
The power motive and its expression in a group of English-speaking South African women

Rosaline Hirschowitz

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Report MM-118

The power motive and its expression in a group of English-speaking South African women

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ISBN 0 7969 0368 9

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Printed and published by the HSRC

PREFACE

The motives underlying a person's approach to work and how these various motives are expressed, influence the way in which the individual makes use of his or her potential in a work situation. An understanding of motives is therefore an important aspect of manpower research. This study explores how one such basic human motive, the power motive, is expressed in a group of English speaking South African women.

Prof L.C. Gerdes and Dr V. Nell of the University of South Africa are sincerely thanked for their comments on the research. The Institute for Statistical Research and Miss J. van Pletzen of IMAN are also thanked for their help with data analysis. Finally we would like to thank the participants without whose cooperation the research would have been impossible.



EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
INSTITUTE FOR MANPOWER RESEARCH

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SAMEVATTING

Die doel met die ondersoek na die benutting van menslike hulpbronne in 'n werksituasie is om beter te begryp hoe om elke werker se volle potensiaal te gebruik. Motivering is 'n belangrike oorweging wanneer dit kom by die manier waarop 'n mens se potensiaal benut word. Vroue se dryfvere en die wyse waarop dit uitdrukking vind, beïnvloed hul benadering tot werk. In hierdie ondersoek is die magsdryfveer van vroue ondersoek omdat daar bevind is (McClelland 1975) dat dit 'n basiese dryfveer is wat 'n invloed uitoefen op wat 'n mens verwag van 'n werksituasie. Die ondersoek het bevestig dat die magsdryfveer 'n belangrike aspek van 'n vrou se persoonlikheid is en dat vroue 'n impak op hul omgewing wil maak en dit ook wil beïnvloed en beheer. In die voorlopige ondersoek is getoon dat hierdie dryfveer eksperimenteel opgewek kan word. In die hoofondersoek onder 167 Engelssprekende getroude vroue met kinders wat op 'n ewekansige wyse gekies is, is bevind dat die magsdryfveer uitdrukking gevind het in hulpvaardigheid eerder as mededinging of 'n regstreekse geldingsdrang. Vroue voel sterk en magtig wanneer hulle ander help. Sommige respondente het selfs 'n motief ontwikkel om selfgeldig te vrees. Hierdie drang om ander te help, is in die respondente se loopbaankeuses weerspieël.

Aan die ander kant was 'n regstreekse geldingsdrang verwant aan hoë eiedunk, 'n gevoel van innerlike beheer, ekstrovertsie en sekere eienskappe soos doeltreffendheid en selfgenoegsaamheid, wat tradisioneel as manlike karaktertrekke beskou word. Hierdie eienskappe voorspel beter as die magsdryfveer of 'n vrou 'n leierskapsrol in 'n werksituasie sal aanvaar of nie.

ABSTRACT

Research into human resource utilization in a work situation aims at gaining a better understanding of how to use the full potential of every worker. Motivation is an important consideration underlying the way in which one's potential is used. The motives of women and how they express them will influence their approach to work. In this project, the power motive of women was studied because it has been shown (McClelland 1975) to be a fundamental motive influencing what one expects to gain in a work situation. This study confirmed that the power motive is an important aspect of a female personality and that women want to make an impact on, to influence and to control their environment. In the pilot study it was shown that this motive could be aroused experimentally. In the main study, it was found that among 167 randomly selected English-speaking married women with children, the power motive was expressed through helping behaviour rather than through competitiveness or direct assertiveness. Women feel strong and powerful through helping others. Indeed, some respondents had developed a motive to fear assertiveness. Popular career choices among respondents reflected this desire to help others.

On the other hand, direct assertiveness was related to high self-esteem, to feeling internally controlled, to extraversion and to certain traits, for example forcefulness and self-sufficiency, which are traditionally regarded as masculine. These personality traits, rather than the power motive are better predictors of whether or not a woman assumes a leadership role in a work situation.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND AIMS OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

"Love of power, though one of the strongest human motives, is very unevenly distributed, and is limited by various other motives, such as love of ease, love of pleasure, and sometimes love of approval. It is disguised, among the more timid, as an impulse of submission to leadership, which increases the scope of the power-impulses of bold men".

(Bertrand Russell 1938 : 10).

Despite the crippling shortage of high level manpower experienced in South Africa for more than two decades, we are still in a situation in which the number of women in high-level, traditional male occupations is negligible. The reasons for this are many and diverse; but in explaining the behaviour pattern of women in the labour force, one cannot escape giving attention to what motivates women in their career choices.

McClelland (1985) has done extensive research into motives. He has found that an important motive that influences the success of managers in their leadership roles is the power motive. If women are to enter high-level manpower and management positions in a work situation, the strength of the power motive will influence their handling of the situation.

The power motive is defined for the purposes of this study as a need to have impact, control or influence over the circumstances of one's own life, over other people or

the world at large. It is an inner force that drives the individual to seek certain goals that make him or her feel strong and powerful. The terms "need for power" and "the power motive" are used interchangeably in this project, although "the power motive" refers more to the concept of power as a motive and "the need for power" more to the fantasy based measurement of power, as discussed in Chapter 3.

One's personality and life circumstances influence the type of goals one seeks to express the power motive - the attainment of these goals is not always possible in all circumstances. The inability to gain control over one's own life leads to feelings of powerlessness. The life and death of Sylvia Plath, an American poet and author, although an extreme example, does illustrate the dilemma facing many women in our society regarding the need for power, its expression, experiences of powerlessness and lack of control.

Sylvia Plath (1975) wrote of her creative abilities and her enthusiasm for writing as follows:

"Daily I am full of poems, my joy whirls in tongues of words ... I feel a growing strength" (p. 234).

Yet her life circumstances and her inability to cope undermined her creativity. She wanted to actualize her potential and express her need for power through her writing. At the same time, she tried to live up to the ideal of "being a good teacher, writing a book on the side, and being an entertaining homemaker, cook and wife" (Oakley 1981 : 67). Her marriage to British poet Ted Hughes placed restrictions on her creativity. During their time together, it seems as if his promise and talent were allowed to develop, while her's lay dormant.

Childbearing and caring for children, housework, attending to her husband's needs and the many routine, mundane tasks that she associated with the role of wife, mother and home-maker, prevented her from having enough time to develop her own literary career. The conflict between satisfying her own needs, including a need for power, and playing the role of a supportive wife is expressed in the following passage when her husband's first book was published:

"I am more happy than if it was my own book published. I have worked so closely on these poems of Ted's and typed them so many countless times through revision after revision that I feel ecstatic about it all. I am so happy his book is accepted first. It will make it much easier for me when mine is accepted" (Plath 1975 : 297).

When her husband left her, she lacked the skills to manage without him; she could not cope with inadequate housing and illness of both herself and her children. At this time she wrote:

"It is so frustrating to feel that with time to study and work lovingly at my books I could do something considerable, while now I have my back to the wall and not even time to read a book" (Plath 1975 : 347).

Her suicide ended the promising career of a woman who is now widely recognized as a talented writer. This woman who had so much to offer others through her mastery of words wrote as follows to her mother of her feelings of powerlessness:

"I just haven't felt to have any identity under the steamroller of decisions and responsibilities of this last half year" (Plath 1975 : 495).

The conflicts experienced in Sylvia Plath's life are reflected in the themes of this research project. Fear of success and fear of assertiveness are evident in her identification with her husband's achievements and the recognition he received for these achievements. Themes of powerlessness, of her inability to control the forces of her life to enable her to devote time to writing are also present. Low self-esteem is evident in her need for reassurance of her worth as an author from outside sources. The role conflict and the resulting strain seem overwhelming. The need to express herself, to receive recognition for her writing ability, to work hard to attain these ambitions, conflicted with her perception of a woman as homemaker. She was unable to integrate those aspects of her personality that are regarded as "masculine" in our society with what is often defined as "feminine".

Yet she wanted to be able to control the circumstances of her life. She needed to have an impact on others and to influence others through her words. She wanted to receive recognition for her worth as an author. She had a need for power, that was a fundamental motive influencing her life goals.

Throughout the twentieth century diverse theories have developed to explain human behaviour. A basic assumption underlying many theories is that there are driving forces behind behaviour. These forces have been called instincts, drives, needs or motives at various times. Whatever term is used, it is necessary to have some explanatory concepts and hypotheses about motivation or

how behaviour is activated (Madsen 1974). The need for power is such a concept. The study of this motive may give us a better indication of the goals that women seek at home and at work.

One motive cannot account for all aspects of behaviour in a given situation, but when certain behaviour patterns have been repeatedly associated with a particular motive, this motive has been seen as a driving force behind behaviour (Winter 1973; McClelland 1975). This provides a framework for the interpretation of that behaviour. For a grasp of the principles of motivation both analysis (seeking a single motive which can explain a behaviour pattern) and synthesis (looking for the effects of combined motives on behaviour) are necessary. A synthesis of human motivated behaviour however, only becomes feasible after an analysis of single motives. The study of a single motive, namely the power motive, is therefore justified, because it may give us a better understanding of women's reactions to their life circumstances, including work.

The need for power is a fundamental human motive manifesting itself early in life and influencing behavioural choices throughout life. Expressing a need for power is central to development. Rollo May (1972) stated in the following way that the demanding cry of a baby is the initial, direct expression of a form of power, namely the power to be:

"Power can be seen in the newborn infant - he can cry and wave his arms as signs of discomfort within himself demanding that his hunger needs be met" (p. 40).

Lack of gratification of the need for power, even at this early stage, may lead to experiences of powerlessness

(Sullivan 1953 : 71). Feeling powerless affects self-esteem negatively and influences the type of behaviour patterns used to express the need for power. The way in which one seeks to control, to make an impact on or to influence one's own life or the lives of others, will be modified by the extent to which one feels one can actually influence the circumstances of one's own life.

The need for power is universal and, although its strength varies from person to person, all will try to gratify this need; it spurs individuals to action.

1.2 AIMS OF THIS STUDY

It was the aim of this study to examine the power motive and its expression in a group of English-speaking South African women. Because of the high cost of research and the sensitivity of motives to cultural influences, it was necessary to limit the study to this group. The relationship between this motive and other personality variables was also explored. The purpose of this exploration was to examine the manner in which this motive is expressed and what factors modify this expression. A better understanding of the influence of the power motive on women's life-style was sought.

