial gain nor the capacity to take risks. (EEOC vs Sears, Appeals Court Decision, January 1988).

Further, job satisfaction has been defined and described in constructs which have a research basis. Linking job satisfaction and the perceptions of stereotypes, specifically those of the female American Indian, focused this study in the conceptual research base of implicit personality theory, including ethnic and sex-role stereotyping.

The centuries-long confusion of fundamentally different ways of understanding human societies account for several persistent practices found throughout the history of white interpretation of Native Americans as Indians: 1) generalizing from one tribe's society and culture to all Indians; 2) conceiving of Indians in terms of their deficiencies according to non-Indian ideals, rather than in terms of their own various culture, and 3) using moral evaluation as description of Indians (Stedman, 1982).

Not only does the general term "Indian" continue to the present, but also the tendency to describe one tribe as describing all Indians and, conversely, to comprehend a specific tribe according to characteristics ascribed to all Indians. Although eyewitness accounts of customs and beliefs of seventeenth and eighteenth centuries have been available, the generalization or conclusion that this information was basic to all tribes has persisted. Today most non-Indians who use the word "Indian" have little idea of the specific tribe or culture it may represent and, as a result, still promulgate the stereotype.

The descriptions which were associated with American Indians, even from the first accounts by non-Indians, fell into one or more of the following categories: 1) naked; 2) childlike; 3) sharing; 4)

ignorant of religion; 5) ignorant of laws or property; and 6) cannibalism (Stedman, 1982). Many of the descriptors associated with the life of American Indians have been imbedded in historical accounts and portrayals. As Deloria (1969) facetiously defined Indians as "food-gathering, berry-picking, semi-nomadic, fire worshipping, high plains and mountain dwelling, horse-riding, canoe-toting, bead-using, pottery-making, ribbon-coveting, wikiup-sheltered people", he emphasized stereotypes commonly held by non-Indians.

The emergence of the Plains Indian as the stereotype of the North American Indian was influenced by the paintings of George Catlin and Karl Bodmer, which were copied by lesser known artists who illustrated novels and texts. Also the stereotype was influenced by the Plains Indian Wars (1860-90) as the news of wars and horrors became well-known. Finally, the wild west show influenced the stereotype by encouraging other similar shows and "medicine" shows (Ewers, 1982).

The reconstruction of gender relations has been related to major issues of power. Most Native American women who were referenced in historical context were written about. Few of the earliest women of note had their own words written. Within the historical context, and within the reference

framework of the writers, the concept of matriarchal, matrifocal, or matrilineal communities was incomprehensible. Historians who examined sex-roles were likely to link physical separation with social subordination. This early misunderstanding and resultant lack of focus on American Indian women left the cultures to develop within themselves and yet, at the same time, be viewed in the context of European patriarchy (Kerber, 1988).

The stereotype which evolved around the Native American female included characteristics which indicated that typically women had no strong voice in any serious matter that might be considered by the tribe (Krepps, 1980). For American Indian women, these characteristics were further conceptualizations of the "squaw" and the "Cherokee princess". While rooted in nineteenth century romanticism and Anglo chauvenism, these images remain familiar (Jaimes, 1982).

It was not until the late 1960's that changes were seen in the literature produced about American Indian women. The interpretations of the traditions changed because the writers changed. Native researchers have further contributed to such study (LaFramboise and Plake, 1983).

Contemporary American Indian women writers and essayists viewed the body of literature concerning

American Indian women as the collection and
formalization of a recognizable set of stereotypes.
Green (1980) postulated that "somewhere between John
Smith's ploy of creating dead princesses . . . and
General Sheridan's preference for murdering 'squaws'
. . ." existed the necessity for defining and
maintaining a scholarly approach to the study of
American Indian women.

There has been growing concern by American
Indians that the media has chosen to create
"authentic" images of American Indians for the public
and, further, that the role models for this portrayal
have been "self-made" American Indians who were
willing to provide the media with hype for personal
reward. Many familiar "Indian" actors or actresses
have no tribal heritage or have had limited access to
their culture. So the stereotyped female American
Indian, transformed from Maria Cruz to Sacheen
Littlefeather, with the help of Marlon Brando, failed
to successfully reprimand the media for their unjust
portrayal of Indians in movies because her intent
was stardom, "not the eradication of stereotypes."
Brando's tongue-lashing of Indian stereotypes
delivered by an "Indian woman" became laughable in
light of the later portrayal of that same "Indian
woman" in Playboy (Stands Up, 1984).

From these traits the female American Indian stereotype has emerged as a dichotomous one: either they were princesses or squaws. More specific associations were made with Pocahontas or Minnehaha or Sacaguwea. Modern associations were made with media representations, rather than with specific female personalities.

Modern sociological assumptions recognized the contradiction of designating American Indian women in stereotypes, particularly those women in leadership positions. The modern American Indian female has been viewed in the context of these historic stereotypes, particularly if she has attempted to maintain her cultural identity within the scope of the non-Indian society. While historic study has revealed that stereotypes of American Indian women were founded in misinterpretations of observations from a dominant culture, many have remained primary in modern descriptions of Native American women. Examples of such misrepresentations are detailed in several modern sociological perspectives (Ewers, 1962; Devereux, 1961; Schubert & Croply, 1972; Trimble, 1977; Weist, 1980).

Anthropologist Robert H. Lowie reported that among Indians of the Great Plains, the position of women was decidedly higher than was often assumed (Terrell and Terrell, 1974). His conclusion was that

in the vast majority of the hundreds of American Indian tribes, whether their social structure was patrilineal, matrilineal, or bilateral, women not only enjoyed well-defined perogatives, but among a large number wielded considerable social, religious, and political power. These examples now can be explained logically and can be understood clearly within the cultural framework of a particular band or tribe.

With these examples, it has become easier to understand the role of the American Indian female in the power structure of varied cultures. In many of the nearly 300 distinct pre-white societies, women held power. The Iroquois, for example, had a society approximately 400 years ago which has been described as most nearly a true matriarchy as has ever existed in modern or ancient time (Anderson, 1981).

In analyzing the status of women in a particular aboriginal tribe, one is confronted with irrefutable evidence that their rank was predicated upon certain premises: "the conditions of the environment, the nature of the economy, the forms of social and political institutions, and the kind of domination exercised by gods" (Terrell and Terrell, 1974, p. 28). Within the parameters of the various cultures, documented evidence of the status of females has included references in oral traditions to the

following: White Buffalo Calf Woman (Dakota), Deer Mother (Taos), Corn Mother (Hopi), Changing Woman (Navajo). Within these references, the status of woman (or mother) has remained predominant (Ross, 1982).

In response to new demands on varied Indian cultures in this country, Miller (1978) asserted that a new Native American woman was emerging -- one who managed in both a traditional culture and a dominant one. These women represented a "changing woman", whose role opened them personally to discredit and ridicule in either society. Wittstock (1976) observed that those Native American women who sought to preserve tribal identity in an "outside" world eventually became ritualized in their opinions. One essayist (Rhea, 1970) advocated the basic applied Rogerian concept in regard to the study of Indians as a group, i.e., learn from the group itself rather than bringing outside observations into the study.

One dilemma which has continued to face Native American women has been acultural. It has been the dilemma of the changing, emerging progressive role of all women in a dominant society. The assimilation of American Indian women into a predominantly Anglo society has contributed to their own kind of "identity crisis", often weakening their role within the tribe (Jaimes, 1982).

If the Native American woman were to move into positions of influence or power on behalf of her people (Miller, 1978), she must have managed her own minority status in a dominant culture, the status of a woman in any leadership position, and further, the image of Native Americans typically held by Americans--either that of the "noble savage" or the "apathetic dependant." Today's American Indian women face challenges within the work force which have moved from the overt "art" of civilizing Indians to a more covert system of change and have been marked by a rapid rate of acculturation (Duchene, 1988).

Each native woman has undergone a secondary socialization process of translating and transforming experiences from one cultural base to another. The encountering of different norms, motivations and expectations of bicultural roles has been an individual experience (Medicine, 1982). The double bind of race and sex translate into the dilemma of tradition and equality (Green, 1982). Locust (1988) has reported that many American Indian women believed that they had been responsible for their own harmony/disharmony in forcing conformity from one culture to another. The Native American woman who has assumed a representative role in the white world must develop strategies for re-defining such devastating impressions. One remarkable thing about

the "idea" of the "Indian" has not been its invention, but its persistence and perpetuation to the present day.

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between American Indian women supervisors' job satisfaction and how they felt they were perceived by their co-workers in two roles, i.e., an American Indian and a female. Specifically, does the manner in which American Indian women supervisors view their co-workers perceptions of ethnic and sex-role stereotypes correlate with their perceptions of job satisfaction?

Hypotheses

The conceptual hypotheses of the study were:

H_0 The ethnic stereotype design-
ated as American Indian is
inversely related to job
satisfaction.

H_1 The female sex-role stereo-
type is inversely related
to job satisfaction.

H_2 The perception of stereo-
types produce dissonance which
effects job satisfaction.

The operational hypotheses of the study were:

H_1 There is no significant relation-
ship between the perception of
ethnic stereotype and the
perception of job satisfaction
among American Indian female
supervisors.

H_2 There is no significant relation-
ship between the perception of
sex-role stereotype and the
perception of job satisfaction
among American Indian female
supervisors.

H_3 There is no significant relation-
ship between the perception of
ethnic and sex-role stereotype
interaction and the perception
of job satisfaction among
American Indian female supervisors.

Significance of the Study

It was the contention of this study that
American Indian women supervisors did not perceive
themselves solely on the basis of being Indian or of
being female, but perceived themselves in conjunction
with the various roles assigned to those stereotypes,
particularly the stereotyped   Indian   and   the

stereotyped female. The importance of examining the relationship between perceptions held by co-workers of ethnic and gender stereotype and the subjects' perception of job satisfaction was two-fold. It was important to know if American Indian female supervisors perceived themselves viewed as a stereotype. Practically, it was important to separate stereotypic perceptions of co-workers from job expectations for the subjects to determine the validity of the subjects' expectations.

Literary and Operational Definitions

Job Satisfaction: A cognitive construct which reflects the degree to which an individual avoids dissonance in the work environment; pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1969).

Ethnic Stereotype: A generalization about or an impression of a race or group of people classed according to common traits and customs.

Sex-Role Stereotype: The structured sets of inferential relations that link personal attributes to the social categories of female and male; beliefs about the differing characteristics of men and women in our society (Ashmore and Del Boca, 1981).

American Indian/Alaskan Native (Indian or Native American): Any individual declaring membership in a tribe indigenous to the United States; a person who

is a member of an Indian tribe, band, nation or other organized group or community, including any Alaska Native village, regional, or village corporation, as defined or established pursuant to the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act 185 Stat. 688., which is recognized as eligible for the special programs and services provided by the U.S. to Indians because of their status as Indians. (P. L. 93-638 Indian Self-Determination & Educational Assistance Act, 1978).

Supervisor (manager): An organizational member who directs other employees in an organization in such areas as job performance or compensation.

Cognitive dissonance: A relationship wherein the cognitions of an individual do not correspond with the accepted cognitions of others.

Implicit personality theory: A set of assumptions by which an individual makes inferential judgements of others in some characteristic manner. These judgements are a result of direct or vicarious experiences, so as to create a set of inferential relationships among experienced attributes and ascribed traits. This set of expected relations among traits of other persons which exist for an individual is the individual's implicit theory of personality (Hays, 1958).

Double bind: The set of conflicting expectations which may be created when an individual

is considered to have membership in two distinct groups; including references to dual discrimination of race and sex; also, referred to as "double jeopardy." A term coined in 1972 by Frances Beale (King, 1988) and referenced in the literature as "interactive discrimination." ("Interactive discrimination", 1989).

Limitations of the Study

The findings and conclusions reached in this study were limited in application to employee-employer relationships involving American Indian women supervisors. The study focused on perceptions of ethnic and sex-role as these variables impacted perceptions of job satisfaction for this minority population. The study was based on individual respondents' perceptions of three variables and did not control for individual bias. The assumption that the perceptions of stereotype were separate variables was requisite. The findings and conclusions reached in this study were limited by perceptions of respondents to applications of employee/employer relationships involving American Indian women supervisors.

A singular limitation in research of this nature has been the reticence of native people to interact with researchers. There has appeared in the

literature a number of cautions regarding the population which was studied, including a reluctance to provide information, a tendency to respond by attempting to guess the "correct" responses, and additionally, a sense of humor that can vary within a cultural context. This limitation can be particularly important if members of the sample have not been introduced to the researcher and, further, if they have not been made aware of the researcher's credentials. This is complicated further if the researcher's motives are seen as suspect.

Additionally, the narrow body of literature that has focused on the sample population, specifically managers or supervisors who are American Indian, has further limited the researcher. The literature which focused on ethnic stereotype using an American Indian sample and the literature on sex-role stereotype using and American Indian sample was minimal.