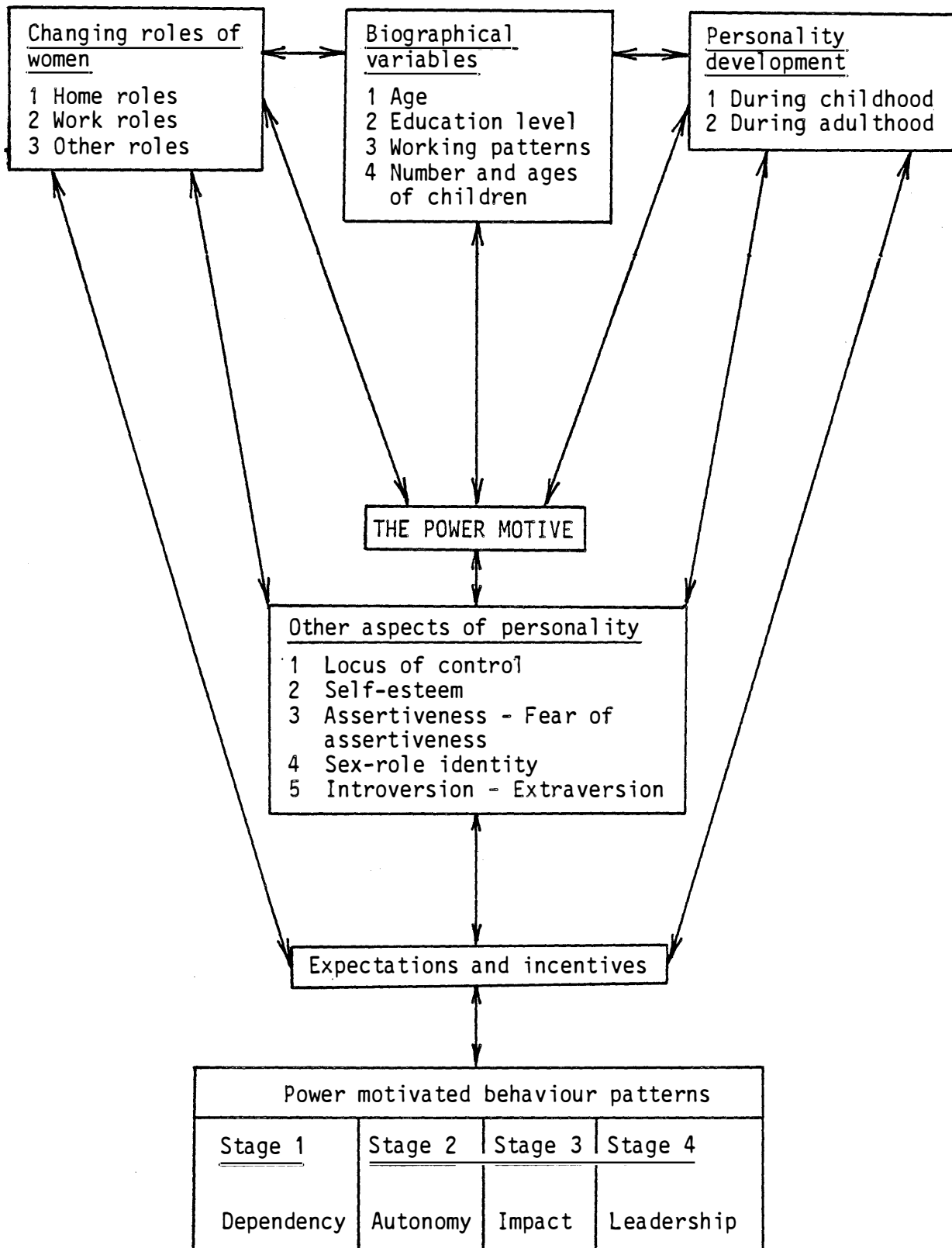
The research aims therefore, were

- . to explore the need for power as a motive among a group of English speaking women,
- . to determine how a need for power is related to behaviour,

- . to explore the relationship between a need for power and other personality variables, namely self-esteem, assertiveness, fear of assertiveness, sex-role identity, locus of control and extraversion,
- . to determine how age influences the need for power and its expression,
- . to determine how working patterns influence the need for power and its expression, and
- . to investigate how level of education influences this need.

Figure 1.1 is an illustration of the hypothetical interactions between the power motive and other relevant variables, as previously discussed.

JRE 1.1
 MODEL OF INTERACTIONS BETWEEN THE POWER MOTIVE, OTHER PERSONALITY VARIABLES,
 ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES AND BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS



CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 THE POWER MOTIVE

2.1.1 The difference between the power motive and related concepts

The word 'power' has many connotations and meanings. Because it is a generic term, it has been used in a variety of ways in the social sciences. It is therefore necessary to make it clear how usage of the term 'power' to denote a motive differs from its other uses.

Discussions of power in the social sciences may be divided into three groups: the exercise of power; power as an ability or resource possessed by the individual and the desire or need for power as a motive. Each of these ways of approaching power is discussed below.

(a) The exercise of power

Many authors, for example Garrison and Pate (1977), French and Raven (1959), Wrong (1979) and Galbraith (1984) have written about the exercise of power. The concern is with how power relations between individuals or between groups of people are established and maintained. Power is exercised either directly or indirectly and the extent of control and the way in which power is gained or maintained varies between people and between situations. The exercise of power is important in relation to the power motive because it represents power goals for which the power motivated person may strive. However, the question "why do people want power?" (Wrong

1979, p. 218) cannot be answered by examining power in terms of how it is exercised. Only the individual who is exercising power can supply an answer.

(b) Power as an ability or resource

Theories in which power is described as an ability or resource (Minton 1967; May 1967; 1972) focus on the possession of certain characteristics or traits which enable the individual to exercise power. For example, Minton (1967) explained power as "the ability to cause environmental change so as to obtain an intended effect" (p. 229). But, on the other hand, a person who has the ability to influence the environment may not necessarily want power, and a person with a need for power may lack the capacity to exercise control. The incongruity of having a need for power but lacking the ability to exert control over the environment may lead to the development of a motive to fear assertiveness and to feelings of powerlessness. Power motive expression may be influenced by the ability to exercise power, but need and ability are not synonymous.

(c) Power as a motive

Power as a motive is a driving force behind behaviour that influences the direction of activities. This concept is based on the theories of Adler, Murray, Lewin, Hull, Atkinson and McClelland and their co-workers. These theories and their contribution to the power motive, in the way it is understood in this project are discussed below.

2.1.2 Important contributions to power motive theory

The view that power is a motive is to be found in Adler's (1930/1965) concept of "the will to power". Adler proposed that this will originated during early childhood at a time when feelings of weakness, deficiency and insecurity are aroused as the child compares himself to adults. In more recent theory, the power motive is regarded not only as a defensive reaction and as a compensation for feelings of inferiority, but also as a motive based on feelings of strength and worth. McClelland (1975) and Veroff (1980) described the development of power motivation as both compensatory and direct. The individual seeks power goals to overcome feelings of weakness as well as to feel strong.

Adler also proposed that power could be desired for personal reasons or else for social gain. Differences in personality originating in the socialization process account for the seeking of either personal or social power goals. McClelland (1970; 1975) used Adler's ideas when he described power as having two faces. The one face is concerned with winning out over others; and the other face with leadership for the benefit of others. Winter (1977; 1981) suggested that women are less likely than men to use power for personal gain, because responsible, nurturing power is stressed in their socialization process.

Although Murray (1938) did not use the term "need for power" in his classification of needs (p. 144), his principles are relevant to the present study. He stressed the importance of both personality and environment in the study of motivation. Need, defined as "a force in the brain region, a state of disequilibrium striving towards equilibrium" (Murray 1938 : 67) and press, defined as "a

directional tendency in an object or situation" (p. 118) are respectively the equivalent of motive and environment of present theories. In this study, the need for power is regarded as being influenced by the changing life circumstances of modern women. These circumstances provide the "press" or environmental factors that influence power motive expression. Murray also initiated a method of evaluating personality variables, by means of thematic apperception tests (TAT's). Fantasy measurements of motives, including the need for power as used here, are based on Murray's TAT procedure.

Kurt Lewin (1965) has also contributed significantly to current understanding of motives and their expression. Lewin emphasised that behaviour is a function of both the person and the environment at a given moment in time. He stressed that it is not objective reality, but how each individual perceives the environment at a given moment in time (the psychological life-space) and the possibilities he or she sees in this interpretation of reality for motive gratification, which is important. This emphasis on the psychological environment has important implications. It allows the researcher to examine how the individual interprets reality with regard to his or her needs. The direct relationship between stimulus and response was therefore questioned by Lewin.

Hull initiated the idea that excitatory potential or the tendency to make a response is a function of habit strength multiplied by drive strength. Habit strength is the amount of skill acquired in making a response to a stimulus; drive strength is the strength of the motive in question (McClelland 1985). Expectancy-value theories of motivation, in terms of which the formulations of Atkinson and his co-workers may be classified, developed from Hull's theories.

In 1958, the book Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, edited by Atkinson, was published. This book presents a method for the assessment of motives by using samples of people's imaginative thoughts. It also relates motives to behaviour and has become an important source for the study of motivation. Both Lewin's and Hull's theories are taken into account and further developed in this book. The concepts "expectancies" and "incentives" were introduced to explain motivated behaviour. An expectancy is some measure of the probability that performing an activity will have the desired consequences. An incentive is the "magnitude of the reward or potential satisfaction offered should the expected consequence occur" (Atkinson 1958 : 228). In other words, before a person acts in a situation, he or she anticipates what he or she will gain (expectancy) by acting in a certain way, and how much he or she wants this goal (incentive). McClelland (1975), Winter (1973), Stewart and Chester (1982) and Veroff (1982) all based their studies of the need for power on the theory and assessment methods of this book. The present study is based on the later developments of this theory and methodology which emphasise the importance of life circumstances in the development and expression of motives (see Atkinson 1958). Changing life circumstances should be taken into account when studying the power motive and its expression among women.

2.1.3 The power motive and behaviour patterns

The relationship between the strength of the power motive and behaviour patterns that express this need is not clear-cut. Other variables intervene between the motive and its expression, influencing both the expectation that the activity will have the desired effect, and the incentive value of the goal, or how much the person wants that goal. Diverse, sometimes contradictory behaviour pat-

terns have been found to be related to power motivation. The cultural background of the individual (Greene and Winter 1973) as well as the opportunities available (Veroff and Feld 1970; McClelland and Watson 1978; McClelland, Davis, Kalin and Wanner 1973) all influence the expression of power motivation. Previous analyses of behaviour patterns relating to the need for power indicated that these activities fall into the following four main categories (Winter 1972).

(a) Behaviour patterns that indicate an interest in holding office and assuming leadership roles;

(b) those which point to a concern with appearance, with enhancing status and acquiring prestige possessions, and with exercise and dieting;

(c) gaining power through dependency and vicariousness;

(d) competitive behaviour, impulsiveness and "stud" behaviour, including heavy drinking, gambling, risk taking, sexual exploitation and verbal and physical aggression. According to Winter (1981) women express their need for power in substantially the same way as men, except that women are less likely to engage in sexually exploitive behaviour.

2.1.4 Power motivated behaviour and stages of development

The four factors discussed above are related to the developmental stages in the life cycle of the individual. McClelland (1975) argued that the predominant developmental stage of each individual influences the way in which power motivation is expressed. He outlined four stages of development. In each stage power is perceived as having a specific source, either outside or within the

person. Power also has a specific object, which means that power may be exercised for oneself or else for the benefit of others.

(a) Stage one: "It strengthens me."

If a person functions at this stage of development, the source of power is perceived as being outside the self. But the object of power is the self. The person seeks power from an outside source in order to feel stronger. Dependency and vicariousness are typical of this stage.

(b) Stage two: "Strengthen myself."

Both the source and the object of power goals at this stage is the self. The individual feels strong through his own ability to control him or herself and the physical environment. Self reliance, as well as concern with appearance, exercise and dieting are indicative of this stage. Gaining status by acquiring prestige possessions also makes the individual feel stronger at this stage of development. One strengthens the self in order to have more resources.

(c) Stage three: "I have impact on others."

At this stage of development, the source of power is the self, but the object of power is other people. The individual gains strength by making an impact on others. Competitive behaviour as well as manipulation characterise this stage. Helping behaviour may fall into this category if the aim of helping is to allow the helper to have an impact on the person receiving the help. The person receiving help is perceived as being weak.

Making an impact may sometimes assume extreme or pathological forms. For example, impulsive behaviour, gambling, heavy drinking, sexual exploitation and risk taking are ways of making an impression if other ways of gaining power through assertiveness are not available.

(d) Stage four: "It moves me to do my duty."

If a person has reached this stage of development, then both the source and the object of power lie outside the self. The individual assumes a leadership role because other people need him to assume this role. Exercising power for the benefit of others becomes important, rather than gaining strength for oneself. Altruistic leadership characterises this stage.

McClelland (1975) stated that a fixation at any stage of power motive development may lead to pathology. The pathology of overuse of stage one modalities is hysteria; of stage two obsessive-compulsiveness; of stage three criminality and of stage four, messianism. The mature and integrated personality is however a flexible one. The mature individual is able to use whatever mode of power is appropriate to the situation. Immaturity, on the other hand, is characterized by using only one mode of power in all situations. The opportunities available will also influence how a need for power is expressed. How do women express their need for power, in view of their cultural background and changing life circumstances both at home and at work? The answer to this question is central to this study.

2.1.5 The power motive and women

Motivated behaviour is influenced by how an individual interprets a situation. Women's interpretation of their

life-style influences how they will express the need for power. Modern women are seeking new goals to express a need for power. The recent second international interdisciplinary congress on women (1984) had as its theme: "Strategies for Empowerment", indicating how important power related issues have become for women in the modern world. The importance of the power motive and its expression for women also reflected in the development of the Women's Liberation Movement that is essentially concerned with power goals in its demands for women's rights. The concerns of these feminists are "the basic issues of power and privilege, domination and subordination, dependance and autonomy" (Epstein and Goode 1971, p. 1). All these issues are essentially power related.

(a) The changing roles of women

Increased specialization of work, automation in the home, better contraception, smaller families, the availability of mass produced food and clothes, the decline in kinship ties outside the nuclear family, and increased life expectancy have all contributed to change in women's roles. The result is that women are now spending less time on the tasks of housekeeping and family care. Their roles are in a state of flux and are characterized by ambiguity. Veroff and Feld stated that in ambiguous situations, the strength of a motive will influence the person's perception of the demands, frustrations and gratifications of a role. This means that a person will interpret his or her roles in terms of existing needs.

If there is good meshing between the strength of a motive and the possibility for motive gratification in a role, there will be role satisfaction and ease of role performance. Therefore women who have a salient need for power and who see the possibility of gaining power motive grat-

ification through their role as mother, for example, will experience role satisfaction; but if they do not perceive the possibility of motive gratification, frustration and dissatisfaction are possible.

2.1.6 Power motive expression and women's home roles

Not only change in life circumstances but also the stage of the life cycle each woman has reached, will influence her choice of power goals. Women who have preschool children, those with primary school children, those with teenagers, those with adult children who are still financially dependent and those with financially independent adult children may all express power motivation through different modes. The marriage relationship also influences the type of power goals available to each woman. Other life circumstances, for example, being unmarried, widowed or divorced as well as being childless may all influence the opportunities available for power motive expression. Language may also have an influence, because cultural differences exist between language groups. In order to control the number of biographical variables which may influence how the need for power is expressed, English speaking, married women with at least one child were used in this study. The effect of the age of one's children and of the marriage on available power goals is discussed below.

(a) The need for power and the role of mother

The role of mother offers opportunities for power motive gratification, but there are also limitations in this role. Power goals may be reached by having control over one's children and by influencing their development. Winter (1981) stated that nurturance and childbearing moderate power motive expression by directing power goals

towards attending to another person's needs rather than one's own. The need for power is related to responsible behaviour among women with young children. Among women without children, however, the need for power could be related to a more pleasure orientated way of life (Winter 1981). Women in traditional roles gain power through nurturing behaviour (McClelland 1975). However gaining power through nurturing is limited because as children get older they strive for independence. Women who are sensitized to the possibility of gaining power through their role as mother may also be sensitized to the frustrations inherent in this mode. Power goals in relation to the age group of one's children are discussed below.

(i) Preschool children

Caring for infants and preschool children allows the mother to use all modes of power motive behaviour: Stage one vicariousness, stage two accumulating resources, stage three impact and stage four leadership are all possible. But this exercise of power is possible only to a limited extent. As the child asserts himself or herself and makes an impact on the environment, the mother may lose some of her control over her child. If the child attends a creché or a nursery school, some control is delegated to other caretakers. Therefore in the pursuit of power goals women with preschool children face the possibility of both reward for their efforts and frustration.

(ii) Primary school children

Among mothers with primary school children, Veroff and Feld (1970) found that the need for power was not related to any measure of parental role reactions. Children use peers and teachers more than mothers to expand their social horizons. Mothers may express their need for power

indirectly at this stage, by vicarious identification with their children. The "smothering" of one's child, rather than mothering may result if a mother tries to express a high need for power through domination.

(iii) Adolescent children

Veroff and Feld (1970) found that among mothers of adolescent children, the need for power was associated with conflict about maternal roles. Adolescence is a time for establishing an adult identity and the adolescent is striving for independence and self-assertiveness. The mother is likely to lose even more control over her child than previously.

(iv) Adult children

Influence over one's children is likely to decrease even further as they enter adulthood. Women who have relied on their children to satisfy their need for power, without developing alternative strategies for seeking power goals may experience depression as their children leave home (Brown and Harris 1976). Vicariousness and dependency remain the most accessible methods of gaining power if the mother has come to rely on her children for power motive gratification. But if a woman has sought alternative ways of gaining power, for example, through marriage and work roles or through voluntary work, then depression may be avoided.

(b) The need for power and the role of wife

Although nurturing offers some possibilities of power motive gratification to women, the birth of children adversely affects a woman's power position in relation to her husband. Various authors (Blood and Wolfe 1960;

Gillespie 1975; Hoffman 1977) have argued that after the birth of the first child the wife loses, while the husband gains power. Women who devote time to infant and child care are more likely to be dependent on their husbands for financial as well as for emotional needs, as they tend to be relatively isolated, particularly if they do not work. However, as the children get older, the woman's power is likely to increase as more avenues become available to express a need for power outside the home. Men on the other hand, as their careers become established and their work roles reach a peak and then a plateau, tend to lose power. Wives therefore may gain power in the marital relationship as they age. Some wives may influence the development of their husbands' careers by "praise-and-push" (Blood and Wolf 1960). Wives' influence in the marriage depends on the type of role they play. Gerdes et al. (1981) proposed that there are three main types of systems of interaction within a marriage, namely the traditional, companionate and egalitarian systems.

In the traditional system, the husband is the sole breadwinner, undisputed head of the family and decision maker. Status of the family is invested in the husband, and he assumes a dominant role in family matters. The husband acts as an authority figure; the wife's only role is that of homemaker. The only way in which she can exercise power in the marriage is by indirect means. Vicariousness and dependency are the most readily available modes to express a need for power. This system is probably rare among English-speaking South African women.

The companionate system is probably more common. In this system, the husband is the major breadwinner, but the wife may have a supportive earning role. The husband is likely to consult the wife on decisions affecting the fa-

mily, but the wife's main role remains that of homemaker. Other interests outside the home may be developed. Stage two power motive development would be characteristic of this type of marriage. The woman strengthens herself in order to have more resources to give. Such strength enables her to play a supportive role.

In the egalitarian system the husband and wife evolve their own methods of role sharing, and each spouse is able to behave more flexibly. Stage three and stage four power goals become attainable for the wife. However, the marriage may become highly competitive if each spouse strives for similar power goals and there is no sharing.

These systems are not inflexible or static; women may find the marriage system changes from a traditional to a companionate, or from a companionate to a more egalitarian one as their children grow up. Husbands may need to rely on their wives' strength as their careers wind down and they are faced with retirement.

2.1.7 The power motive and the work situation of women

As the modern woman is faced with a shrinking home role, many women seek power goals in a work situation. As early as 1911, Olive Schreiner argued that the home role of women is becoming increasingly trivialized and the meaning of women's work in the home has changed. This is even more true today (Oakley 1976). Work outside the home is becoming not only necessary for many women as living expenses rise, but also desirable as a means of seeking need gratification. Women in South Africa have been joining the work force in increasing numbers (Wessels 1981), but their place at work is not yet firmly established. Women are employed in lower paid occupations (Wessels 1971), and they earn less on average than men in

the same occupation (for example in teaching: Stumpf and Van Pletzen 1982). This is partly due to family responsibilities. Many women want to work in a part-time capacity so that family needs may be met at the same time as engaging in paid work. Part-time work is more popular among women with preschool and primary school aged children.