During the first, second, and third mailings of questionnaire, the researcher requested that address corrections be noted by the postal service. A high percentage of the initial sample had changed address prior to the first mailing and the questionnaires were either returned as not forwardable or with a new address listed. As many as one third of the origianl two hundred selected for the sample had changed address. This indicated a mobile population and

represented a serious handicap in completing the study. The final rate of return at 58 percent was impacted by the high mobility of those selected for the study.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I introduced the theoretical constructs to be analyzed in the study and included:

a) Background of the Problem

b) Statement of the Problem

c) Significance of the Problem

d) Literary and Operational Definitions

e) Limitations of the Study

The remainder of the study was organized as follows: Chapter II contained the Review of Related Literature and the Theoretical Framework. The theoretical constructs were associated with the following:

1. Ethnic stereotyping (cross cultural stereotype--government, language, tradition; reciprocal stereotype--conformity, customs, physical characteristics; self-stereotype--customs, physical characteristics, names);

2. Sex-role stereotyping (self image; males' stereotype of feminine women; women's perceptions of males' stereotype of feminine women);

3. Job satisfaction (social aspects of the job
--interaction, accessibility, peer relations,
supervisory method, human relations skills,
organizational climate; intrinsic aspects--status,
self-actualization, job involvement; situational
determinants--span of control, size, scope, level;
ecological environment sources of influence--working
conditions; compensation--expectation, performance).

Chapter III contained discussion of the
population and study sample; instruments used in the
study; data collection process; and the statistical
procedures used to analyze the data.

In Chapter IV the analysis and interpretation of
the data were reported.

In Chapter V the summary of the study,
conclusions, implications, and recommendations of the
study were presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Stereotypes

The study of stereotypes has evolved from Lippman (1922) to include hypotheses of self-stereotyping, as well as the relative perceptions of minority groups to majority expectation. The effectiveness of supervision has been closely tied to job satisfaction, which can be related closely to employee attitude about job tasks. In proposing a dissonance theoretical approach to the formation of job-related attitudes, this study investigated perceptions of ethnic and sex-role stereotyping.

The introduction and delineation of the term "stereotyping" attempted to deal with a complex world in which man "fills in the blanks in his head" and "attempts to picture in his mind" that which is too complex for direct acquisition. These "pictures" have been culturally determined and individuals tend to perceive that which they wished to save in

a stereotype. Lippmann (1922) believed that stereotypes were undesirable, because they were largely incorrect and represented products of a faulty reasoning process. He further noted that stereotypes and facts necessarily diverged and he emphasized that stereotypes were rigid and resisted education. Stereotypes or generalizations can be construed as incorrect in one of two general senses. They can be incorrect in directionality or in magnitude.

Historically, Bruner and Tagiuri (1954) developed implicit personality theory as the inferential relations between attributes of personality and stereotype. Implicit personality theory was a hypothetical cognitive structure, often held non-consciously, that comprised the attributes of personality that an individual believed others to possess and the set of expected relations, i.e., inferential relations between those attributes (Ashmore, 1981).

Roles were sets of socially expected behavior associated with an individual's social interaction. The existence of sex-role stereotypes or the belief that the typical male and female differ in many of their characteristics has been well documented. Stereotyped masculine traits were often perceived to be more desirable than stereotyped female

characteristics in the assessment of successful managerial expectations.

Ethnic Stereotypes

The study of ethnic stereotypes and the various aspects of ethnic stereotyping evolved naturally from Lippmann's (1922) original hypotheses. One aspect, reciprocal stereotyping, has been studied (Vinacke, 1957; Abate and Berrien, 1967) using several ethnic groups. Not surprisingly, significant agreement has been found in both of these studies. Cross cultural research (Levine, 1965) has been extended to research on self-stereotypes. Later, Abate and Berrien (1967) had also proposed the concept of "vereotypes," the estimated true characteristics of an ethnic group which can be measured against the group's self-stereotype. Secord and Backman (1964) have linked stereotyping to certain cognitive aspects of prejudicial attitudes, an aspect of stereotyping, which has been included by some researchers in its definition.

The classical empirical study of stereotypes was the Katz and Braly's (1933) methodology, which used undergraduates who chose "trait" adjectives for ethnic groups. This study was expanded by Katz and Braly (1935) and was replicated by Gilbert (1951) as research into stereotyping began to associate

prejudice with generalizations. Vinacke (1957) proposed that stereotypes be conceptualized as cognitive structures. As a cognitive structure, stereotyping was that set of intra- and interpersonal processes which resulted in specific cognition.

Tajfel (1969) proposed an investigation of intergroup behaviors as a line of inquiry into ethnic stereotypes. Research which suggested that stereotypes were the result of an inferior thought process began with Zawadzki (1948) and Sanford (1956). Another criterion in the measurement of stereotypes has been their "rigidity" or tendency to remain unchanged in light of new information. Kerr (1943) described rigidity as an important criterion for the study of stereotyping. Rigidity, as well as the incorrectness of stereotyping, was further expanded in the work of Brigham (1971). He proposed that ethnic stereotypes could be incorrect in two general senses. The generalizations included errors in directionality as well as magnitude. The research data in the study of ethnic stereotypes, which was dominated by the Katz and Braly (1933) design, used Blacks and Whites as populations. Longitudinal studies of ethnic stereotypes have not been attempted (Brigham, 1971).

Historical research into the stereotypes of Indian women has produced evidence that these women participated in activities commonly thought to be male-oriented. For example, Buffalo Calf Road was a Cheyenne woman who was involved in the struggles of the Northern Cheyenne Indians and the U.S. Army in the 1870's. Her participation in warfare against the Army challenged a widely held stereotype about Indian women being confined to domestic areas. Evidence indicated that her case was not atypical (Agonito and Agonito, 1973). While many problems arose in the research of the biographies of these women, the implications have been significant.

Other historical descriptions of the American Indian female stereotype have been researched. Downs (1972) found that the economic, social, and cultural factors of reservation life made it impossible for a young Indian woman to define for herself a culture outside of the reservation. He determined that there were three major considerations for these women in relation to their culture. There had to be a determination as to which aspects of one culture these bearers of another would accept. Secondly, the difficulties between sexes in the areas of change may not always be related to any fundamental factors but to the nature of the contact and the nature of the model from the donor society which each sex selected.

Finally, the nature of inter-cultural contacts had seldom included such factors as the effect and/or extent of the use of mass media such as radio, television, or movies.

King (1988) studied two major images of the Indian in America and found the stereotypes to be the image that American Indians were inferior and that they were dying. He noted that it was not until the later half of the twentieth century that Native writers began drawing on their own culture, particularly oral literature, for information and inspiration.

Typically, the term "Indian" portrayed the handsome brave. Rarely was the term expanded to include women. The dichotomy of the portrayal of the Indian woman has varied between extremes and has not been considered on a continuum. Even among the tribes studied by Niethammer (1977), it was reported that matriarchies drew specific boundaries for women and, further, that it was difficult to separate even the earliest Naive American cultures from White influence. Each tribe set ethical and social standards for the women, as well as for the men.

For Kidwell (1978), the stereotype of the Indian woman was defined as that of the beautiful, hot-blooded Indian princess (a la Pocahontas) or of the Indian "squaw", plain, dumpy, and totally

subservient to her man. The women's liberation movement further generated a concern for the plight of minority women. She noted, however, that the Indian woman's role as mother and keeper of the home has persisted and has provided a strain of continuity in Indian cultures throughout times of pressures toward acculturation to the dominant society. The persistence of values from traditional societies to contemporary times has provided a source of power for American Indian women in their own societies, despite the relative powerlessness of Indian people in American society today.

The role of women in traditional societies has been influenced by the varying patterns of descent and kinship relations that exist in those societies --matriarchal, patriarchal, and bi-lateral structures. In certain patriarchal societies, women had a much greater degree of freedom in their actions than did men. Overt expressions of power for men were more closely defined and restrictive and open to public view.

In a real sense, the anatomical aspect of their being had been a primary determiner of behavior for Indian women, but in other aspects of life they had greater flexibility of role behavior. The persistence of their biological function and role in society has provided a sense of security and

stability in the changing Indian world, and their flexibility in adapting to other roles has been a survival factor in process of acculturation. This modern American Indian woman, who has been forced into the job market of the dominant society to help support her family, has maintained an important role within her own society. She has remained the bearer of culture and identity for her people, and in this role she has power (Kidwell, 1978).

In any discussion of American Indian women, it has been important to keep in mind the diversity among the 789 tribal entities which exist (Hart, 1977). Some tribes have allowed and encouraged prominent authoritative behavior on the part of their women, while other tribes have preferred that the women not act conspicuously in decision-making roles. These conflicting expectations by different tribes place Indian women in sensitive situations when they must interact with members of other tribes.

So the stereotype of the American Indian female has remained. The first and biggest proponent of Indian stereotypes in America today has been the public school system, and the second has been Hollywood movies (Buller, 1982). The presentation of the North American Indian in history and social studies textbooks has interested researchers for

several years. The lack of an American Indian perspective to these portrayals has continued.

O'Neill (1987) reviewed several reports which categorized textbooks and rated their portrayal of the American Indian using the following criteria: impressionistic practices, contextual descriptive, or quantitative. He found that in some reports the American Indian was described in contradictory terms, i.e., alternately as "friendly" and "warlike". In others, they were described typically as the "noble savage" and "Indian Maiden". Some college textbooks still contained pejorative terms such as "squaw", "half-breed", and "savage." Additionally, most accounts were patronizing. He concluded by suggesting that a public forum to assess textbooks should be established and that the depiction of the American Indian in textbooks must become less the product of emotion or uncritical cultural loyalty and more the result of research and understanding.

Sprindler (1956) interviewed sixty-one subjects among the Menominee Tribe in her study of Indian women and their roles during the process of acculturation. She drew conclusions which indicated that a progressive change developed and that the individuals who participated could be identified at one of the following five stages: 1) Native oriented; 2) Peyote Cult; 3) transitional; 4) lower

status acculturated; and 5) elite acculturated. The role playing behaviors were found to be latent in those individuals shown who were dependent on outside forces for stimuli. Value orientations were characterized by dependent attitudes held toward the supernatural, nature, and other people.

In a study to determine the American Indian and American Caucasian stereotype, Hooton (1972) tested the effects which the variation of these distinguishing stimuli (race, dress, skin color) would have on four dependent variables, including social desirability scale, personality dimension, perceived level of education, and social class. The stimuli elicited the "ideal" stereotype from the fifty white students who used trait adjectives to describe the stereotypes. Pictures were shown to the students and the following adjectives were indicative of their responses. For American Indians, artistic, reserved, shy, trustworthy, loyal to family, imaginative, superstitious, not scientifically minded, pleasure loving, strong, sportsman-like, loner, submissive, backward, brave, inarticulate, unsophisticated, inferior, quiet, non-aggressive, sensual, and stubborn were used. For Caucasians, competitive, pleasure loving, competent, physically clean, materialistic, intelligent, persistent, sportsman-like, out-going, aware, superior,

ambitious, progressive, mercenary, alert, boastful, conceited, reliable and industrious were used by respondents. In conclusion, the researcher determined that race affected personality; dress affected social desirability. Both race and dress independently affected the perceived level of educational and social class. However, skin color had no effect on the four dependent variables studied.

Through study of oral history and federal documents, Emmerich (1987) highlighted descriptions of Native American women between 1890 and 1938. During those years, the federal government's Office of Indian Affairs hired and trained White women to teach Indians domestic skills and cultural values. This emphasis at assimilation was part of the "civilization" policy and reflected a federal policy which had adopted stereotypes of American Indians.

Stereotypes, as generalizations of one culture by another, have narrowed the perspective of the observer. Gelo (1986) studied the stereotype of the contemporary Comanche. His work, through interview and observation, contradicted an anthropological characterization of Comanches as "skeptics of the Plains." He indicated that this stereotype had emerged as a result of the tribe's understated, individualistic, and experimental approach to the

supernatural. He concluded that contemporary Comanche Indians integrated their experiences, enabling them to maintain their identity as Indians, Comanches, and individuals.

Images of Indian women which were shared by explorers and traders have significantly influenced early governmental Indian policy. The government's goal of protection, civilization, and assimilation pertaining to Indian women on reserves was to be accomplished by a restructuring of the economy. The government and Chu.ches attempted to change economies on reservations through formal instruction of Indian women in domestic skills (Green, 1975).

In an attempt to discern the importance of sex-role distinctions in the development and maintenance of ethnicity, Prachuobmoh (1980) noted that there appeared a group of subjects within the minority which had a "double identity". The minority within the minority was viewed from two perspectives: informational institution, such as family and friendship, and formal institutions, such as religion and schooling. In conclusion, it was determined that women were the most significant informal institution in maintaining ethnicity within a culture. Not only in the role of motherhood and the socialization of youth were they viewed as significant, but also in

the maintenance of the group's cultural symbols of language and dress.

In an analysis of American Indian women's lives Rosenbaum (1987) focused on the ideology of how the culture defined women, men, and their interactions. She also interpreted behavior influenced by economic, social and political factors. The researcher noted that within the culture, women held inferior positions and that changes were characterized as conflictive.

Sex-Role Stereotypes

Research in the area of sex-role stereotypes has been categorized into three important sets of hypotheses (Aldag and Brief, 1979). First, writers argued that a woman's self-image was a key determinant of her reactions (Horner, 1969; Schein, 1975; Tresemer, 1974; Bernstein, 1975). Research has been conducted exploring the influence of female roles on the perceptions of female employees, including marital and parental status (Borges and Clothier, 1978). Women's perceptions of male stereotypes of women have been relevant (Hawley, 1971). Lastly, it was noted that the discrepancy between a woman's self-image and her own stereotype of a feminine woman or her perceptions of the male stereotypes of feminine women have impacted on her

responses (Gordon and Hall, 1974). As a consequence, women often subscribed to stereotypes of women managers (O'Leary, 1974; McClelland, 1965).