Wessels (1981) found that 77,6 % of married women graduates are not prepared to work full-time at the same time as caring for a young family. Women may feel that they are neglecting their families if they try to obtain power goals by means of a work situation when their children are still of preschool or primary school going age, particularly if their earlier socialization has stressed the value of the homemaker role. Smit (1978) found that the largest number of women entering the full-time labour force are those aged between 40 and 44 years, whose children are past primary school going age.

(a) Women's life cycle and power at work

The stage that a woman has reached in her life cycle will influence the extent to which she participates in the work force (Van Rooyen 1981; Gerdes et al. 1981). A woman freed from the care of young children may choose to seek power motive gratification in a work situation by entering the work force or by changing from part-time to full-time work when she is over 35 years of age.

Age, however, may place her at a disadvantage. Men of the same age have been developing work skills and building a career for many years (Weitz 1977). They have been gaining power goals at work (often at the expense of close home relationships). A woman who has stopped working and then wishes to re-enter the labour market may

find that she has lost her position, that she is unable to keep up with new developments in her field and that she has not built up seniority, nor has she gained organizational experience. The growth of competence and resourcefulness at work contribute to men's power (Gillespie 1975). Women may therefore find it difficult to establish a position of power and influence at work because they enter a well established hierarchy at a relatively later stage in their life cycle than men do. This may explain in part why Veroff, Douvan and Kulka (1981) found that men are more inclined to seek power and achievement goals at work, while women seek affiliative goals.

(b) Traditional women's work

Another reason for the conflict experienced by women when seeking to express a high need for power in a work situation is that certain occupations which generally have a lower status (Klegon 1977) have traditionally been associated with women. The 1980 South African census indicates that 1 % of civil engineers, 3 % of electrical and electronic engineers, 3 % of lawyers, 9 % of architects and accountants, 7 % of quantity surveyors and 15 % of medical doctors are women. In the business field similar trends are evident, namely 7 % of general managers, 5 % of sales managers and 6 % of executive officials (control level) are women. However 99 % of stenographers and typists are women. These South African proportions are similar to those found in the United States. Traditional women's work roles do offer the opportunity for power motive gratification. Most roles involve helping others, for example nursing, teaching and paramedical work. Helping behaviour is one means of expressing a need for power (McClelland 1975) because helping and giving are methods of establishing and maintaining a power base.

The power of giving characterises both women's home and work roles. But the lower status (Klegon 1977) and lower financial incentives may lead to conflict and frustration of power motive expression because of lack of prestige and recognition.

Chester and Goodman (1981) found that most influential and truly powerful jobs are held by men. Such jobs offer control over financial and other resources, influence over others, control over other people's lives and the possibility of making an impact through aggressive decision making.

(c) The husband's attitude to his wife's work

Whether a woman works or not and whether she is able to integrate family and career roles often depends in part on her husband (Bentell and Greenhaus 1982). A high need for power score among men has been associated with non-working wives, and the husband's need for power is negatively related to the wife's career level (Winter, Stewart and McClelland 1977). Husbands with a high need for power may actively suppress their wives' career strivings. The complex relationships for women between work and home roles is again emphasized here.

2.2 PERSONALITY FACTORS AND THE POWER MOTIVE

Both life circumstances and the personality of the individual influence the type of goals which are sought for power motive expression. Atkinson (1958) stated that a tendency to action is a product of the strength of the motive in question, the expectation that a particular activity will lead to a desired goal and the incentive value of that goal.

The following aspects of the individual's personality may have a direct influence not only on expectations, but also on how much a goal is desired in situations in which the power motive is salient: Locus of control, self-esteem, assertiveness, sex-role identity and extraversion. Many other aspects of personality may also be relevant to the need for power and its expression. The above variables were chosen because previous studies (Rosenberg 1979; Lefcourt 1980; Burns 1981; Morris 1979; Rathus 1973) have shown that these variables have a direct influence on those behaviour patterns that McClelland (1975) associated with the need for power.

2.3 LOCUS OF CONTROL

Locus of control refers to a generalized belief system. Some people believe that they have control over their own lives, while others believe that external circumstances control their lives. Locus of control may be an important variable intervening between the need for power and its expression. Every situation in which there is a possibility of the attainment of power goals also contains within it the possibility of frustration and failure to attain these goals. The change in women's roles means not only that new opportunities exist for obtaining power goals, but also for engendering the feeling among some women that they lack control over their environment. Perceived blocks to power strivings may lead to a generalized expectation that one is powerless to influence the course of events of one's own life. On the other hand, success in the exercise of power may lead to a generalized expectation that one is able to exert an influence over others or over the environment by one's actions.

In recent years, many theories have evolved to explain why some people believe that they have control over their own lives, while others do not believe this. For example, learned helplessness (Abrahamson, Garber and Seligman 1980), alienation (Seeman 1959; Maddi, Kobasa and Hoover 1979), personal causation (De Charms 1979) and locus of control (Rotter 1966) all attempt to explain this occurrence. There are clear differences between the above-mentioned theories. However, they all stress that people differ regarding their beliefs about the amount of control they feel they have over their own lives.

The concept locus of control (Rotter 1966; Lefcourt 1976; Phares 1976) has been selected for this study to explain differences between people who feel in control and those who feel powerless in a situation where the power motive is aroused. Locus of control was selected, rather than the other concepts, because a large body of research exists to demonstrate the usefulness and testability of this concept.

Locus of control influences the expectancy aspects of Atkinson's (1958) formula discussed in Section 2.1. One may expect that one's actions will lead to the desired goal or else that they will have no influence on the situation because one's life is controlled by external forces. Locus of control is a generalized expectancy about the amount of control one has over one's life, which develops as a result of the individual's life experiences. Phares (1976) stated:

"If individuals possess a generalized set of beliefs that they are not the effective agent in controlling the occurrence of rewards in their lives, then it is hard to understand how they could be expected to en-

gage in actions calculated to attain power or influence over their environment" (p. 74).

2.3.1 Locus of control and power motivation

Individuals who are internally controlled are more likely to exercise power directly. Individuals who feel they are controlled by external forces may find it difficult to express a need for power directly. Powerful fantasies, rather than behaviour to gain power goals may occur. (The relationship between fantasy and behaviour will be discussed in the following chapter.) Externals are more likely to feel strong through vicariousness and dependency (stage one power behaviour patterns) whereas internals are more likely to feel strong by being directly assertive or assuming leadership roles (stage three and four power behaviour patterns).

Dependency may be dysfunctional for modern women and may reinforce feelings of powerlessness. Bernard (1975) indicated that a dependent woman finds it difficult to face many situations on her own. By leaning on others, the generalized expectation of external control is reinforced. More dependency may lead to further feelings of powerlessness. Self-esteem may be negatively affected. Self-esteem is discussed in the following section.

2.4 SELF-ESTEEM

Each individual has a picture or image of himself or herself as a person, known as the self-concept. This concept includes an interpretation of one's past and expectations of one's future potential. The self-concept influences choice of behaviour and life expectations.

The evaluative aspect of the self-concept is known as self-esteem. Burns (1979) described self-esteem as

"the process in which the individual examines his performance, capacities and attributes according to his personal standards and values which have been internalised from society and significant others" (p. 68).

It is suggested here that the strength of the need for power among women is negatively related to self-esteem. Previous research (Bardwick 1970) has indicated that the self-esteem of women is dependent on the appraisal of others, whereas among men it is more likely to be independent of others. Women seek reassurance of their worth from others more frequently than men do. Direct expression of a need for power through assertiveness and leadership roles may be thwarted because women may fear that by being directly assertive they may experience rejection or loss of affection, and thereby lose self-esteem.

Both the need for power and feelings of powerlessness may be influenced by self-esteem. It seems possible that the woman who evaluates herself highly is more likely to feel she has internal control over her own life; whereas the woman who has a low self-esteem may be more likely to feel that she cannot effectively control the outcomes of her actions. Powerlessness and low self-esteem may have a reciprocal influence. A dependent woman may come to regard herself as inferior, weak and placatory. Burns (1979) stated:

"A person who feels insecure, lacking in self-worth and low in feelings of personal adequacy, should be oriented towards external control rather than inter-

nal control. The high self-esteem person with his positive sense of adequacy should feel more in control of what he does and what happens to him rather than under control from outside forces" (p. 257).

A high need for power may sensitise a woman to frustrations in attaining power goals by assertive action; this in turn undermines her self-esteem and makes her feel powerless.

2.4.1 Development of self-esteem and the power motive

An understanding of the way in which self-esteem and the power motive develop in childhood may give an indication of how these two aspects of personality may be negatively related to each other.

Veroff and Veroff (1980) indicated that during childhood, power issues become most salient when a child, aged about two to three years tries to assert himself or herself in relation to a more powerful adult. This assertiveness occurs at the same time that the child is learning to form close relationships with parents or significant others. Issues of assertiveness and acceptance become central to the child's development. Self-esteem develops in the context of face-to-face intimate and intense interactions with others. The meaning we assign to these interactions rather than the interactions themselves are important. For positive self-esteem to develop, we need to feel that we are loved and accepted.

The conflict between the need for power and the need for acceptance may be a central issue affecting development of self-esteem in girls. Normative sex-role expectations guide parents in their childrearing practices. Girls are still being raised for a nurturing role in adulthood, and

boys for an assertive role. Assertiveness is therefore more highly valued in boys than in girls (Spence, Helmreich and Stapp 1975). Rewards are more likely to be given to boys for behaving assertively and to girls for behaving submissively. If assertiveness is generally less acceptable among girls than among boys, then the self-esteem of girls may come to depend on the evaluation that they are not powerful and assertive. The display of assertive behaviour among girls may affect their self-esteem negatively.