Another important conceptualization has postulated that the masculine and feminine stereotype may not be mutually exclusive (Bem, 1970). The perceptions of appropriate roles for women comprised an important facet of stereotyping of women in the work force (Krefting and Berger, 1979).

Job satisfaction for women workers has been researched traditionally from the job-gender model, in which sex roles generated the research framework. Women employed in the labor market were viewed as responding primarily to the confines of sex-role, as opposed to the structured rewards and constraints of the labor market itself.

Moore (1985) collected data from 1,496 full and part-time men and women employees. The data gathered about the quality of employment, labor issues, job satisfaction intrinsic job factors and their value, work-related behaviors, job stress, the meaning of work, and job standards provided a wide framework for the conclusions. The instrument developed measured freedom, job involvement, support, challenge, skill, and relevance. Each variable co-varied significantly with the criterion variables of sex, age, income, occupation, and marital status. The overall

conclusions of the research indicated the linear indices of job environments were weak descriptors of the true segmented structure of the labor market and attitudes related to work.

Stafford (1984) investigated the stereotypic role behavior and woman's self-esteem. The study gathered data from 456 college educated women. The questionnaire assessed attitudes toward women's roles, labor force attachment, type of present and preferred occupation, and self-esteem. The questionnaire incorporated three measures of occupational behavior --the Spence and Helmich Attitudes Toward Women Scale, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and the Labor Force Attachment Index. The respondents were upper-middle, and lower-middle class women, ages twenty to fifty.

A general linear model was used. No significant interactive effects between attitudes toward women's roles and present occupations were found. No significant effects were found between attitudes toward women's roles and labor force attachment. Also, no significant main effects for attitudes toward women's roles, labor force attachment, present occupation, age and marital status on self-esteem were found. The main effect of congruence of present and preferred occupation was significant. The study found no support for the

hypothesis that attitudes toward women's roles and women's occupational behavior have an interactive effect on self-esteem. It did show that attitudes toward women's roles were an important factor in women's occupational behavior.

Sex-role stereotype has been studied, as it related to the future life plans of women through variables of maternal employment, perceived maternal satisfaction and goodness of mothering. In the study (Altman and Grossman, 1977) used twenty-five mothers who worked and twenty-five mothers who did not work. The instruments used included the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women, a sex-role stereotype questionnaire, an inventory of feminine values, maternal satisfaction and maternal goodness scales and the life plan questionnaire. Daughters of working mothers scored higher on career orientation than did daughters of non-working mothers. High perceived maternal goodness correlated with low career orientation for the non-working sample. The working sample perceived maternal dissatisfaction with feminine role values. This working sample correlated with higher career orientation. Daughters of working mothers displayed broader sex-role conceptions when the groups were compared.

A relatively recent conceptualization of sex-role stereotype has been that masculine stereotype

and feminine stereotype are not mutually exclusive, but rather two independent constructs which can be conceptualized (Bem, 1970). Dalessio (1980) combined these in a study of whether the successful manager was viewed as masculine, feminine or androgynous. The subjects viewed the successful manager in terms of masculinity. The group included thirty registered nurses in a Southeastern hospital who had participated in job analysis interviews. Interviewers described fourteen job activities. Supervisors rated the employees effectiveness on a 1-9 scale. Fifteen males and fifteen females rated job activities as stereotypically male or female. The mean ratings of the male/female category were compared with the use of independent group t-tests. Conclusions drawn from this work indicated that successful managers were often viewed in terms of masculinity.

In a population of professional females in non-teaching positions related to instructional services, Vazant (1980) used a stratified sample of 273 individuals. Using the Mehrabian Female Achievement Scale, the Maferr Inventory of Female Values, the Expressed Acceptance of Self Scale and the Menot Relationship Inventory, she found significance in achievement motivation between females who were

twenty to thirty-nine years old. Those forty sixty-nine exhibited higher motivation.

Evangelist (1981) completed research to determine if significant relationships existed between sex-role orientation of male and female principals and teachers and their performance on managerial aptitude measures. The study used 226 principals, 184 males and 42 females and 186 teachers, 5 males and 135 females. The instruments used were the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and the Management Aptitude Inventory. When grouped by sex and job category, all four categories demonstrated similar performances. The principals performed better than the teachers . The women responded by demonstrating higher motivation and aspiration than men. The female principals scored higher on the BSRI than did both teacher groups, indicating that women in a male administrator role had adopted more masculine self-descriptors.

The research on sex-role and its stereotypic effects on women include the following: According to Ashmore (1981), there has been a dramatic increase in sex stereotype research without a corresponding rise in our understanding of how men and women are perceived. The accumulated research has presented a set of attributes that are consensually regarded as typical of females or typical of males.

In 1971, Strauss completed research which attempted to describe the process of redefinition of self and femaleness in a group of women who were dissatisfied with traditional female values. The study involved twenty-five subjects who described themselves in the following categories -- myself as I am now, as the women who know me best see me, as the men who know me best see me, as men typically see me, as it would be socially desirable for me to be, and as I would wish to be ideally. The researcher used the Sex Role Stereotype Questionnaire (Broveman, 1970) in an interview. In conclusion, she found that the subgroups differed significantly in the way they perceived themselves and their perceptions of significant others.

In 1980, Ashmore and Tumia proposed that sex-stereotypes be phrased in terms of the person perception construct, "implicit personality theory", as the structured set of inferential relations that link personal attributes to the social categories, female and male. Thirty-one college students used a set of sixty-six personality traits to describe other people. A measure of trait concurrence was derived from these data and used as input to Kruskal's multi-dimensional scaling program. A two-dimensional configuration was interpreted in terms of social desirability and potency. An indirect female-male

property was found to be strongly related to the configuration and was closely aligned with the Potency dimension of person perception, with females seen as "soft" and males as "hard." The directly rated sex property Male-Female was not strongly related to the configuration. The results supported the utility of formulating sex stereotypes in term of implicit personality theory and proposed the need to distinguish direct and indirect assessments of stereotypes.

Bolander (1982) conducted a study in which he investigated the influence of the Behavior Record Form (BRF), specifically for scoring accuracy and resistance to sex-role stereotyping. In his study, items were varied from behaviorally specific and descriptive in nature to less specific and more evaluative in nature. Two separate work sample tests were selected. One was a male stereotypic task (auto mechanics) and one was female (secretary). For each task, male and female participants were videotaped separately performing the task at predetermined level of performance (60% correct behavior).

The study controlled the tasks represented in the videotape so that each subject had identical omissions for each task. The difference between the true performance level and BRF or global rating score was used as a measure of accuracy. An item analysis

was done to obtain the total number and absolute point value of errors committed. The subjects' job knowledge was assessed to examine its moderating effects.

Sex-role ratings were obtained using a ten item rating form. These were analyzed to see if sex-role stereotyping or sex bias affected accuracy of subjects' observations of task. The data were analyzed using two separate 3 x 2 x 2 analyses of variances. The subjects included sixty males and sixty females.

Bolander concluded that Behavior Record Forms were more accurately scored in both tasks than were the global ratings of performance. The BRFs were resistant to observer sex bias or actor sex-role stereotyping. Independent ratings of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping failed to show consistent biases of stereotyping occurring.

In a study conducted on the University of Oklahoma campus, Scott and Lane (1984) studied the effects of personality on performance and included sex-role as a variable for discussion. The study involved 83 women enrolled in physical education activity classes. The volunteers completed four separate inventories assessing sex-role, locus of control, need for achievement and Machiavellianism.

They were then randomly placed in groups of three to play a competitive board game.

The scores of the board game were compared to the personality traits of the individuals. Researchers had predicted that the top scores would be obtained by women who scored high in masculine sex-role. The highest score was obtained by participants having high masculinity, however, the second highest game score came from a group which scored low in masculinity traits. Since the survey sample was relatively small, the conclusions which indicated that these variables may be important in influencing the success of women in differing combinations other than those predicted need further evaluation.

The study of sex-reported stereotypes completed by Cantor and Meyerowitz (1984) assessed one hundred forty-eight undergraduate men and women who were asked to respond anonymously in group testing sessions to two sets of questionnaires. The first questionnaire reported the study group's own involvement in 45 masculine and feminine sex-typed behaviors. The second questionnaire asked the subjects to evaluate the involvement of men and women in the same behaviors.

Major findings included (a) sex differences in reported ability, enjoyment, performance, and

opportunity, which mirrored traditional sex-role stereotypes and indicated greater competence at stereotypic behaviors (the majority of differences significant at .01); (b) perceptions of men and women's behavior were consistent with sex-role stereotypes; and (c) sex differences in the perceived appropriateness of behaviors which indicated greater sex-typing in men's (as compared with women's) perceptions of both sexes. This study focused on self-reports of behavior in order to assess how behavior was influenced by aspects of the social environment, as well as, aspects of the person, such as simple learning. This approach attempted to provide differentiated information on the nature and extent of sex differences and the utility of sex-role stereotypes in predicting behavior.

The study supported the following general conclusions:

1. Perceptions of men and women's behavioral competencies were consistent with sex-role stereotypes. With few exceptions, views of men and women's abilities were shared by men and women.

2. Sex differences in reported ability/enjoyment and performance also mirrored stereotypes of masculine and feminine characteristics.

3. Perceived opportunities represented one possible explanation for the existence and perpetuation of sex differences an sex-role stereotypes.

4. Perceptions of appropriateness also represented an important variable in the possible explanation of sex differences and sex-role stereotypes. The implications of the study were assessed in the ability to change sex-role stereotypes and to more accurately describe them.

In related research, it was hypothesized from current data that there would be significant differences in job satisfaction of subordinates depending upon the interaction between their sex and the sex of their supervisors (Feild and Caldwell, 1979). Using job satisfaction data from 189 employees, it was found that 1) female subordinates supervised by male supervisors were less satisfied with supervision than those supervised by women; 2) females working under males reported a lower level of satisfaction with their co-workers than females supervised by females or males supervised by males; 3) women who had female supervisors indicated a higher level of satisfaction with their work than men with male supervisors.

Job satisfaction was measured through the use of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendelly, Hulin (1969). The sample was

divided into four groups as follows: female supervisor/female subordinates with N=53; female supervisor/male subordinates with N=15; male supervisor/female subordinates with N=39; male supervisor/male subordinates with N=32. A multiple analysis of variance was performed using five variables. Significant group differences were found for satisfaction between supervisors and co-workers.

Issacs (1972) studied sex-role stereotyping and the conditions under which people were prejudiced. In two experiments, college students evaluated two professional articles in feminine fields and two in masculine fields. The author's sex and title were manipulated such that each article was authored in four ways -- by a male (Mr.), a female (Miss), a high states male (Dr.), and a high status female (Dr.). It was concluded that prejudice against women may not be as pervasive as demonstrated in previous research, but the women in certain "masculine" fields may receive biased evaluations of their work by men if they are thought to be of low professional status.

Perceived sex appropriateness in a work situation has been linked to job opportunities for women. In a study which examined job tasks and sex appropriateness (Krefting and Berger, 1979), subjective estimates of the masculinity-feminity of the job requirement were assessed. The question of

commonly held stereotypes of the masculinity-feminity of the job requirement was analyzed through data gathered on the following: 1) interactions with data, with people, and with things; 2) the masculinity-feminity rankings of the levels of interaction for each dimension (within dimensions). An analysis of variance was used to compare ratings across the three job requirement dimensions by sex of observer.

Main effects for sex of observer and job requirement and interaction were statistically significant at .01. Simple main effects were also examined. Males and females differed in their perceptions of the masculinity-feminity of inter-acting with data and with people. However, females perceived both dimensions as less masculine than males. Sex appropriateness of job requirements was found to be better as a predictor of job sex-type than was the complexity of job requirements. Job sex-type appeared to be more effectively explained by variables such as base rate and occupation.

Work attitudes have often been affected by sex-role stereotyping. Rosenbach, Dailey and Morgan (1979) concluded that the differences between work attitudes of men and women were artifacts of hierarchical position and sex-role stereotyping. They suggested that much of the results would

disappear when women moved into jobs that were characterized by the presence of high levels of intrinsic job dimensions.

Their study involved one hundred twenty-three men and women using the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). The instrument was administered to the subjects in their work setting by one of the authors. It provided measures for the following job dimensions: 1) skill variety; 2) task identity; 3) task significance; 4) autonomy; 5) feedback from the job itself. Also, it provided two measures for supplementary variables -- feedback from others and dealing with others. Finally, two affective measures were assessed -- general job satisfaction and internal work motivation.

A one-way analysis of variance was performed to test for differences between men and women, with respect to their perceptions of core job dimensions, the supplementary dimensions, and general satisfaction, as well as internal work motivation. Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated within groups to test for relationships between job dimensions and the affective outcomes of work. Finally, multiple regression analysis and analysis of covariance were used to determine the nature of the predictive relationships between all of the job dimensions and the affective job responses of general

satisfaction and internal work motivation for women and men. The analysis indicated that men and women had similar perceptions of job dimensions with the exceptions of task identity and task significance. There was also significant differences between men and women with respect to general job satisfaction.

Sex-role stereotyping, including its origin in the attitudes of children, was studied by Rowe (1982). The study sought to determine if a significant difference existed in the extent of sex-role stereotyping in the children of mothers who possessed high or low attitudes toward sex-role equality and to examine the variables of maternal employment status and maternal satisfaction with employment. The data were collected from 170 mothers and children ages four to seven. The mothers completed an Attitudes Toward Women scale to assess their degree of belief in sex-role equity. A personal data questionnaire provided demographic data and determined the working mothers' satisfaction with their employment. Children took the Bardwell-Sietsman Sex Stereotype Scale to assess their level of sex-role stereotyping.

The mothers were grouped according to high or low degree of belief in sex-role equity and the children's sex-role stereotyping scores were compared. No significant differences were found.

When group mean sex-role stereotype scores were compared according to working and non-working mothers, the children of non-working mothers were found to be significantly less stereotyped (p .05) than were children of working mothers. No significant differences were found in the extent of sex-role stereotyping between children of satisfied mothers and non-working mothers. The conclusions reached by the researchers included the following: 1) maternal attitudes regarding sex-role equality did not appear to influence the sex-role stereotyped attitudes of their children; 2) children of non-working mothers appeared to have fewer sex-role stereotyped attitudes than do children of working mothers; 3) maternal satisfaction with employment did not influence their children's attitudes; 4) sex-role stereotyping in children increased with the age of the child.

Sex-role stereotyping has influenced individual job satisfaction as reported by Simpson (1974). A survey revealed that teachers considered different subjects more appropriately taught by men or women. In evaluating the prestige of teachers of different subjects, they attributed higher prestige to whichever sex conformed to the subject's sex stereotype.

Prestige attributions to men and women teachers considered separately, varied with the sex appropriateness of their subjects. Non-conformists appeared to avoid adverse effects on satisfaction by denying stereotypes. This last finding suggested that social norms concerning appropriateness of occupations may apply more strongly to men than to women because of greater centrality of occupations of male than female sex-roles. The survey included school teachers in sixty North Carolina counties and was mailed to 22,000 teachers with a 43.3 percent reportable set. The findings included the fact that sex-role stereotyping did not affect satisfaction. Strache's (1976) findings showed that stereotypes concerning the traits of women, in general, were applied to women in leadership positions, even though such applications may be invalid.

Geotz and (1976) found that groups with female supervisors were less satisfied with pay and promotions than those with male supervisors. Employee dissatisfaction may have been reflected in the degree that supervisors influenced their own superiors. There continued to be strong beliefs about differences in personality traits and leadership styles between female leaders and their male counterparts, which are not supported by research data. Thus, contrary to popular belief,

female leaders were not more emotional or suggestible or less decisive or less objective than male leaders. Also contrary to notions about sex specialization in leadership styles, women leaders appeared to behave in similar fashions to male colleagues. There were no consistent sex differences found among leaders. There were large differences in subordinate reactions to similar behaviors when exhibited by male and female leaders. In general, considerate female behavior was valued more than considerate male behavior. Male initiating behavior was assessed more positively than female initiation. Awareness of the complexity of leader-subordinate interaction has led to examination of the effects of different sex combinations of leaders and followers. Results are inconclusive, yet most negative reactions appear to occur among male subordinates of female supervisors.

Studies have shown consistently that subordinates, regardless of sex, liked supervisors who were "considerate" and "employee centered." This study examined similarities and differences in behavior patterns and skills of male and female leaders (N=32) under four standardized conditions. It indicated that no significant differences existed between the performance of male and female leaders on both their human relations, administrative, and technical skills. Bales' Interaction Process

analysis showed that female leaders exhibited more release of tension, agreed more often, gave more opinions, and asked for more suggestions than did male leaders. Differences in the measured behaviors of male as well as female subordinates in groups supervised by male and female leaders were found using an analysis of variance. This study (Wexley & Hunt, 1974) concluded that commonly held unfavorable attitudes by male managers regarding the supervisory potential of females were inaccurate.

Some studies revealing conclusions inconsistent with previous studies regarding sex-role stereotypes and emphasizing the need for a broader research base have been completed. Wood and Seaberg (1980) found that personality traits of both female and male educational administrators were atypical. The study included 64 female and 64 male administrators in the public school system in Oklahoma City. The subjects responded by self-identifying from a list of 300 behavioral adjectives. A 2 x 2 Chi square analysis was performed on those traits similar to the ones attributed to the male managerial model. One alternative conclusion postulated that sex-role stereotypes have changed significantly from earlier studies.

One hundred forty-nine subjects in thirty-five "sex-neutral" task groups over a six to fifteen week

period working in personnel management or business policy courses were studied by Goktepe (1986). The data gathered based on follower perceptions of sex, physical inter-personal attractiveness, and leader's self-described sex-role identity, indicated that the perceptions of leaders chosen by group members did not change during the course of the study. In general, sex did not influence perceptions of the emergent leader. Individuals with self-described "masculine" sex-role identity emerged as leaders more often.

While the preponderance of available evidence has been conceptualized as comparative studies of male and female sex-role orientation, the socialization of minority women to specific role expectations of a dominant culture may have produced dissonance in certain ethnic role situations. The American Indian female supervisor may be expected to compromise the ethnic role or sex-role, or some combination of the two, in the performance of her supervisory duties. Examples of research on sex-role and its stereotypic effects on minority women include the following:

Armstrong (1984) completed research which involved chronicling the life histories of two female representatives of ethnic minorities. The women were of similar age, marital status, parental experience,

education and socio-economic level. The histories discussed stereotyping and acculturation. Common themes developed from the histories -- both claimed a tradition of migration; both had to cope with living as a minority; both belonged to matriarchal cultures; both were socialized to believe that being female meant being inferior; both were educated by white female teachers. In her conclusions, Armstrong felt that the two representative ethnic groups suggested socializing the individual as a female, including general American models. A variety of personal, familial, and societal factors seemed to favor the influence of ethnicity on sex-role learning in these cases. Because life stories provide intensive, in-depth data that span social space and time, this research may be useful for examining an individual's socialization to female roles, in terms of cumulative and developmental aspects, strength of early socialization, significant turnings, life stage variation, role domain variation, and multiple agents of satisfaction.

In a study of the politics of ethnic and gender status, Lomire (1986) found that the majority status group had become a legally privileged status group that had a monopoly on opportunity. The purpose of the grouping was to develop a closure of social, political, legal, and economic opportunity to

outsiders. This research project found that two ideal-typical types of communities ascribed females differential degrees of opportunity. The ethnically "open" community generally ascribed females greater social, political, legal, and economic opportunity than the ethnically "closed" community.

Edwards, Edwards, and Reed (1984) assessed the importance of American Indian women in their sex-role modeling behaviors. This work was completed using an interview technique with the five models and fifty women participants in the American Indian Social Work Career and Training Program at the Graduate School of Social Work, University of Utah. Conclusions indicated that the practice of modeling has continued to prove valuable in many institutions in which American Indians participate, including educational, social service, and political. The modeling experience in traditional cultures appeared to be as effective in modern-day Indian societies. Since American Indian people have valued the important roles and responsibilities of women, the importance of female role models must be recognized, reinforced, and supported.

Job Satisfaction

Those motivational processes by which organizations control their members have been of primary interest to theorists of organizational

behavior. Job satisfaction has been dependent upon the levels of intrinsic and extrinsic results, as well as the employee's perceptions of those results. Using a social psychological perspective, researchers have sought to relate worker satisfaction to such variables as style of supervision (Argyris, 1964; Brewer and Tomlinson, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Likert, 1961; MacGregor, 1960; Tannenbaum, 1958). As the social structural perspective evolved, compliance theory integrated worker satisfaction with the social structural perspective of performance (Etzioni, 1961). Certain variables have been identified in the literature as potentially influencing individual job satisfaction. These have included:

1) the social aspects of the job, including interaction, accessibility and peer relations (Homans, 1950); supervisory methods (Karmel, 1978); human relations skills (Blake and Mouton, 1964); organizational climate (Baumgartel, 1972).

2) the job intrinsic aspects, including status (Hodge, Seigel, and Rossi, 1965); Robinson, 1969); work ethic (Brief and Aldag, 1977); challenge (Kraut and Ronen, 1975); self-actualization (Porter and Lawler, 1968); job involvement (Saleh and Hosek, 1976); fair reward (Adams, 1963); variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback (Hackman and Lawler, 1971).

3) the job situational determinant of job satisfaction, including span of control; size (Porter, 1963); scope and level (Porter and Lawler, 1965; Ronan, 1970; Lawler, 1977); type (Rainey, 1979)

4) ecological environmental sources of fluence including office landscape (Brookes, 1962).

5) appropriate sex-role, including sex of the supervisor (Bartol, 1974).

6) compensation, including expectations (Penzer, 1969); performance (Meyer and Walker, 1961).

Job satisfaction has been most frequently studied as a multi-dimensional phenomenon. Research has defined job satisfaction with at least two (Herzberg, 1966) and usually more components (Friedlander, 1965; Wernimont, 1966). Some studies defined job satisfaction as resulting from need fulfillment/met expectations (Argyris, 1964; Maslow, 1954, 1970; MacGregor, 1960; Porter and Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Also, job satisfaction, as a dynamic variable, has been explored by Landy (1978). As the individual's job satisfaction was related to attitudes toward the whole environment, these attitudes were expected to coincide with perceived reality to a considerable extent. Sex-role stereotyping, as an attitude of the employer (Simpson, 1974), has been linked to job satisfaction and has been attributed to perceptions of job

prestige. Changes in job satisfaction over extensive periods of time have been researched (Vroom and Deci, 1971; Smith, Roberts and Hulin, 1970). These changes were results of changes in perceptions of stereo-typing. The interaction of employee-supervisor relationships has been studied using sex-role as the intervening variable (Feild and Caldwell, 1979). Significant differences were noted in satisfaction with supervisors, co-workers, and work. Job satisfaction as a multi-dimensional variable was incorporated into this study as a discriminator.

As researchers began to question employee attitudes regarding the work environment, Festinger's (1957) theory of dissonance avoidance provided an alternative framework for exploration. Job satisfaction as the creation or result of consequences of decisions on various aspects of the job provided the foundation of this study. Job satisfaction for women workers has been traditionally researched from the job-gender model in which sex-roles generate the research framework. Women employed in the labor market have been viewed as responding primarily to the confines of sex-roles, as opposed to the structural rewards and constraints of the labor market itself.

Data from 1,496 full and part-time employed men and women were gathered about the quality of

employment, labor issues, job satisfaction, intrinsic job factors and their value, work related behaviors, job stress, the meaning of work and job standards. The instrument measured the following variables -- freedom, job involvement, support, challenge, skill and relevance. Each variable covaried significantly with the criterion variables of sex, age, income, occupation and marital status. The overall conclusion of this research (Moore, 1985) was that linear indices of job environments were weak descriptions of the true segmented structure of the labor market and attitudes related to work.

The relation of woman's self-esteem and stereotypic role behavior was investigated by Stafford (1984). The study included 456 college-educated women. The questionnaire assessed attitudes toward women's roles, labor force attainment, types of present and preferred occupation, and self-esteem. A random sample of 602 Pennsylvania alumnae were selected from the classes of 1950-1980 (N=4, 417). The questionnaire incorporated these measures of occupational behavior: Spence & Helmich Attitudes Toward Women Scale, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Respondents were white, upper-middle and lower-middle class women aged 20 to 50 years. Measures were obtained on the Labor Force Attachment Index and from the subjects' self-categorization of

present occupation. Congruence of present and preferred occupation were developed for the study.

A general linear model was used to test the results. No significant interaction effects between attitudes toward women's roles and labor force attachment were found. Also no significant main effects for attitudes towards women's roles, labor force attachment, present occupation, age, and marital status on self-esteem were found. The main effect of congruence on present and preferred occupation was significant. This study found no support for the hypothesis that attitudes toward women's roles and women's occupational behavior have an interactive effect on self-esteem. It did show that attitudes toward women's roles were an important factor in women's occupational behavior.

An increasingly common belief among social scientists has been that a sex bias has operated against women in the world of work. Brief and Wallace (1976) focused their study of the influence of sex biases on evaluations of women's performance. They hypothesized that evaluations of the performance of an employee in a job with a neutral sex-type (Librarian Administrator) would be influenced only by variation in actual performance and not by the employee's sex. A student sample of 95 males and 18 females and a librarian sample of 11 males and 36

females evaluated and rewarded either a male or female, high or low performing "employee." Responses were analyzed in a 2 x 2 fully crossed analysis of variance corresponding to the design of the experiment. Performance and sex were treated as fixed effects; hence, expected mean squares were derived with the use of Model I. Separate ANOVAs were carried out for students and librarians. The results indicated that performance feedback was the only manipulated factor in the experiment influencing the reward allocation in a statistically significant fashion. Neither employee's sex nor the performance x sex interaction had an effect that approached statistical levels of significance in either sample. These data support the hypothesis that the allocation of rewards in a job with a neutral sex-type was a function solely of employee performance and not employee sex.

Research has shown that job characteristics and organizational climate may, to a certain extent, improve job performance and satisfaction. Baklien (1980) identified correlates of job satisfaction and performance in a culturally divergent society. A structured questionnaire was administered to a sample in each of eight organizations. Three organizations were in higher education and five of the organizations were production firms. The

questionnaire included indices of organizational climate, job characteristics, and job satisfaction, as well as a scale of job performance. The data were analyzed using the Pearson correlation, a two way ANOVA and path analysis. From the conclusions drawn, it appeared that satisfaction and performance increased when the subject's educational level and position increased.