2.4.2 Self-esteem and power motive expression in women

A generally lower self-esteem among women compared to men has been found in various studies (Fransella and Frost 1977; Veroff, Douvan and Kulka 1981). This lower self-esteem may be due in part to the conflict between acceptance and assertiveness that may be experienced by girls. Self-esteem may be an important modifier of the use of direct assertiveness to express a need for power. Gaining strength through vicariousness and dependency, as well as gaining strength through concern with appearance, dieting, acquiring status and accumulating prestige possessions rather than direct assertiveness may satisfy both power motive strivings and self-esteem. A motive to fear assertiveness may develop among women who have a low self-esteem and who feel powerless. This is discussed in the following section.

2.5 ASSERTIVENESS AND FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS

Assertiveness is defined, for the purpose of this research project, as an orientation towards making others aware of one's point of view. The assertive person is able to state what he or she wants or does not want with-

out shyness or embarrassment. He or she is able to refuse unreasonable requests and to indicate to others that he or she has been unfairly treated, and to express both positive and negative emotions. Assertiveness does not necessarily imply aggression. In fact the opposite may sometimes be true. The person who cannot act assertively may resort to hostility and belligerence if he or she cannot attain desired goals. The assertive person is able to compete directly with others for desired goals and does not withdraw from competition easily. Assertiveness therefore means directly striving for power goals, without needing to resort to defensiveness or vicariousness. The assertive person is able to assume leadership roles. Bardwick (1980) stated: "When people are assertive they state what they think and take responsibility for their opinion" (p. 18). Assertiveness is one way of making an impact and of having control or influence over the environment. It is one way of expressing a need for power.

2.5.1 Assertiveness and the need for power

If there is a possibility that conflict and insecurity may become associated with a need for power, because childhood conflicts concerning assertiveness and acceptance are reactivated in situations where a need for power is aroused, then attempts to avoid power goals may occur. A motive may lead to behaviour which approaches the desired goal, or to behaviour which avoids it. Past experience may lead to anxiety about possible painful consequences, and this anxiety leads to the development of avoidance motives (Atkinson 1958). Among women, being assertive may sometimes lead to rejection. Such rejection may negatively affect self-esteem, because self-esteem among women tends to be associated with other people's evaluations as discussed in section 2.3. Per-

haps, in order to avoid risking rejection and loss of self-esteem which may occur if one is directly assertive, certain highly power motivated women may develop a motive to fear assertiveness. This motive would drive them to avoid direct assertiveness.

2.5.2 Fear of assertiveness as a motive

The idea put forward here is that fear of assertiveness is a motive, and that it develops as an aspect of the power motive. This idea is based on previous theories that a motive, for example the achievement motive, may have approach and avoidance aspects. Fear of success (Horner 1970; 1972; 1978) and fear of failure (Birney, Burdick and Teevan 1969; Heckhausen 1975; Klinger 1977) have been extensively discussed and researched as aspects of the achievement motive. The achievement motive has also been partitioned even further. Intons-Peterson and Johnson (1980) divided this motive into four quadrants, namely fear of success, fear of failure, hope of success and hope of failure.

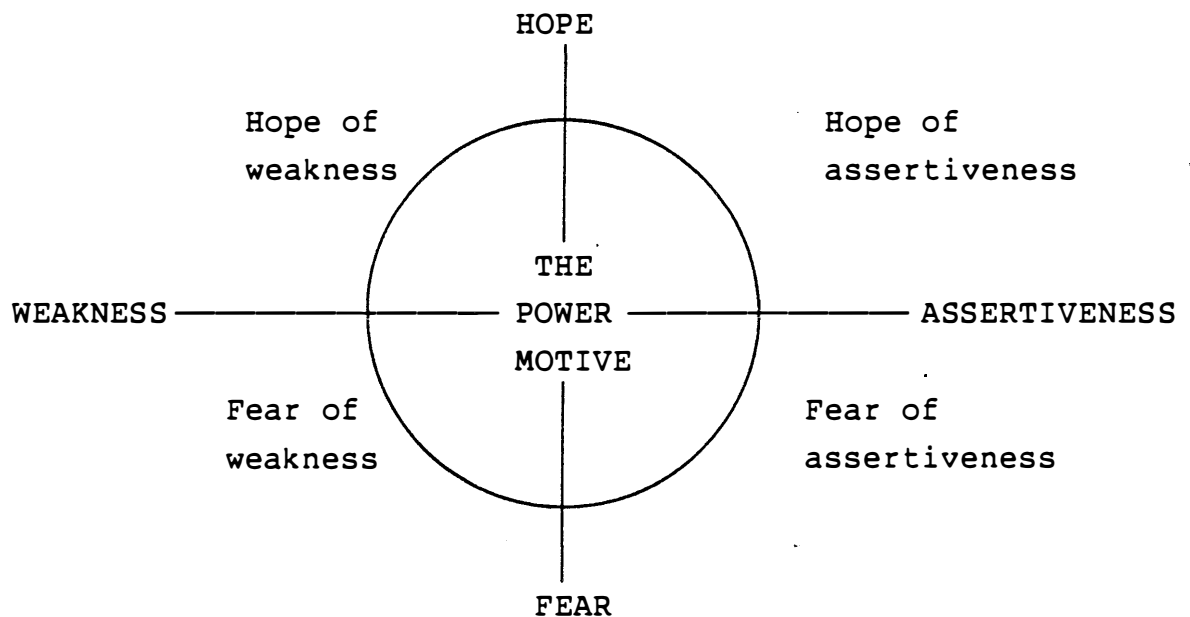
The power motive may also contain various approach and avoidance components. Veroff and Feld (1970) discussed fear of weakness as a negative aspect of the power motive and Winter (1973) indicated that the need for power may be partitioned further into two components, namely Hope of Power and Fear of Power.

The present author suggests that the power motive may be divided into four components. If the power motive is represented as a circle, then two axes may be drawn through the circle bisecting each other at right angles. The horizontal axis is a continuum representing weakness at one extreme and assertiveness at the other. The vertical axis could represent hope or approach at one pole and

fear or avoidance at the other. The following quadrants could then be obtained: fear of assertiveness, fear of weakness, hope of assertiveness and hope of weakness. These quadrants are illustrated in Figure 2.1. The main concern here is with fear of assertiveness, which may be an important aspect of the power motive. It may act to inhibit direct assertiveness in individuals who are sensitised to the possibility that rejection and hostility may occur if they act assertively. Fear of assertiveness as a motive would encourage the indirect seeking of power goals. Whether or not an individual seeks power directly through assertiveness or whether direct power goals are avoided may depend in part on the sex-role identity of the individual. This aspect of personality is discussed in the following section.

FIGURE 2.1

COMPONENTS OF THE POWER MOTIVE



2.6 SEX-ROLE IDENTITY

Sex-role identity may be an important concept which may help explain how the power motive is expressed. This concept may also be related to locus of control, self-esteem and assertiveness. The origins of sex-role identity may be found in Jung's (Singer 1976) theories. His core concepts of "animus" the masculine aspect of women's personality and "anima" the feminine aspects of men's personality are relevant here. According to Jung both masculine and feminine traits are present in all men and all women. But they may be repressed during the socialization process. In this research project, it is assumed that masculinity and femininity are not polar opposites along a continuum, but are separate dimensions, each being present in varying degrees among both men and women. (Bem 1977; Spence, Helmreich and Stapp 1975). The distinction between male and female serves as a basic organizing principle for every human culture (Bem 1981 : 354).

2.6.1 Definition of terms

The term sex-role identity and the related concepts of masculinity, femininity and androgyny have been widely used in the literature, and different meanings have been given to these terms. In order to clarify how these terms have been used in this research project, they are defined below:

(a) Role

A role may be defined as the regulations of behaviour by participants in social interactions by rules or social norms attached to these interactions. Such roles include acceptable techniques for influencing others (Sherif 1982)..

(b) Sex-roles

These may be defined as "the constellation of qualities an individual understands to characterise males and females in his culture" (Block 1973 : 572). Sex-roles regulate behaviour because rules or norms are attached to actions of men which differ from those attached to the actions of women.

(c) Masculinity

Masculinity is seen here as the cluster of human personality traits and behaviour patterns which are believed to be characteristic of males and are more highly appraised and valued if they are displayed by men in a given society.

(d) Femininity

Femininity is viewed here as a cluster of human personality traits and behaviour patterns which are believed to be characteristics of women and are more highly appraised and valued if they are displayed by women in a given society.

(e) Androgyny and sex-role transcendence

These terms are used interchangeably to describe individuals who exhibit both masculine and feminine traits and behaviour patterns. The androgynous person is able to react appropriately to a situation, rather than to react in terms of stereotyped masculine and feminine responses.

(f) The undifferentiated person

This term is used to describe an individual who exhibits a limited range of behaviour patterns in a variety of situations.

(g) Sex typing

Sex typing is the process by means of which masculine and feminine characteristics as defined in a given society, are transmitted to individuals and become incorporated in the individual's self-concept.

(h) Sex-role identity

Sex-role identity is seen here as both a structure and a process. As a structure, it consists of the beliefs an individual has about himself or herself as a male or female and the behaviour patterns associated with these beliefs. As a process, it is subject to change over time throughout the life-cycle. Sex-role identity forms part of the self-concept.

2.6.2 Gender differences

It is not the intention of the present author to enter into the nature-nurture controversy of how gender differences originate. The interaction between innate differences and historical-cultural environmental forces during the socialization process is regarded as important here. Deaux (1984) summed up the rather extensive literature with regard to differences in personality and ability between sexes. Four differences were consistently found, namely male superiority in (i) mathematical and (ii) visual-spatial abilities, female superiority in (iii)

verbal abilities and (iv) greater aggressiveness in males. Individual differences between people are however far greater than group differences between sexes. Deaux proposed that differences between the sexes may be due in part to different expectations which develop through socialization. These expectations affect performance and are often based on stereotypes of male and female characteristics.

2.6.3 Sex-role stereotypes

In order to make sense out of our environment, we tend to group phenomena into categories. Categorization, cognitive organization, linguistic labelling and stereotyping are all part of a complex mental process by means of which we interpret our experiences. Sex stereotypes are categories which we associate with being male or being female. Allport (1954) defined a stereotype as "an exaggerated belief associated with a category". Men and women in a society tend to be stereotyped into different categories. Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) found that significantly different descriptions of males and females were given by respondents to a sex stereotype questionnaire. Males were regarded as competent, independent, adventurous and ambitious, whereas females were regarded as non-competitive, fragile, dependent and non-aggressive. Men and women identify with these stereotypes and try to behave in accordance with them. Internalization of norms which are different for boys and girls lead to stereotyped sex-role perceptions. Deviation from these sex-roles, once internalized, lead to guilt feelings. Sex-role identity, in spite of changed circumstances with regard to women's lives may have prevented certain women from adapting to these changed circumstances.