An experiment which tested the effects of three sex variables on managerial career evaluations was completed by Rose and Stone (1978). The variables were sex of evaluator, sex of manager (evaluatee), and predominant sex of manager's subordinates. Each subject evaluated four managers, one in each possible combination of the last two independent variables, in an "in basket" format. All four situations included comparable managerial performance data. Subjects evaluated each manager in terms of size of deserved salary increase, probability of performance if promoted, promotability, and probability of attaining 5-year tenure. There were no differences in evaluations between male and female evaluators. Manager's sex and predominant subordinate sex frequently interacted. The interactions were interpreted as a sex-matching bias which can inappropriately benefit managers of opposite sex subordinates and hinder careers of managers with

subordinates of their own sex. The analysis of the three sex variables' effect on the four dependent measures was a multi-variate analysis of variance, which was significant at the .05 level. The conclusions included evidence that both males and females may be subjected to favorable or unfavorable discrimination during their careers. Further, the probability of experiencing sex discrimination has not been related to evaluator's sex, nor to the manager's sex alone. Sex discrimination against managerial incumbents appeared most likely when performance data were sketchy or ambiguous and the manager's and subordinates' sexes matched. Aspiring managers with competent performance may have suffered either unwarranted discrimination or benefits depending on their subordinates' sex in any specific job.

In research involving an analysis of factors relating to job satisfaction and training of American Indian graduates, Thompson (1972) found that female Indian graduates made better job adjustments than did male graduates. The study focused on the following: 1) the satisfaction of American Indians with training in their jobs; 2) an investigation of their professional and socio-economic status, 3) an evaluation of the curricula used. Data were gathered by the Job Descriptive Index from 579 Indian

graduates and interviews held with 34 Indian business education graduates. The test used was Chi square. The findings included a profile which showed that the majority of all graduates were married, were employed in schools, and were in professional socio-economic class. Significant differences were found in the satisfaction of employees and that of Indian graduates regarding work, pay, promotion, and supervision on the job. For women and American Indian women, significant difference was found with co-workers, however, this was not true of the male sample.

Job attitudes of Navajo Tribal administrators were reviewed in a study by Elbert and Smith (1980). Questionnaires which were completed by forty-one supervisory and non-supervisory administrators of the Navajo Tribal Council included the Job Description Index, the Organizational Norms Opinionnaire, and an instrument designed to measure the participants' perceptions of subordinates' needs, superior's needs, and their own needs. The administrative responses indicated great satisfaction with their work, as well as with the supervision they received. Their satisfaction was hindered by two major factors: pay and promotional opportunities. The author noted that the results must be viewed in the context presented by the culture.

In a more recent study of job satisfaction among American Indians, MacKay (1987) used oral histories and archives to assess the results of federal employment programs for American Indians. She found that the underlying assumption for initiating the programs in the past century (1872-1972) was the "civilization" policy by the government. The programs which were established destroyed Indian independence and sovereignty and created dependency. This encouragement of wage work for American Indians had adverse efects on individuals and provided a longitudinal perspective of the job satisfaction of American Indians in jobs that were typically off-reservation and technical in nature. The overwhelming effect of this policy was that it promulgated the idea that Indians were incapable of managing their own affairs.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was based on the work of Festinger's (1957) early analysis of cognitive dissonance and on Bruner and Tagirui's (1954) study of implicit personality theory. These conceptual analyses serve as the basis for discussion of the perceptions of stereotypes, particularly ethnic and sex-role stereotyping.

In the concept of cognitive dissonance, the assumptions for avoidance interfaced with the concept of implicit personality theory to clarify the perceptions of American Indian women supervisors. Festinger's (1957) hypothesis of dissonance avoidance proposed that pressure to reduce dissonance appeared as soon as the dissonance was manifested. Individuals changed cognitions about behaviors by changing actions, or by changing knowledge about behaviors. Dissonance could arise because of cultural mores. The dissonance existed because the culture defined what was consonant, and what was not.

The components of Festinger's (1957) theory of dissonance avoidance included those acts which result from an individual's having made a decision. Consequently, the pressure to reduce dissonance can be seen after a choice has been made. It also included hypotheses on specific determinants of the magnitude of dissonance. He proposed the following situations in which a decision produced dissonance:

1. Decisions between completely negative alternatives.

2. Decisions between two alternatives, each having both positive and negative aspects.

3. Decision involving more than two alternatives.

The more important the decision being made, the stronger the dissonance created by the choice. The variable of importance is the general measure of the magnitude of dissonance. Another determinant of dissonance is the relative attractiveness of the unchosen alternative. The greater the relative attractiveness of the unchosen alternative to the chosen one, the greater will be the proportion of relevant elements that are dissonant with the cognition corresponding to the action (Wicklund and Brehm, 1976).

For any given relative attractiveness of the unchosen alternative, the more important the decision or the greater attractiveness of the chosen alternative, the greater would be the resulting dissonance. Correspondingly, as the relative attractiveness of the unchosen alternative decreased, the resulting dissonance also decreased. Also, the cognitive overlap or similarity of the alternatives affected the magnitude of the dissonance. The greater the cognitive overlap between two alternatives, the less the qualitative distinction between them; therefore, the smaller the dissonance that existed after the decision has been made (Festinger, 1957). If dissonance arises, pressure to reduce the dissonance begins. There are three ways in which reduction of dissonance can be accomplished.

These are: 1) changing or revoking the decision; 2) changing the attractiveness of the alternatives involved in the choice; 3) establishing cognitive overlap among the alternatives involved in the choice (Festinger, 1957).

Implicit personality theory, as proposed by Bruner and Tagirui (1954), addressed the culture of individuals. This theory examined generalizations made by individuals. The study of stereotypes is a determination of an individual's general perceptions of others. Since implicit personality theory is a hypothetical construct of what is perceived inside a person's head, it includes "trait elements" or "attributes of personality" that an individual believes others possess. The individual also believes that there are inferential relations among trait elements. Researchers designate this construct as implicit because they assume that individuals can be unaware that they infer certain trait elements in most situations. Approaches for the inquiry of stereotypic perceptions using implicit personality theory have generated several relevant hypotheses.

Conceptual Hypotheses

Cognitions (knowledge, opinion, or belief about the environment, about oneself, or one's behavior) are culturally reinforced. Individuals process information by attempting to explain cause and effect

relationships in their search for cognitive consonance.

All those elements that, considered alone, would lead to action other than the one taken are dissonant with the cognitive elements corresponding to the action taken. Dissonance is an almost inevitable consequence of a decision. How strong the dissonance created by a decision is related to the magnitude of the consequences of the decision.

The problem addressed by this investigation is concerned with identifying ethnic and sex-role stereotypes which affect the job satisfaction for a minority population within a minority population. The general basis for the study is grounded in the following questions: How does being American Indian affect a supervisor's job satisfaction? Does being female modify this perception?

Specifically, the three basic questions to be investigated are as follows:

1) Does ethnic stereotype influence perceptions of American Indian women supervisors' job satisfaction?

2) Does sex-role stereotype influence perceptions of American Indian women supervisors' job satisfaction?

3) Does the "double bind" of being viewed as an ethnic stereotype and a sex-role stereotype alter the

perceptions of job satisfaction for American Indian female supervisors?

Summary

In the survey of literature on stereotyping, particularly that of ethnic and sex-role stereotyping, the researchers have tended to parallel the original study by Lippman (1922). "Trait" adjective methodology was predominant throughout the research.

The research in ethnic stereotyping produced the refinement of measurement of stereotyping to include rigidity, directionality, and magnitude. Those works which included American Indian females as subjects were limited. The majority of work with this population was done by researchers from the majority population and included biases of sex-role which were associated with the dominant culture. More recent anthropological studies indicated that ethnic stereotyping for this population was steeped with misinformation as a result of the bias of early researchers. These ethnic stereotypes remain and have been promulgated by stereotypic use of characters in written materials, including movies and television.

Research in the area of sex-role stereotyping indicated that recent study has accelerated and yet at the same time, researchers have not narrowed the

field sufficiently to isolate the interactive effects of perceptions of male-female behavior. The most startling result in research in this area has been the conclusion that the differentiation between male and female sex-role has become more difficult to assess. Leadership studies, in fact, propose that there may be no predominant sex differences found among leaders.

Job satisfaction, too, has a broad base in research. Throughout the review of literature it was most frequently studied as multi-faceted and dynamic. Dissonance theory provided a general framework within which to discuss job satisfaction. Several studies also indicated that there was no difference in perceptions of job satisfaction, given similar circumstances, between males and females.

Job satisfaction, as it related to American Indians as a sample population, repeatedly referenced the culture of the sample as an important component of the research. Job opportunities for this sample population have been framed in the context of the historic period which provided the opportunity for the job and, subsequently, the research. Federal involvement in these studies was apparent and the review of this research must consider the perspective of the source.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

The population for the study was female American
Indian supervisors. The sample was drawn from
various networking indices which identified members
of the population. These indices included, but were
not limited to, the following organizations:
Americans for Indian Opportunity, Administration of
Native Americans, American Indian Consortium on
Higher Education, Educational Professionals for
Indian Children, Indians Into Medicine, North
American Indian Women's Association, Women of All Red
Nations, and Ohoyo.

The sample, selected from these membership
rolls, was random. Respondents categorized their
field of employment by selecting from one of nine
categories provided in the demographic questionnaire
which was included with the questionnaires on ethnic
stereotype, sex-role stereotype, and job
satisfaction. The sample represented a national

profile of American Indian women professionals who supervised in the following areas:

1) Art

2) Business

3) Communication

4) Education

5) Health Care

6) Law

7) Science

8) Social Work

9) Tribal

Approximately one thousand individuals were identified through the collection of the networking indices. Each individual was assigned an identifying number. The sample of two hundred individuals was drawn from the one thousand references using the Table of Random Numbers.

Consecutive numbers were assigned to each member of the population from which the sample was to be selected. Then the Table was referenced and used to select the sample. Conscious selection of a particular individual or observation was avoided as a result of this process. Each individual in the set of one thousand references had an equal chance of being selected and each choice was independent of any other choice (Best, 1977).

Procedures for Collecting Data

The collection of the data was completed using a three-part questionnaire developed for this study (See Appendix C). The questionnaire was distributed by mail to the sample of two hundred. The researcher also sent a letter soliciting the assistance of the individuals in the sample in this research (See Appendix A). Demographic data which were also collected included the following: age, tribal affiliation, number of males/females supervised, professional area, salary range, and formal education. This demographic information was collected to project a profile of American Indian women supervisors, as well as to understand the impact of characteristics which might intervene in the results of the study. It provided the basis for the categorization of respondents in the subgroups which allowed for the testing of relationships.

The questionnaire was mailed to those representing the study sample. The first mailing had a return rate of 33 percent. An additional request and second mailing produced an additional 12 percent. A third and final mailing to the non-respondents increased the rate of return an additional 13 percent to the total used in the study of 116. This represented a 58 percent return rate of the initial two hundred individuals in the sample.

Instrumentation

Each of the following variables was measured on a separate instrument developed for use in this study and incorporated into one questionnaire: Ethnic stereotype, Sex-role stereotype, and Job Satisfaction.

Ethnic stereotype was measured through the administration of a twenty-three item questionnaire based on the indicators of ethnic stereotype reported in the review of literature. Indicators of the variable ethnic stereotype included: cross cultural stereotype (government, language, tradition); reciprocal stereotype (conformity, customs, physical characteristics); self-stereotype (customs, physical characteristics,names). Each indicator was used in the design of several statements in the questionnaire. A single statement was developed to provide a global measure of perceptions of ethnic stereotype.

Sex-role stereotype was measured through the administration of a twenty item questionnaire based on the indicators of sex-role stereotype reported in the review of the literature. These indicators of sex-role stereotyping included: self image, males stereotype of feminine women; women's perceptions of males's stereotype of feminine women. Each indicator was used in the design of the statements. A final

statement was used to measure the global perception of sex-role stereotype.

Job satisfaction was measured through the administration of a sixteen item instrument based on indicators of job satisfaction reported in a review of the literature. Those indicators included: social aspects of the job (interaction, accessibility, peer relations, supervisory method, human relations skills, organizational climate); intrinsic aspects (status, self-actualization, job involvement); situational determinants (span of control, size, scope, level); ecological environment sources of influence (working conditions); compensation (expectation, performance). Each indicator of job satisfaction was used in the design of the statements. A final statement was developed to provide a global measure of perceptions of job satisfaction.

The three instruments were formatted using the Likert-style (Likert, 1961) for these responses and scores: "Always" (5),"Frequently" (4), "Sometimes" (3), "Seldom" (2), "Never" (1). The Likert-type scale consisted of opinions held by a substantial number of the population, including favorable and unfavorable points of view (See Appendix C 1-3). They were administered as one instrument.

Validity

In order to establish the validity of the three instruments, a panel of qualified judges reviewed the instruments prior to the pilot test. The panel reviewed the statements for content validity, assessing the statements as they reflected the indicators of each variable. After the review, some statements were refined to reflect concerns, including readability levels. The revised questionnaires were used in the pilot study.