2.6.4 Sex-role transcendence

Yet people are capable of both masculine and feminine behaviour patterns (Bem 1974). They may be both assertive and yielding, both instrumental and expressive. However a woman with a narrowly defined feminine sex-role identity may inhibit the "masculine" component of her personality and behave according to feminine stereotypes, even in those situations where the opposite behaviour to the stereotype is desirable. (A man with a narrowly defined masculine self-concept may also find it difficult to behave appropriately in situations where "feminine" traits are more relevant.) The flexibility or rigidity of ones sex-role identity is influenced by early social learning experiences. A differentiated system of rewards and punishments for boys and girls during childhood accentuates sex differences and allows gender differences to develop (Singer 1976). The extent to which sex differences are emphasized in childhood will influence the flexibility or rigidity of sex role identity.

2.6.5 Sex-role identity and the power motive

The present author proposes that the androgynous woman, who displays a high degree of both masculine and feminine traits is able to transcend the cultural stereotypes of what men and women should be like. If she has a high need for power, she will suffer less conflict in seeking direct power goals. She will be able to engage in assertive behaviour and assume leadership roles without resorting to indirect methods of gaining power. The power motive may then be expressed directly without the restrictions that powerlessness, low self-esteem and fear of assertiveness may place on power-related goal seeking behaviour. Women who transcend sex-role stereotypes are

more likely to enter male dominant professions and to become role innovators.

2.7 INTROVERSION - EXTRAVERSION

The extent to which a woman is an introvert or an extravert may influence the type of power goals she seeks. Eysenck (1975; 1982) described the typical extravert as someone who is sociable, enjoys parties, has many friends and needs people to talk to. He or she craves excitement and may act impulsively and likes change. The typical introvert, on the other hand is a quiet, retiring sort of person who is introspective, is fond of books rather than people and tends to plan ahead. He or she does not like excitement, tends to be serious and likes a well ordered type of life. The individual inherits a predisposition to an extraverted or introverted reaction to life circumstances. It is suggested here that extraverts are more likely to express a need for power directly through assertiveness or through the assumption of leadership roles. Introverts, on the other hand, are more likely to avoid direct assertiveness and to seek power goals through dependency, vicariousness or autonomy.

The way in which these variables were measured is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

3.1 MEASURING THE NEED FOR POWER

There is no direct method of measuring power motivation. It is a hypothetical construct that seeks to explain an inner disposition of an individual. Indirectly, by using fantasies of respondents, elicited by showing them a series of pictures and asking them to write a story suggested by each picture, a measuring instrument (n Power) has been developed. The strength of the power motive is inferred from the n Power score. This scoring system has developed in line with measurements of the needs for affiliation, achievement, hunger and sex (Atkinson 1958) and is based on the thematic apperception tests (TAT, initiated by Murray 1938/1973).

In order to develop such a scoring system, two groups, namely an aroused and a non-aroused group, are asked to write stories after they have been shown a series of pictures. In order to arouse power motivation, inspirational speeches, for example Kennedy's inaugural presidential address or Churchills' wartime speeches (Steele 1977) have been used. The non-aroused group listens to neutral material, for example travelogues. The stories of the aroused and non-aroused groups are then compared to derive the categories and sub-categories of the scoring system, by means of content analysis.

This scoring system may now be applied to individuals. It is assumed that the n Power score obtained under everyday conditions indicates the customary strength of this motive in the individual. Various scoring systems

have been devised to measure n Power (Veroff 1958; Uleman 1972; Winter 1973).

3.1.1 Winter's revised measure

Winter's (1973) revised n Power scoring system was used in this research project. It is based on other scoring systems and includes aspects of each of them. In this revised system the presence or absence of power imagery in a story told in response to a stimulus picture is assessed by means of the following three criteria:

- . Evidence in the story of strong vigorous actions expressing power, for example persuading, influencing or controlling others or giving unsolicited help or advice;
- . actions described in the story arousing strong emotions in other characters in the story;
- . explicit concern about reputation or position.

If a story contains power imagery, it may be further scored for the presence of the following sub-categories:

- . negative or positive prestige of the characters in the story, Pa^+ and Pa^- ;
- . instrumental activity taken to obtain a power goal, I;
- . block in the world preventing the attainment of a power goal, Bw;
- . negative or positive goal anticipations in relation to power, GA^+ and Ga^- ;

- . positive or negative goal states in relation to power, G^+ and G^- ;
- . effect of the power goal on others or on the world at large, Eff. (For more details and practice manual, see Winter 1973 : Appendix 1.)

This scoring system has been successfully used among English speaking South African males (Hamblin 1976; Nell and Strümpfer 1978; Hirschowitz and Nell 1983). However, further evaluation is needed before it may be applied to English-speaking South African women (or to Afrikaans speakers, or members of other population groups), as it may be very sensitive to cultural differences.

3.1.2 Reliability and validity

The use of fantasy measures to estimate the presence and strength of motives is controversial. Therefore the reliability and validity of these methods are discussed in some detail below.

The problems mentioned apply to all projective measuring instruments. Nevertheless, in spite of these problems, the heuristic value of these instruments has led to a wide body of research and relevant findings.

(1) Reliability

In fantasy measures the only aspect of reliability which is usually adequate, is that of interscorer reliability (Entwistle 1972). This applies not only to n Power, but also to other fantasy based measures.

Test-retest reliability is generally low over a short period of time, in the case of fantasy measures. But it

may be substantially increased by varying the retest instructions (Winter and Stewart 1977).

Reliability between pictures is also generally low. A "saw-tooth" effect (Winter 1973 : 91) has been observed, the first picture contains more power imagery, the second less, the third more, the fourth less and so on. A story which is high on n Power alternates with a story which is lower on n Power.

Variation of n Power scores between pictures may also occur as a result of the content of the pictures. Some pictures are more likely to arouse n Power than others. Moderately cued stimulus pictures (eliciting power imagery in 25 % to 60 % of respondents) are the most successful in eliciting variation in scores to distinguish between respondents who have a high need for power and those who do not.

As far as variation between scores obtained by different scorers is concerned, acceptable levels of reliability are attained by working through Winter's practice manuals.

There are many criticisms which may be levelled against the reliability of n Power. This may mean that the scoring system is inadequate, or else that the methods of assessing reliability are not applicable to n Power or other fantasy-based measures. Measurements based on fantasy may require different criteria for assessing their reliability. Computer simulations, discussed in the following section, may provide an alternative method for assessing both reliability and validity of n Power. The heuristic value of n Power which is leading to an increasing body of research, suggests that it is not necessarily the measure which is unreliable, but rather that

the traditional methods of evaluating reliability are inappropriate.

(2) Validity

There are many unanswered questions concerning the validity of fantasy measures in general and n Power in particular. The distinction drawn earlier between the power motive and the need for power needs to be borne in mind; n Power measures only a certain aspect of the power motive, namely the fantasy component (Nell and Strümpfer 1978). A fantasy is any imaginative thought evoked either by a stimulus in the external environment or else internally by one's need states and moods at a certain moment in time. A fantasy is essentially a form of thinking.

(a) Fantasy and reality

A fundamental research question concerning the use of fantasy measures is whether fantasy acts as a substitute for behaviour or whether it reflects and predicts behaviour. Investigators have argued from both points of view. A synthesis of these points of view may be found in McClelland's (1966; 1980) writings. He argues that since fantasy is a form of thinking, thematic apperception measurements are concerned with a sample of a person's thoughts. A thought is an operant behaviour, or a behaviour which is initiated by the person, as distinct from behaviour which is a response to an observable stimulus. Whether or not a fantasy will express itself in direct observable action depends on circumstances and personality. The individual must believe that the activity in question will lead to a certain goal; and he or she must want these consequences. If the individual does not believe that the activity will have the desired conse-

quences, fantasy may be a substitute for other forms of behaviour.

Skolnick's (1966 a + b) research is relevant here. She compared n Power scores in the same person over a twenty year period. The first set of scores was obtained when respondents were adolescents and the second twenty years later. The results indicated that the males remained stable in n Power scores over this time, whereas the women did not. Skolnick also found that men, boys and adolescent girls behaved in a way that was consistent with the assumption that there is a direct relationship between n Power in fantasy and other behaviour patterns indicative of a need for power. However, in women, fantasy may have acted as a substitute for actual power motivated behaviour. They did not behave assertively or assume leadership roles. From the above results, it would appear that women's expectations change over time. The roles of wife and mother modified the way in which women perceived power situations. These expectations modify not only behaviour patterns indicative of an underlying motive, but also the actual strength of the motive. Low expectations that behaviour would attain the desired goal led to modification of behaviour, which in turn influenced the motive.

(b) Operant and respondent measures

In view of the complex relationship between motive and behaviour, it is not possible to establish the validity of n Power by comparing it to other measures by looking at similar constructs but based on respondent measures. Fantasy tests measure operant behaviour, such as thoughts, whereas respondent instruments, for example questionnaires and inventories measure tendencies to respond in a certain way (McClelland 1980; 1981). Dif-

ferent measuring instruments measure different aspects of personality. Questionnaires and inventories do not necessarily predict the same responses as fantasy measures. If, as suggested by Erika Fromm (1977), fantasy is an ego-active rather than a passive activity, because the individual selects what he wants to imagine, assessments of the validity of instruments measuring fantasy need to take this self-initiating aspect into account.

(c) Computer simulations

In recent years, computer simulations have been used to vindicate the reliability and validity of fantasy measures in assessing underlying motives. Atkinson and Birch (1978) programmed a computer to take certain antecedent conditions into account when plotting trends of activity. For example the achievement motive is an antecedent condition which could influence behaviour. Different strengths of achievement motivation measured by responses to pictures, interacting with different strengths of incentives to achieve and different strengths of incentives for competing motives were given as antecedent conditions to the computer. The computer then predicted changes in the stream of activity that would occur in a hypothetical individual at the end of each hundred units of time. When assessing the strength of n Achievement, the computer took into account the proportion of time in the fantasy protocol that is allocated to achievement imagery compared to the proportion of time allocated to other types of imagery in the same protocol. It then predicted the proportion of time which would be spent on achievement behaviour in relation to other behaviour patterns (Atkinson 1982). These predictions were compared to respondents' actual behaviour over a period of time. The computer was accurately able to predict over a period of time behaviour patterns indicative of high or low need

for achievement scorers, in spite of the fact that the n Achievement data fed into the computer contained the problems of poor validity and reliability as assessed by traditional methods.