Twenty volunteers were asked to complete the three instruments, using the Likert-style response. The three instruments were presented to the volunteers as one instrument. After the individuals responded to the questionnaires, the questionnaires and the responses were collected for scoring and statistical tests. An item analysis was completed on the pilot questionnaire in order to assess the instrument and make adjustments to items.

The item analysis compared individual scores on each item to the response to the global question for each sub-category. Each individual volunteer had a score for perceptions of ethnic stereotype, perceptions of sex-role stereotype, and perceptions of job satisfaction. The subscores on each of the three instruments were tested for correlation to the global score for each instrument.

Reliability

The development of the three instruments for use in this study was completed when the statistical reliability of the questionnaires and the content validity were established by the volunteers in the pilot test. The Spearman-Brown formula was used to compute the coefficient of correlation. This formula correlated the scores on the odd items of the test against the even items (Glass and Stanley, 1971).

The correlation coefficient for the questionnaire on ethnic stereotype in the pilot study was .95. The correlation coefficient for the questionnaire on sex-role stereotype in the pilot study was .88. The correlation coefficient for the questionnaire on job satisfaction in the pilot study was .74. The reliability of each of the individual measures was adequate for the project.

The Conceptual Hypotheses

H_0 There is a negative relationship between perceptions of co-worker ethnic stereotyping and job satisfaction for American Indian women supervisors.

H_1 There is a negative relationship between perceptions of co-worker sex-role stereotyping and job

satisfaction for American Indian
women supervisors.

H$_2$ There is a higher negative correlation
between perceptions of the combined
effect of ethnic and sex-role
stereotyping and job satisfaction
for American Indian women supervisors
than there is between either of the
two separate correlations.

Treatment of the Data

The administration of the instrument to the
sample produced a score for each variable; each
subject had a score for ethnic stereotype, a score
for sex-role stereotype, and a score for job
satisfaction. Each of the three scores had a subset
of scores for the separate indicators of the variable
and one score for the global assessment of the
variable.

The data were statistically treated using
correlational analysis. The subset scores were
correlated with the global scores to test for
internal consistency. The variable scores were
tested for statistical correlation to assess the
strength of the relationship between perceptions of
stereotype and perceptions of job satisfaction.

This analysis of the data was made to study the
relationship between perceived ethnic stereotype and

perceived job satisfaction; the relationship between perceived sex-role stereotype and perceived job satisfaction; the relationship between the perceived correlation of ethnic and sex-role stereotype and perceived job satisfaction. A composite profile was constructed from the demographic data. This included information reported from the sample and identified age, tribe, number of males/females super-vised, and professional area of employment (Appendix D).

Summary

Fifty-eight percent of those chosen for the study responded to the questionnaire and provided the basis for the tabulations and data summaries. The demographic data were used to compile a profile of the American Indian woman supervisor and reflected the diversity of the sample. Nine categories of careers were delineated for use in the study.

The instruments developed for the measurement of the variables of ethnic stereotyping, sex-role stereotyping, and job satisfaction were combined to form the basis of this project. The resultant questionnaire measured indicators of perceptions of the variables. Item analyses were completed to compare individual scores with the summary score to assure validity.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Ethnic stereotype, sex-role stereotype and job satisfaction were measured through the administration of a three part questionnaire developed for this study. The questionnaire was distributed to the two hundred members of the population. These individuals had been randomly selected from a population of one thousand through the use of the Table of Random Numbers.

The individuals completing the instrument were assigned a subscore on each of the three variables, so that for each respondent, there was a score for ethnic stereotype, sex-role stereotype, and job satisfaction. The individuals also completed a demographic questionnaire. This questionnaire elicited information on each of the respondents regarding type of business in which the respondent was employed; number of years as a supervisor; number and types of employees supervised; years of formal education; age; tribal affiliation; current salary;

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rating on last performance evaluation; and sex and race of their own supervisor. These data were collected and used in the classification of respondents in order that comparisons could be made between various subgroups within the sample.

The data were analyzed using correlational coefficients for the following subgroups. A separate correlation was calculated on the three variables (ethnic stereotype, sex-role stereotype, and job satisfaction) for each of the following:

    Table 1: Total Sample
    Table 2, 3: Sex of Supervisor
    Table 4, 5: Ethnicity of Supervisor
    Table 6: "Outstanding" Job Performance
    Table 7: "Above Satisfactory" Job Performance
    Table 8: "Satisfactory" Job Performance
Ratings of job performance in categories of "Marginal" and "Unsatisfactory" did not yield a sufficient sample to calculate the correlations. Table I reflects the data from the total sample.

TABLE I

Correlations of

Stereotyping and Job Satisfaction

for Female American Indian Supervisors

	R-Square	Job Satisfaction Multiple R
Ethnic Stereotype	0.0486	.2206203
Sex-Role Stereotype	0.1381	.3716533
Ethnic Stereotype Sex-Role Stereotype	0.1381	.3716731
N=116		F 18.2700

The multiple   R   represents   the   maximum
correlation between the   dependent   variable   of   job
satisfaction and a weighted combination of ethnic and
sex-role stereotyping. As   illustrated   in   Table I,
ethnic stereotype produced   a multiple R of .3716731.
The variables of ethnic and sex-role stereotype   have
a .60 correlation   with   each   other   (Table   I-A, See
Appendix E-1).   They appear   to   be much the   same and
the contribution of   ethnic   stereotype   to   the
correlation of job satisfaction is minimal.

TABLE 2

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

| | FEMALE SUPERVISOR | | |
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.73*	-.29
Sex-Role Stereotype	.73*	1.00	-.56*
Job Satisfaction	-.29	-.56*	1.00

N=26   *Significant at .01 level

TABLE 3

Correlation of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

| | MALE SUPERVISOR | | |
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.52*	-.19*
Sex-Role Stereotype	.52*	1.00	-.30*
Job Satisfaction	-.19*	-.30*	1.00

N=86   *Significant at .01 level

In Table 2 and Table 3 the sample population has been categorized into two groups. Table 2 reports the results of those individuals in the sample who indicated that their immediate supervisor was female. Table 3 reports the results of those individuals in

the sample who indicated that their immediate supervisor was male. Four individuals who completed the instruments did not report the sex of their immediate supervisor and were not included in the samples used for Table 2 and Table 3.

In Table 2, the correlation between the interactive perception of ethnic stereotype and the perception of sex-role stereotype is .73 which is significant at .01. This represented the highest positive correlation calculated for any of the subgroups and indicated a substantial relationship between the two variables. Compared to Table 3, the perception of ethnic stereotype and the perception of sex-role stereotype is .52 which is again significant at .01. This represented a more moderate effect among women who had male supervisors.

For those individuals who reported female supervisors, the correlation between perceptions of ethnicity and job satisfaction was -.29 (Table 2). This indicated that for this subgroup, women who believed they were perceived as Indian stereotypes reported low satisfaction in their jobs. For the group which indicated that their immediate supervisor was male (Table 3), the correlation between perception of ethnic stereotype and job satisfaction was -.19 (significant at .01). This level of significance indicated that those women who believed

others treated them as Indian stereotypes tended to report lower job satisfaction. Also the group having the male supervisor tended to report less correlation with satisfaction in their supervisory roles than did the group which had a female supervisor.

For the group having a female supervisor the correlation between perceptions of sex-role stereotype and job satisfaction was -.56 which is significant at .01 (Table 2). For the group which reported that their immediate supervisor was male, (Table 3), the correlation between perception of sex-role stereotype and job satisfaction was -.30 (significant at .01).

The total group was also subdivided into those individuals who reported that their immediate supervisor was American Indian and those who reported that their immediate supervisor was non-Indian. These two groups represented an almost exact division of the total, with American Indian supervisors reported by 55 individuals and non-Indian supervisors reported by 57 individuals in this sample. Again four of the respondents did not indicate this information and were not included in the sample.

TABLE 4

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

| | AMERICAN INDIAN SUPERVISOR | | |
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.69*	-.34
Sex-Role Stereotype	.69*	1.00	-.40*
Job Satisfaction	-.34*	-.40*	1.00

N=55   *Significant at .01 level

TABLE 5

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

| | NON-INDIAN SUPERVISOR | | |
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.45*	-.10
Sex-Role Stereotype	.45*	1.00	-.40*
Job Satisfaction	-.10	-.40*	1.00

N=57   *Significant at .01 level

For those individuals who reported that their own supervisor was American Indian (Table 4), the interactive relationship between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and sex-role stereotype was substantial at .69 (significant at .01). It was

more moderate in the group which indicated that their immediate supervisor was Non-Indian (Table 5) at .45.

For those in the sample who reported that their supervisor was American Indian (Table 4), perceptions of ethnic stereotype negatively correlated with job satisfaction at -.34 (significant at .01). These individuals tended to report less correlation with satisfaction in their positions. For those reporting a Non-Indian supervisor (Table 5), the correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and job satisfaction was not significant (-.10).

For those who reported an American Indian supervisor (Table 4), the perceptions of sex-role stereotype and job satisfaction correlated at a moderate -.40 (significant at .01). This correlation was reported by both groups. Again, it appeared that the respondents reported that ethnic stereotype correlated with perceptions of job satisfaction when compared with Non-Indian supervisors and interacted with evidence of sex-role stereotyping.
However, the variable of sex-role stereotype appeared to correlate with the reports by the sample of job satisfaction more than the variable of ethnic stereotype.

From a review of the data which were collected and subdivided based on level of performance in their last yearly evaluation, those individuals who had

received an Outstanding rating (see Table 6) had a correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and sex-role stereotype of .42 (significant at .01 level). The correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and job satisfaction was -.13 which was not significant. Individuals who were rated as outstanding on their job performance tended to report limited perceptions of ethnic stereotype as it related to their satisfaction. This group did, however, indicate a -.31 (significant at .01) correlation of perceptions of sex-role stereotype to job satisfaction indicating a low relationship between the two.

TABLE 6

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

	OUTSTANDING PERFORMANCE RATING		
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.42*	-.13
Sex-Role Stereotype	.42*	1.00	-.31*
Job Satisfaction	-.13	-.31*	1.00

N=43   *Significant at .01 level

While the subgroup which rated the highest on their performance evaluation evidenced only a slight

negative correlation between their perceptions of stereotype and their job satisfaction, those individuals who were subgrouped as "Above Satisfactory" and "Satisfactory" indicated a higher correlation between the interaction of variables of stereotype, .69 and .86 respectively (see Table 7 and 8).

Those individuals who reported "Above Satisfactory" had a -.22 correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and job satisfaction (Table 7). This was not significant. This group did not tend to report less satisfaction with their job relative to their perceptions of an Indian stereotype. They did report a -.37 (significant at .01) correlation between sex-role stereotype and job satisfaction indicating that if they perceived themselves as being viewed as a female stereotype, they tended to report less satisfaction in their role as manager.

For each of the three groups ("Outstanding", "Above Satisfactory", and "Satisfactory") reporting job performance, the perceptions of sex-role stereotype appeared to relate to their reports of job satisfaction more than their perceptions of ethnic stereotype.

TABLE 7

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

ABOVE SATISFACTORY LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.69*	-.22
Sex-Role Stereotype	.69*	1.00	-.37*
Job Satisfaction	-.22	-.37*	1.00

N=52   *Significant at .01 level

TABLE 8

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

SATISFACTORY PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.86*	-.41
Sex-Role Stereotype	.86*	1.00	-.51*
Job Satisfaction	-.41	-.51*	1.00

N=13   *Significant at .01 level

The last subgroup identified was that of Satisfactory performance rating (Table 8). This group had a .86 interactive correlation between ethnic stereotype and sex-role stereotype. It was,

too, the smallest N (13) reporting of the three. This group had a -.41 correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and job satisfaction, which was not significant. However, the group did have a -.51 correlation of their perceptions of sex-role stereotype and that of job satisfaction. This correlation was significant at the .01 level.

These three subgroups represented 108 of the total N for the population, one individual reported a performance rating of Unsatisfactory and seven individuals did not report the data.

The Appendices present further demographic data gathered on this sample population. Appendices A 1-3 provide illustrations of the letters which accompanied the instrument when it was mailed to the sample population. Appendix B illustrates the background questionnaire which was mailed to the respondents. It provided the demographic data which were used to group the respondents into various subgroups for test purposes.

Appendixes C 1-3 contain the instruments which were used in the correlational studies. Appendix C-1 is the instrument used for obtaining information on perception of ethnic stereotyping; C-2 was used for obtaining information on sex-role stereotyping, and C-3 was used to collect information on job satisfaction.

Appendixes D 1-4 provide summary data collected on the sample. Appendix D-1 contains the Range and Mean for the following: Years as Supervisor; Number of Female Indians Supervised; Number of Male Indians Supervised; Number of Female Non-Indians Supervised; Number of Male Non-Indians Supervised; Years of Formal Education; Age; Salary; Rating on Last Performance Evaluation. Appendix D-2 provides summary information on the various fields of employment represented by the sample. Appendix D-3 provides summary information on tribal affiliation as it was self-reported by the respondents. Appendix D-4 is a frequency distribution of the salary reported by the sample.

Appendices E contain the following Tables of Correlations of Stereotype Perceptions and Job Satisfaction:

Table 1 - Total Sample

Table 2 - Female Supervisor

Table 3 - Male Supervisor

Table 4 - American Indian Supervisor

Table 5 - Non-Indian Supervisor

Table 6 - Outstanding Performance

Table 7 - Above Satisfactory Performance

Table 8 - Satisfactory Performance

These data were collected in order that a profile of the sample could be established (See Appendix B).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

The effects of stereotyping on an individual's job satisfaction has been established (Simpson, 1974; Smith, Roberts, and Hulin, 1970; Brief and Wallace, 1976; Rose and Stone, 1978; Elbert and Smith, 1980; Stafford, 1984; MacKay, 1987). Many researchers have attempted to use implicit personality theory to predict individual satisfaction with variables of the work environment. Considerable literature has developed from Lippman's (1922) original studies in stereotyping. Tagential to this original study a body of research has developed in the areas of ethnic and sex-role stereotyping, which included the refinement of instruments as well as the treatment of data. The base of the research to date does not focus on the interaction of the two stereotypes, the "double bind."

The perceptions of stereotyping as framed in the theoretical work of Festinger (1957) and Bruner and Tagirui (1954) provided a basis for the conceptual

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and operational analyses of ethnic stereotyping, sex-role stereotyping, and job satisfaction. The theoretical hypotheses incorporated the element of magnitude, as well as that of directionality. Further, the previous works proposed inferential relationships between such variables as stereotyping and dissonance or satisfaction.

In this study, the researcher focused the elements of various courses of inquiry into a narrow field of assessment. The study necessitated the development of a three part instrument to measure the subjects' perceptions of the effect of stereotyping, as well as, job satisfaction.

The research questions investigated in this study were as follows:

1. There is a negative relationship between perceptions of co-worker ethnic stereotyping and job satisfaction for American Indian women supervisors.

2. There is a negative relationship among perceptions of co-worker sex-role stereotyping and job satisfaction for American Indian women supervisors.

3. There is a higher negative relationship between perceptions of the combined effect of ethnic and sex-role stereotyping and job

satisfaction for American Indian women supervisors.

Conclusions

For the total sample, research question one appeared to be valid as stated. It was valid for each of the subgroups investigated, however, in the group having the female supervisor, the correlation was not strong enough to be reported as significant. This was true also for the group which had the Non-Indian supervisor. There were, therefore, at least two instances where the perceptions of ethnic stereotype did not tend to affect reports of job satisfaction. In these two categories, the subjects did not feel they were perceived as a female Indian stereotype or were not threatened by that perception.

The three subgroups of performance evaluation (Outstanding, Above Satisfactory, and Satisfactory) each reported a similar negative correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and their tendency to report job dissatisfaction. While the three groups reported negative correlations, none was significant. This lack of significance indicates that for these three groups, the perceptions of ethnic stereotype have little relationship to their role as a supervisor. Again, the individuals,

basically the entire sample, found little threat in being viewed as an ethnic stereotype.

It is interesting to note that while none of the levels were significant in these three groups, the correlation became stronger as the rating moved downward, that is, for an Outstanding rating the correlation was -.13, for Above Satisfactory, it was -.22 and for Satisfactory, it was -.41. This indicated that as the group became less likely to feel comfortable with their performance rating, the correlation became more evident. For individuals in the Satisfactory performance level group, they may have reported more perceptions of stereotype as an Indian female in an effort to affect some cause to their level of performance.

The second research question involved the negative relationship between perceptions of sex-role and job satisfaction. For the overall group, this was relationship was moderate. In fact, it was moderate for each of the subgroups (Total, Female Supervisor, Male Supervisor, American Indian Supervisor, Non-Indian Supervisor, Outstanding Performance, Above Satisfactory Performance, and Satisfactory Performance) assessed. In each case, the correlation was negative and its strength significant. It appeared that this population felt more pressure from the typical female sex-role

stereotype, than with that of the female American Indian. One reason this may be true is that this population may be ethnocentric and not tend to view the stereotype of the Indian as a negative one, particularly within a predominantly Native community, like the world of work. The female sex-role, on the other hand, is founded in a stereotype from a predominantly white culture, and this population appeared to feel less comfortable with that acculturation.

The last research question involving the interactive correlation of perceptions of ethnic and sex-role stereotyping to job satisfaction may be viewed through the shared variance of ethnic and sex-role stereotype reported in each subgroup. The analysis indicated that there is a significant correlation between perceptions of ethnic stereotype and perceptions of sex-role stereotype for each of the groups (Total, Female Supervisor, Male Supervisor, American Indian Supervisor, Non-Indian Supervisor, Outstanding Performance, Above Satisfactory Performance, Satisfactory Performance) assessed.

These significant relationships ranged from .42 to .86. Combining the two stereotypes tended to compound the problems for the sample. However, as indicated in the conclusions based on the research

question regarding ethnic stereotype, the interaction of the two may have tended to eliminate some of the negative effects of the sex-role stereotype in favor of the ethnic stereotype. It was evident that an individual who tended to report perceptions of ethnic stereotype also tended to report perceptions of sex-role stereotype.

The study did not attempt to delineate between the sample's assessment of a stereotyped role as positive or negative, yet from the relationships reported, it is evident that some American Indian female supervisors feel it has influenced them negatively to be seen in the role of female American Indian supervisor. They do feel more uncomfortable with the sex-role stereotype alone, and it appeared that they viewed this stereotype negatively.

Practical Implications of the Study

The conclusions drawn from the correlations of this study elicit further questions. These correlations, as well as others not assessed, may contribute to the perceptions of job satisfaction for American Indian female supervisors. The review of related research has established the "double bind" as a focus of inquiry. This research established the strength and weaknesses of various relationships within the scope of the "double bind." Clearly,

further study in the area of inferential relationships would provide a link to the practical questions generated from the study.

Such practical questions, in need of further study include the testing of hypotheses for cause and effect. Current literature postulates reasons why minority women who are caught in the "double bind" do not respond to the call for change through such change agencies as the women's movement.

The 1970s women's movement has provided the foundation for serious inquiries into sex-role stereotyping and proved a valuable basis for commitment from federal agencies and funding sources. By the early 1980s, however, this commitment began to waiver as federal dollars no longer supported institutional research on women's studies or minority studies (Rubin, 1985). Minimal emphasis has been given to the American Indian female, particularly in the context of a leadership or supervisory role.

The Indian, by and large, has been a motif embedded in America, not perceived as part of the American present. The confusion has resulted from the fact that often Indian people have been mistaken for the Indian (Dorris, 1981). The management implications resulting from this study have focused on the assessment of individuals.

Employers of a work force which may include American Indian women, particularly supervisors, have been aware that job performance is influenced by job satisfaction. The training, expense, and energy which is required of a supervisor in the recruitment and retention of qualified Indian women should provide motivation for continuing efforts to study this segment of the work force.

American Indian women have traditionally performed many important responsibilities as role models for other Native Americans (Edwards, Edwards, Daines, and Reed, 1984). Meaningful roles were modeled continuously for American Indian children by women in their own and extended families (Niethammer, 1977). The perpetuation of such modeling can be seen as beneficial in recruiting American Indian women into the job force and particularly in supervisory roles.

Finally, in assessing the practical implications of the study, it should be noted that the past decade has witnessed a call for the research of American Indians to be done by American Indians (Ryan and Spence, 1978; Brown, 1980). More recently, LaFramboise and Plake (1983) proposed a curricular integration focusing on educational research by American Indians. Basing this proposal in a traditional framework, they quote Costo (1970, p.4).

Among us, traditionally, the scholars are

the servants of the people. The "People"

reign supreme, by virtue of their right to

approve or disapprove actions in all areas

of life, and by reason of their perogative

to protect individual and tribal rights.

And so we say . . . let people come for

help to their own scholars. And let the

scholars spend "their very lives" and

energies to the service of their people.

The framework and concepts, as well as the evaluations and conclusions, studied here represented those of American Indian female supervisors. Contemporary Indian female writers now call for a coalition of Indian peoples which acknowledges the diversity among all Indians and aspires that Indian women quit living a white woman's stereotype of Indian women (Butterfield and Scheirbeck, 1980). McClung (1980) asserted that the "American Dream" has not happened to Indian women because of a lack of awareness and opportunity resulting from historical stereotypes.

Much has been written about how and why Indian women have not joined the women's movement. Some authors have postulated that Indian women are equal within their own culture. Others indicate that the movement is a product of upper-middle class white

women; still others believe that Indian women have been too busy surviving to participate. It has appeared that all of these have basis, however, Anderson (1981) theorized that it was a matter of economics. Indian women, she felt, would remain powerless until they recognized that their cultures were viewed by policy-making bureaucrats as one stereotype.

Indian women are often seen as being "the Indian" in a non-Indian situation. They are seen as representatives, whether they like it or not. Success for Indian women today is dependent upon learning how to take the best from both worlds (Witt, 1979). Their success may require using the stereotype, if necessary, to create a common dialogue.

If American Indian women are to compete equally in the job market as effective supervisors, it may be necessary to alert employers to those considerations which affect job satisfaction in that role. It may be that certain identified or ascribed traits perceived as undesirable by individual American Indian women supervisors negated their perceptions of job satisfaction. The "double bind" may be a critical component of job satisfaction for these employees.

As the law has demanded equal opportunity for this population, the question of equality can only be addressed by the employers and the employees. Available evidence which strengthens or weakens the perceptions of job satisfaction is clearly an important consideration for potential employers and could add to the self-awareness of employees. The relationship between employers and employees can be strengthened with this awareness.

This assessment of the practical implications is based on the issues this research has generated, rather than on the issues of relationships presented by the data studied in this sample. While these implications are a result of tangential questions of cause and effect, the relationship data presented and discussed served as the basis for further areas of research. These practical implications focus, therefore, on the need to re-evaluate the assumptions of the "double bind" as well as to focus on future inquiry in the field of stereotyping.

Recommendations for Future Research

In this study, the researcher sought to investigate the relationship of perceptions of ethnic and sex-role stereotyping on an individual's perceptions of job satisfaction with a sample population of American Indian female supervisors.

The repetition of this study would validate the results and emphasize the conclusions drawn from the correlational analyses completed.

The following recommendations are made for further study:

1. Stratify the sample of the population in order that one group is not overwhelmingly represented in any one category.

2. Complete the study in matched pairs with employee (American Indian female supervisor) and her supervisor, including data on her performance evaluation.

3. Stratify the data based on tribal affiliation.

4. Stratify the data, based on categories of matriarchal or patriarchal tribal entities.

5. Broaden the base of the sample to include more individuals from areas outside of education.

6. Include other demographic information which would add descriptors to the population, such as, Single Head of Household.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A-1

Letter 1

(Pilot Study Sample)

Dear   :

You have been selected as a representative of
American Indian women supervisors to participate in
research which will be conducted among several
hunmdred individuals across the country. The purpose
of the research is to determine if a relationship
exists between job satisfaction and stereotypes.
Your participation in this study will assist in
clarifying factors affecting job satisfaction as it
relates to American Indian women.

The objectives of the study are:
1.   To examine job satisfaction
2.   To examine the relationship between ethnic
     stereotype and job satisfaction
3.   To examine the relationship between sex-
     role stereotype and job satisfaction.

The accompanying survey asks a variety of questions
concerning your background, experiences, and
attitudes. All information is treated as
confidential and at no time will specific answers be
associated with individuals. All reports generated
by the research will contain only summary data.

Please respond to the items using your own best
judgment and care. I appreciate your taking the time
to complete the survey and questionnaire. If you
would like a copy of the results, I have provided a
form which can be returned with the questionnaire.

Thank you for your assistance in this project.

Sincerely,

Linda Sue Thomas

APPENDIX A-2

Letter 2

February 21, 1986

(Name)
(Mailing Address)

At the present time, I am engaged in research concerning the relationships between job satisfaction of American Indian female supervisors and their perceptions of ethnic and sex-role stereotypes held by their co-workers.

The enclosed questionnaire represents the work I have completed to date in the development of measures of these three variables.

I know that you share an active interest in issues which affect American Indian women, therefore, I am hoping that you will participate, along with other individuals, in the pilot test of this instrument.

This pilot test is a pre-requisite to the study which is a partial requirement for my doctoral degree at the University of Oklahoma. My degree is to be earned in General Administration in Education, however, this project will be of interest to employers and the Native American community in general.

All of the information collected will be reported in confidence; there will be no identification associated with specific respondents. After your initial response, please feel free to add comments or reactions as you feel they are relevant.

Thank you for your assistance in this project.

Linda Sue Thomas

Enclosures

APPENDIX A-3

Letter 3

June 14, 1986

Good Morning:

At the present time, I am engaged in research concerning the relationships between the job satisfaction of American Indian female supervisors and their perceptions of ethnic and sex-role stereotypes held by their co-workers.

The enclosed questionnaire represents the work I have completed to date in the development of measures for these three variables. It has been pilot tested by American Indian women in supervisory roles and has proven to be a valid indicator of reliable data.

I know that you share an active interest in issues which affect American Indian women, therefore, I invite you to participate as one of the two-hundred individuals contributing to this study.

This data is a pre-requisite to the study which is a partial requirement for my doctoral degree at the University of Oklahoma. My degree is to be earned in General Administration in Education, however, this project will be of interest to employers and the Native American community in general. As an American Indian female supervisor, I am interested in the degree of shared perceptions and shared concerns on a personal level, as well as a professional level.

All information collected will be reported in confidence; there will be no identification associated with specific respondents. After your initial response, please feel free to add comments or reactions as you determine they are relevant.