Computer simulations are based on the assumption that behaviour is a continuous flow of activity. We need to consider changes in the flow of activity over time when considering a motive. Atkinson (1980) contended that traditional methods of assessing reliability and validity do not take the time perspective into account. Situational variables may influence behaviour at any given time. But over a longer period of time, the influence of motives on behaviour may become apparent, as these patterns tend to recur in various situations.

(d) Evaluation

The question of whether n Power is an adequate measure of power motivation remains open. So does the question of whether n Power measures a fantasy substitute for behaviour or whether it measures a sample of power-motivated behaviour and therefore predicts behaviour. Nevertheless, it remains a useful method of assessing an aspect of the power motive; the amount of research generated by using fantasy measures indicates that fantasy measures introduce a new dimension to personality assessment, namely the thoughts of people. All measuring instruments used in psychology have certain advantages and disadvantages. Respondent measures are concerned with different aspects of personality from operant measures such as n Power. Results using the two types of instruments are therefore not directly comparable. Winter's n Power measure was used here to assess the need for power because it is a useful exploratory tool, and

not because it meets traditional criteria of reliability and validity adequately.

3.2 MEASURING LOCUS OF CONTROL

The most common scale used to measure a generalized expectancy of locus of control is Rotter's (1966) Internal-External (I-E) scale. The present author decided not to use this scale because there have been indications that more than one dimension is measured. At least two factors, and sometimes as many as five have been distinguished by researchers using this measure (Gurin et al, 1969; Collins 1974; Barling and Bolon 1980; Barling 1980). Instead, Levenson's (1981) Internality, Powerful Others and Chance (I, P + C) Scales were chosen. These scales are multidimensional, but at the same time they measure a generalized expectancy of locus of control. The I Scale measures the extent to which people believe they have control over their own lives. The P Scale measures how much people believe other powerful people control their lives. The C Scale measures the extent to which the world is believed to be unordered or unpredictable. A person may score high or low on all three dimensions. The reliability and validity data given by Levenson (1981) were considered adequate for the purposes of this study, particularly as the instrument was being pretested in the pilot study. This instrument is given as question 7.4 of Appendix 1.

3.3 MEASURING SELF-ESTEEM

Of the numerous methods which have been developed to assess self-esteem, the present author selected Rosenberg's self-esteem scale (SEI). This scale is a 10 item, easily

administered global scale which has been widely used in research and has high validity and reliability co-efficients. (Burns 1979; Rosenberg 1979). It was pretested in the pilot study. It is given as question 7.1 of Appendix 1.

3.4 MEASURING SEX-ROLE IDENTITY

Bem's (1974) sex-role inventory (BSRI) which gives separate masculinity and femininity scores (as well as a neutral social desirability score) was chosen to measure sex-role identity. This inventory has satisfactory reliability and validity co-efficients. On the basis of responses to this inventory subjects may be divided into four categories, namely undifferentiated (low masculinity and femininity scores), feminine (high femininity, low masculinity scores), masculine (low femininity, high masculinity scores), and androgynous (high masculinity and femininity scores) groups, using the median to divide the scores into low and high components. This division is useful for the purposes of the present research as it allows respondents to be placed in categories which reflect their sex-role identity. This inventory has been widely used for research purposes (Bem 1981). It has also been successfully used in South African studies (Singer 1983; Van Rooyen 1981; Gerdes 1979). It was pretested in the pilot study and is presented here as Question 7.3 of Appendix 1.

3.5 MEASURING ASSERTIVENESS

Rathus's (1973) 30 Item Assertiveness Schedule (RAS) was used. This schedule has acceptable reliability and validity co-efficients. It's brevity, ease of application

and global approach to assertiveness made it a useful measuring instrument for the purposes of this study. It was pretested in the pilot study. (See question 7.2 of Appendix 1.)

3.6 MEASURING FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS

In line with Horner's (1970) presentation of a written cue, instead of a picture, to develop a method of assessing the presence of fear of success as a motive, the present author attempted to develop a scoring system to assess the presence of fear of assertiveness as a motive. The following cue (question 16 of Appendix 1) was given.

"Anne (John) is often involved in heated discussions. She (he) is persuasive and tries to convince others to accept her (his) point of view. But other people do not always see eye to eye with her (him). One day in a discussion with John (Anne) she (he)
.....".

Content analysis was then done to attempt to distinguish between stories where fear of assertiveness is present and where it is absent. If the concept fear of assertiveness proves to be useful, further development of the scoring system is necessary. This would entail the development of an arousal procedure and the comparison of stories told by aroused and non-aroused groups of respondents. The present system is therefore a preliminary step to test a concept rather than a final scoring system.

3.7 ASSESSING ORIENTATION TOWARDS WOMEN'S ROLES

The questions asked in question 6 of Appendix 1 are based on the division made by Gerdes *et al.* (1981) of women's role orientations into three categories, namely traditional, companionate and egalitarian orientations (Question 6 of Appendix 1). Scaling analysis was done to convert the discrete responses into a continuous measuring scale.

3.8 MEASURING INTROVERSION-EXTRAVERSION

Eysenck's (1963) Personality Inventory (EPI) was used to assess introversion and extraversion. This inventory has been widely used for research purposes and has been found to be valid and reliable.

3.9 OTHER QUESTIONS ASKED

Table 3.1 discusses Appendix 1 in more detail. It indicates the source and reason for asking each question and the scoring method of each question of this study. In general, biographical information, working patterns and reasons for working as well as behaviour patterns indicative of the four stages of power motive development were covered by the remaining questions asked as indicated in Appendix 1. There were some differences between the questionnaire used in the pilot study and that used in the main study. Some questions were excluded and others modified in the main study. The questions which were not used for the main study are not given or discussed further, as they were shown to be inadequate.

TABLE 3.1

EXPLANATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Question	Source	Reasons for asking questions	Scoring
1	Not applicable	Biographical information	Division into age groups
2	Not applicable	Biographical information	Division into educational levels
3	Wessels (1972) adapted	Working patterns of women and biographical information	Division into occupations
3 (biv)	Based on previous HSRC manpower studies	To give an indication of why women work and how the importance of each reason for working relates to other variables	Five point scale for each item
4	Not applicable	Biographical information	Number of children
5	Winter (1981) adapted	Ordinal position in family of origin influences power motive expression	Ordinal position in family of origin
6	Gerdes <u>et al</u> (1981) adapted	A traditional, companionate or egalitarian orientation to women's roles may influence power motive expression	Scaling analysis of raw data to form a continuous scale
7.1	Rosenberg (1965)	Self-Esteem Scale (SEI)	According to Rosenberg
7.2	Rathus (1973)	Rathus's Assertiveness Schedule (RAS)	According to Rathus
7.3	Bem (1974)	Bem's Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI)	According to Bem
7.4	Levenson (1981)	Internality, Powerful Others and Chance Scales (I, P and C Scales)	According to Levenson
8.1	McClelland (1975) adapted	Stage 2: Control and prestige power	Five point scale for each item
8.2	McClelland (1975) adapted	Stage 3: Expansive and competitive power	Whether or not sport is played

(continued)/ ...

TABLE 3.1 (continued)

Question	Source	Reasons for asking questions	Scoring
8.3	McClelland (1975) adapted	Stage 2: Control and prestige power	Five point scale
9	McClelland (1975) adapted	Stage 3: Expansive and competitive power	Five or six point scale for each item
10	Designed for this study	To find out what the status and prestige symbols actually are for respondents	Frequency distribution of status symbols
10.1	Based on McClelland (1975)	Actual possession of status and prestige symbols	Scaling analysis for each item
11	McClelland (1975) adapted	Stage 4: Leadership and responsible power	Frequency distribution
11.2	Based on McClelland (1975)	Stage 3: Expansive and competitive power and Stage 4: Leadership and responsible power	Five point scale for each item
12	McClelland (1975) adapted	Stage 2: Control and prestige power	Five point scale
13	Based on Winter (1981)	High <u>n</u> Power among women, but not men, is associated with marital stability	Five point scale for each item
14	Designed for this study	Stage 1: Dependency and vicarious power	Five point scale for each item
15	Gerdes (1979) adapted	Exploratory question to compare <u>n</u> Power and fear of assertiveness	Content analysis
16	Designed for this study	Fear of assertiveness cue	Content analysis
Picture story	Winter (1973)	Measure of <u>n</u> Power	According to Winter's instructions

The pilot study aimed to test the questions and measuring instruments for their usefulness; whereas the main study explored the relation between the variables and the need for power. The pilot study is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

THE PILOT STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The pilot study was concerned with assessing the adequacy of the measuring instruments for use among English speaking South African women. It attempted to find out whether Winter's (1973) revised n Power scoring system could be applied to these women. It also aimed to develop a method for assessing the presence of fear of assertiveness as a motive. The relationship between n Power and the other variables could not be explored in the pilot study. The arousal procedure influenced the strength of the need, and the scores obtained in the aroused group do not reflect the strength of this need for power that is customary among respondents. The examination of the relationship between n Power and other variables remained the main purpose of the main study.

The pilot study therefore aimed to

- . determine whether Winter's (1973) n Power scoring system may be used for South African English-speaking women.
- . select four pictures which serve as the best stimuli to elicit fantasies scorable for n Power.
- . develop a preliminary instrument to measure fear of assertiveness as a motive.
- . explore how the instruments selected to measure self-esteem, locus of control, assertiveness, sex-role iden-

tity and orientation towards women's roles relate to each other.

- . investigate whether the behaviour patterns elicited from responses to the behavioural questionnaire cluster together in a manner similar to that of McClelland's (1975) stages of power motive development.
- . study the effects of working patterns on personality and behaviour.
- . examine how age differences influence the variables.

4.2 METHOD

4.2.1 Subjects

Forty randomly selected married English-speaking South African women graduates living in the Johannesburg-Pretoria area, who had at least one child participated. Half were aged between 23 and 33 years and half between 43 and 53 years. In view of the small sample size, these criteria were used to select respondents in order to limit the effect of extraneous variables on the results as far as possible. A larger sample would not have been practical for a pilot study in view of the length of time it would have taken to conduct each interview and to score the fantasy protocols.