Please return the questionnaire by folding it and securing it closed. I am hopeful that you can complete the questionnaire and return it to me by July 1. Thank you for your assistance in this project. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Enclosures   Linda Sue Thomas

APPENDIX A-4

Letter 4

April 27, 1987

(Name)
(Mailing Address)

Earlier in my dissertation study, I mailed a copy of this questionnaire to you. At this time, I have not received your response.

I am excited about some of the comments and encouragement received so far, however, I am anxious to include your opinions in my study.

Please take a few minutes to respond at this time and return this copy to me. I have included a postage-paid mailer. I am requesting the return of the survey as soon as possible.

Thank you for your assistance in this project. I am hopeful that the data collected will benefit Indian women in the workforce. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Linda Sue Thomas

enclosures

APPENDIX B

Background Information

1. Type of business or employment (circle one)

    Art, Business, Communication, Education,
    Health Care, Law, Science, Social Work, Tribal

2. Number of years as supervisor:

3. Number of employees supervised:

    Female (Indian):   Female (Non-Indian):
    Male (Indian: Male (Non-Indian):

4. Years of formal education:

5. Age: 6. Tribal Affiliation:

7. Salary Range:

8. Rating on last performance evaluation:
    Circle one.

    Outstanding, Above Satisfactory, Satisfactory

    Marginal, Unsatisfactory

9. Immediate supervisor (Check one)

    _____Female (Indian)   _____Female (Non-Indian)

    _____Male (Indian)   _____Male (Non-Indian)

COMMENTS OR SUGGESTIONS:

Optional Information: If you would like a summary of
the research, please provide your name and current
address for a copy of the report:

Name:
Address:

APPENDIX C-1

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Please circle the number which represents your best evaluation of the statement in your current position.	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
1. I feel that my job performance is evaluated honestly.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I am paid fairly in comparison to others in my organization.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Rewards in this organization are given equitably.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I get along well with my peers.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I get along well with my boss.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I get along well with my employees.	5	4	3	2	1
7. I am comfortable with the supervisory style expected of me.	5	4	3	2	1
8. I am an effective leader in my division.	5	4	3	2	1
9. My opinions are valued in the organization.	5	4	3	2	1
10. My colleagues are supportive of my decisions.	5	4	3	2	1
11. I view myself as a successful supervisor.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I am satisfied with my position within this organization.	5	4	3	2	1

	A L W A Y S	F R E Q U E N T L Y	S O M E T I M E S	S E L D O M	N E V E R
13. My staff provides supportive information for decision-making.	5	4	3	2	1
14. My department has money/materials needed to be productive.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I have been trained in management-supervision.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I am satisfied with my job.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX C-2

Ethnic Stereotype Questionnaire

	A L W A Y S	F R E Q U E N T L Y	S O M E T I M E S	S E L D O M	N E V E R
Please circle the number which represents your best evaluation of the statement in your current position.					
1. People with whom I work perceive that Indian tribes have the competency to regulate self-determination.	5	4	3	2	1
2. People with whom I work perceive that I maintain traditional customs to emphasize my Indian identity.	5	4	3	2	1
3. My co-workers perceive that being able to understand a spoken tribal language is important.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My colleagues believe that using your tribal language is important.	5	4	3	2	1
5. The people with whom I work perceive that Northern Indians are more militant than other tribes.	5	4	3	2	1
6. People with whom I work believe that being traditional means being anti-white.	5	4	3	2	1
7. The people with whom I work perceive that I identify with a national female Indian image.	5	4	3	2	1
8. The people with whom I work stereotype different tribes.	5	4	3	2	1

				ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
9.	People with whom I work perceive that I make distinctions in evaluations based on tribal membership.			5	4	3	2	1
10.	People with whom I work think that Indian women supervisors "conform" in an organization in order to succeed.			5	4	3	2	1
11.	People with whom I work believe that Indian women adapt better in an organization if they are urban educated.			5	4	3	2	1
12.	People with whom I work believe that Indian women supervisors from matriarchal tribes are more successful than those from patriarchal tribes.			5	4	3	2	1
13.	People with whom I work believe that using Indian expressions in speech is uneducated.			5	4	3	2	1
14.	People with whom I work perceive that Indian women supervisors are too aggressive.			5	4	3	2	1
15.	People with whom I work believe that they can identify tribal affiliation based on physical appearance.			5	4	3	2	1
16.	People with whom I work believe that Indian women supervisors find it difficult to work with Indian male colleagues.			5	4	3	2	1
17.	I am aware of the reaction my appearance causes in non-Indians.			5	4	3	2	1

		ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
18.	I present myself as the Indian princess if it is to my advantage.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I view myself as a traditional role model for young Indian women.	5	4	3	2	1
20.	I believe that using my tribal name is an important way to maintain my Indian identify.	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I dress appropriately for traditional activities.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	My dress reflects my tribal background at traditional ceremonies.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	People with whom I work perceive me more as an Indian woman stereotype than as an individual.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX C-3

Sex-Role Stereotyping Questionnaire

	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER

Please circle the number which
represents your best evaluation
of the statement in your current
position.

1. The women with whom I work
    believe that men within my
    organization expect women to
    be moody.

    5   4   3   2   1

2. The women with whom I work
    believe that male colleagues
    ignore a woman's expertise in
    decision-making.

    5   4   3   2   1

3. The women with whom I work
    believe male colleagues
    expect women to be domestic.

    5   4   3   2   1

4. The women with whom I work
    believe that male colleagues
    expect women to seek their
    advice on technical matters.

    5   4   3   2   1

5. The women with whom I work
    believe that male colleagues
    expect women to take advantage
    of a situation because they
    are female.

    5   4   3   2   1

6. The women with whom I work
    believe that male colleagues
    expect all women to be involved
    in women's rights issues.

    5   4   3   2   1

7. The women with whom I work
    believe that men expect women
    to take criticism personally.

    5   4   3   2   1

		F R E Q A U L E W N A T Y L <u>S</u> <u>Y</u>	S O M E T I M E <u>S</u>	S E L D O <u>M</u>	N E V E <u>R</u>
8.	The women with whom I work believe that male colleagues expect women to be supportive followers.	5 4	3	2	1
9.	I believe that I am less aggressive than my male colleagues.	5 4	3	2	1
10.	I believe that I am more soft-spoken than the supervisors in my organization.	5 4	3	2	1
11.	I believe that male peers are more self-confident than I am.	5 4	3	2	1
12.	I believe that men in my organization are more goal-oriented than I am.	5 4	3	2	1
13.	Men in my organization have had better training in supervision.	5 4	3	2	1
14.	Since I am female, men with whom I work do not take my suggestions seriously.	5 4	3	2	1
15.	Men with whom I work have made sexual remarks in my presence to test my response.	5 4	3	2	1

APPENDIX D-1

Characteristics

	N*	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Years as Supervisor	115	8.77	7.49	.5	54
Number of Female Indians Supervised	115	10.59	20.57	0	99
Number of Male Indians Supervised	115	6.75	18.50	0	99
Number of Female Non-Indians Supervised	115	6.75	18.51	0	99
Number of Male Non-Indians Supervised	115	5.07	16.07	0	99
Years of Formal Education	115	16.37	3.33	0	22
Age	115	44	8.84	26	73
Salary	115	29K	11.45	0	60K+
Rating on Last Performance Evaluation	115	4.09	1.06	0	5

*Represents total responding

APPENDIX D-2

Field of Employment

Field	Frequency	Percent
Art	9	7.8
Business	10	8.7
Communications	4	3.5
Education	62	53.9
Law	7	6.1
Medicine	6	5.2
No Response	1	0.0
Science	2	1.7
Social Work	5	4.3
Tribal	8	7.0
Other	2	1.7
Total	116	100.0

APPENDIX D-3

Tribal Affiliation

Apache	6	Hopi*	2	Nuagassett	1
Arikara*	1	Ioway	1	Ojibway	2
Athabascan	1	Jemez*	1	Oneida	2
Blackfeet	2	Kenaitze	1	Portgamble	1
Caddo*	1	Kickapoo	2	Potawatomie	1
Cayauga	1	Kiowa	1	Pueblo*	1
Cherokee	9	Lumbee	6	Sax & Fox	1
Chickasaw*	1	Lumni	1	Seneca	2
Chippewa	5	Mandan*	4	Shawnee	1
Choctaw*	2	Menominee	3	Sioux	10
Colville	1	Miami	1	Taos*	1
Comanche	3	Mohawk	1	Tewa Pueblo*	1
Creek*	1	Not Reported	5	Tlinght	2
Delaware*	1	N. Cheyenne	1	Tsimshian	1
Eskimo	1	Navajo*	11	Winnebago	3
Hidatsa*	8	Nez Perce	2	Yakima	2
Hoopa	1			Yurock	1

*Matriarchal societies

APPENDIX D-4

Salary

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----------------------------------------------------------
     60,000                2          Mean
     56,000                1          Salary    29.54
     54,000                1
     52,000                1          SD        11.45
     51,000                1
     50,000                4          Median
     48,000                1          Salary    27.00
     44,000                1
     43,000                1          Range     0-60K
     42,000                3
     41,000                2
     40,000                5
     38,000                3
     36,000                5
     35,000                8
     34,000                1
     33,000                2
     32,000                4
     30,000                9
     28,000                2
     27,000                2
     26,000                6
     25,000                9
     24,000                2
     23,000                2
     22,000                4
     21,000                8
     20,000               10
     19,000                1
     18,000                8
     17,000                2
     15,000                2
     14,000                1
     13,000                1
     12,000                1
     11,000                1
      6,000                1
          0                1
        NR                 8
----------------------------------------------------------
```

APPENDIX E-1

TABLE 1

Correlations of

Stereotyping and Job Satisfaction

for Female American Indian Supervisors

	R-Square	Job Satisfaction Multiple R
Ethnic Stereotype	0.0486	.2206203
Sex-Role Stereotype	0.1381	.3716533
Ethnic Stereotype Sex-Role Stereotype	0.1381	.3716731

N=116   F   18.2700

APPENDIX E-1

TABLE 1-A

Correlations

of Stereotyping and Job Satisfaction

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.601*	-.220*
Sex-Role Stereotype	.601*	1.00	-.371*
Job Satisfaction	-.220*	-.371*	1.00

N=116   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	60.90	13.72	7065	31	94
Sex-Role Stereotype	50.57	13.82	5866	5	83
Job Satisfaction	57.57	9.42	6680	30	75

APPENDIX E-2

TABLE 2

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

FEMALE SUPERVISOR

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.73*	-.29
Sex-Role Stereotype	.73*	1.00	-.56*
Job Satisfaction	-.29	-.56*	1.00

N=26   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	63.08	15.13	1640	31	94
Sex-Role Stereotype	51.04	18.77	1327	5	81
Job Satisfaction	54.65	10.66	1421	28	75

APPENDIX E-2

TABLE 3

Correlation of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

| | MALE SUPERVISOR | | |
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.52*	-.19*
Sex-Role Stereotype	.52*	1.00	-.30*
Job Satisfaction	-.19*	-.30*	1.00

N=86   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	60.03	12.92	5162	32	88
Sex-Role Stereotype	50.61	11.87	4853	26	83
Job Satisfaction	58.47	9.12	5028	30	75

APPENDIX E-4

TABLE 4

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

AMERICAN INDIAN SUPERVISOR

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.69*	-.34
Sex-Role Stereotype	.69*	1.00	-.40*
Job Satisfaction	-.34*	-.40*	1.00

N=55   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	63.02	14.31	3466	31	94
Sex-Role Stereotype	50.50	15.62	2778	5	83
Job Satisfaction	56.24	8.81	3098	33	75

APPENDIX E-5

TABLE 5

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

NON-INDIAN SUPERVISOR

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.45*	-.10
Sex-Role Stereotype	.45*	1.00	-.40*
Job Satisfaction	-.10	-.40*	1.00

N=57   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	58.54	12.13	3337	34	88
Sex-Role Stereotype	50.91	11.64	2902	26	77
Job Satisfaction	58.87	10.19	3556	30	75

APPENDIX E-6

TABLE 6

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

| | OUTSTANDING PERFORMANCE RATING | | |
	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.42*	-.13
Sex-Role Stereotype	.42*	1.00	-.31*
Job Satisfaction	-.13	-.31*	1.00

N=43   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	60.47	12.77	2600	36	88
Sex-Role Stereotype	48.51	14.17	2086	8	77
Job Satisfaction	59.51	9.19	2559	37	75

APPENDIX E-7

TABLE 7

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

ABOVE SATISFACTORY LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.69*	-.22
Sex-Role Stereotype	.69*	1.00	-.37*
Job Satisfaction	-.22	-.37*	1.00

N=52   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	60.67	13.76	3155	31	81
Sex-Role Stereotype	52.35	13.56	2799	5	88
Job Satisfaction	56.51	8.56	2910	31	75

APPENDIX E-8

TABLE 8

Correlations of

Stereotype Perceptions/Job Satisfaction

SATISFACTORY PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

	Ethnic	Sex-Role	Job Satisfaction
Ethnic Stereotype	1.00	.86*	-.41
Sex-Role Stereotype	.86*	1.00	-.51*
Job Satisfaction	-.41	-.51*	1.00

N=13   *Significant at .01 level

	Mean	SD	Sum	Min	Max
Ethnic Stereotype	61.38	16.16	798	39	94
Sex-Role Stereotype	46.85	14.72	609	28	81
Job Satisfaction	54.85	10.66	718	33	67