The respondent's names were randomly obtained from the HSRC Register of Graduates. Information on age and geographical area is available on the Register, but not on marital status or number of children. Prospective respondents were contacted by telephone. If a respondent

met the desired criteria, she was asked to participate; if not, a random replacement was found from the Register.

All suitable subjects were asked if they could devote an hour to an hour and a half to a research project concerning the reactions of women to the demands of modern life. An appointment was made to interview each respondent at a convenient time, either at her home or else at her place of work. All subjects were reassured that the information supplied would be treated as strictly confidential and the results would be published only as group findings. They were interviewed individually by the author.

4.2.2 Procedure

The order in which the tests were administered was regarded as important, because the arousal procedure could have influenced the responses to all questions. Therefore the women first completed the questionnaire, then the Anne or John cue to assess fear of assertiveness was introduced. Finally, the respondents were played a tape recording according to whether they had been assigned to the aroused or non-aroused group and then they wrote down their stories elicited from the pictures. The interviewer discussed any problems experienced by respondents with regard to answering any of the questions and they were encouraged to complete every item of each applicable question. Half the respondents were given the Anne cue and half the John cue on a random basis to assess fear of assertiveness.

4.2.3 Procedure for assessing the need for power

Before the interviews, each of the 40 participants was randomly assigned to one of two groups. Respondents in group one, the aroused group, listened to a tape record-

ing of a powerful speech based on extracts, adapted and cited out of context, from The New Women (Meares 1974). This speech is given in Appendix 2. Previous research (Steele 1977) has indicated that inspirational speeches arouse the need for power.

Respondents in group two, the non-aroused group listened to an extract from the book The Magic Years (Fraiberg 1968: 49-50) which discusses a stage in the cognitive development of infants. Both speeches were recorded by a professional newsreader.

Before listening to the tape recording, both groups of respondents were told that they were required to listen to a discussion of a topic relevant to women's roles in modern life and to allow the situation described in the tape to influence their thoughts and feelings.

The subjects were then presented with four of the following eight pictures and were asked to write stories about the pictures according to Winter's (1973) instructions. Eight pictures rather than four were used in order to facilitate choice of the most suitable pictures for the main study. The pictures are given in Appendix 4. They are described as follows:

- . Picture 1 : Man and woman and guitar player (McClelland 1975)
- . Picture 2 : Male and female scientists
- . Picture 3 : Man standing behind woman (Veroff and Feld 1970)
- . Picture 4 : Woman seated at a desk: man looking on
- . Picture 5 : Man and woman looking at plans (Oakley 1979)
- . Picture 6 : Man, woman and children in the kitchen
- . Picture 7 : Woman and child (Veroff and Feld 1970)

. Picture 8 : Man, woman and children in the lounge.

Picture 1 has been used repeatedly in n Power studies (Hirschowitz and Nell 1983; McClelland 1975; McClelland, Davis, Kalin and Wanner 1972). Pictures 2, 4, 6 and 8 were taken by a professional photographer for the purpose of this study. Pictures 2 and 6 are based on those used by Veroff and Feld (1970) to elicit power, achievement and affiliation fantasies, but include both men and women and not only women, which is the case in Veroff and Feld's pictures. Picture 4 derives from that used by Hirschowitz and Nell (1983) to measure n Power in journalists, but in the original picture, a man and not a woman, is seated behind a desk. Pictures 3 and 7 were used by Veroff and Feld (1970) to measure the needs for power, achievement and affiliation. Pictures 5 and 8 have not been previously used in n Power studies. All the pictures were chosen to depict interpersonal relationships between men and women in working and non-working contexts as well as between men, women and children in domestic situations.

The protocols were scored by the author as well as by an independent scorer who had gained proficiency in the use of Winter's n Power scoring system. The second scorer was unaware of which stories were told by aroused, and which were told by non-aroused respondents. Interscorer reliability met Winter's (1973) criteria. Experimenter bias on the part of the author therefore did not influence the scoring of protocols.

4.3 RESULTS

4.3.1 The need for power

The aroused group that had listened to the powerful speech obtained significantly higher scores on Winter's n Power measure than the non-aroused group. This applied to the total n Power score as well as to the individual pictures with the exception of Picture 3 which elicited high n Power responses from both groups (as illustrated in Table 4.1). This finding indicates that the need for power may be aroused in South African English speaking women by a similar method to that used in America. It also shows that Winter's scoring system is useful for South African female respondents. This finding implies that the power motive is a universal motive, as suggested by McClelland (1975). It varies in strength and salience among individuals. But it may be aroused in people of different cultural backgrounds. Women as well as men have a need to make an impact on, to influence and to control their environment. Pictures 1, 2, 4 and 6 were chosen for the main study because interscorer reliability was most accurate on these pictures and because they depict a variety of interpersonal situations, which may be given different interpretations by respondents.

4.3.2 Fear of assertiveness

(a) Scoring

On the basis of content analysis of stories told to the "Anne" or "John" cue the following scoring system was developed:

TABLE 4.1

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AROUSED AND NON-AROUSSED GROUPS ON \bar{n} POWER SCORES

Picture	Group 1 (aroused)			Group 2 (non-aroused)					Number of pictures containing power imagery	
	N	\bar{X}	s	N	\bar{X}	s	df	t	Group 1	Group 2
1	10	3.4	2.6	10	0.9	1.7	18	2,6**	7	3
2	10	2.2	1.5	10	0.9	2.0	18	2,1*	8	5
3	9	3.3	2.0	11	2.1	2.3	18	1,3	9	6
4	10	4.2	1.1	10	2.3	1.9	18	2,7**	10	6
5	10	2.7	1.5	10	0.9	1.2	18	3,0**	9	4
6	11	2.9	1.6	10	1.3	1.8	19	2,1*	8	4
7	10	3.1	1.9	9	1.2	1.6	17	2,4*	8	3
8	10	3.4	1.5	10	1.8	2.1	18	1,9*	9	6
All pictures	20	25.2	13.7	20	11.4	14.5	8;31	T^2 56,17**	68	37

(a) \bar{X} = mean

(b) s = standard deviation

(c) The null hypothesis: "variances are equal" was accepted for all cases.

* p < 0,05 (one-tailed test)

** p < 0,01 (one-tailed test)

In order to score fear of assertiveness, the scorer first decides whether or not power imagery is present, in accordance with Winter's scoring categories. If power imagery is present, fear of assertiveness may be scored if the individual becomes a victim as a direct result of the use of assertive behaviour to attain a power goal. At least one of the following criteria must be met if fear of assertiveness is to be scored:

1. Rejection of persuasion, influence or assertive behaviour by someone else in the story;
2. derogatory words used in the story to describe assertiveness: for example "bulldozing techniques";
3. advice given to the assertive person by someone else in the story to be less assertive;
4. humiliation of the assertive person by someone else in the story;
5. the assertive person's behaviour is modified by the realization that assertiveness does not achieve power goals;
6. denial of the situation of refusal to handle the situation in the story;
7. the assertive person gets hurt, emotionally or physically by the exercise of assertiveness.

If these categories are not present then fear of assertiveness is regarded as being absent in a story.

(b) Correlations with other measures

Fear of assertiveness was scored in 18 of the 40 stories and slightly more often in the Anne (N = 10) than in the John stories (N = 8). This small difference can hardly be regarded as significant tending to indicate that fear of assertiveness is a personality rather than a situational variable.

Correlation matrices were calculated separately for women with and without fear of assertiveness.

TABLE 4.2

FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS: WITHIN GROUP CORRELATIONS

(a) Absence of fear of assertiveness

	Self-esteem	Assertiveness	Internality	Powerful others
Assertiveness	0,24			
Internality	0,40	0,62*		
Powerful others	-0,15	0,34	0,32	
Chance	-0,35	-0,05	0,02	0,54*

* $p < 0,05$

(b) Presence of fear of assertiveness

	Self- esteem	Assertive- ness	Inter- nality	Powerful others
Assertiveness	0,65*			
Internality	-0,05	0,12		
Powerful others	-0,39	-0,42	0,03	
Chance	-0,34	-0,44	0,03	0,75*

* $p < 0,05$

In the absence of fear of assertiveness, there was a significant positive correlation between assertiveness as measured by Rathus's Assertiveness Schedule and Internality or feeling that one has control over one's own life as measured by Levenson's Internality, Powerful others and Chance Scales.

In the presence of fear of assertiveness, this correlation was low and non-significant. If fear of assertiveness were present, assertiveness correlated significantly and positively with self-esteem as measured by Rosenberg's Self-esteem Scale.

From these findings one may infer that if an individual is motivated to fear assertiveness, then a high degree of self-esteem is necessary for that person to behave asser-

tively. However, in the absence of a motive to fear assertiveness the expression of assertive behaviour is not related to self-esteem, but depends on the extent to which the respondent feels she has internal control over her own life.

(c) The best and worst aspects of being a woman and fear of assertiveness.

Content analysis of the open-ended question "the best thing about being a woman is" and the comparison of this with the presence or absence of fear of assertiveness indicated that when fear of assertiveness was absent, more respondents (N=9) gave the role of mother rather than other preferences as being the best thing about being a woman. When fear of assertiveness was present, the dependency status of women was mentioned more frequently than other statements as the best thing about being a woman (N=10). The dependency status category was composed of the following types of responses: "having a husband to rely on, not having to be the main breadwinner and having less financial responsibilities than men."

No clear pattern emerged in the responses to the "worst thing about being a woman" cue.

(d) Evaluation

The results concerning fear of assertiveness give tentative support to the concept that it is a motive which modifies the direct expression of a need for power. Stories in which this motive was present could be differentiated from those in which it was absent. The presence of a fear of assertiveness and the preference for dependency indicate that this motive may intervene between the

need for power and its expression. The concept and measuring instrument were explored further in the main study.

4.3.3 Other personality variables

The correlation matrix shown in Table 4.3 indicates certain trends which give face validity to the measuring instruments. Self-esteem scores and assertiveness scores are significantly positively related. These scores correlate negatively with the chance scores. Assertiveness and internality are also positively correlated. Therefore among respondents the higher the self-esteem, the more likely a women is to be assertive and the less likely she is to feel that chance factors control her life. The more control the respondent feels she has over her own life the more likely she is to be assertive. Self-esteem, assertiveness and internal control seem to go together. The relation between these variables and the need for power will be examined in the main study.

TABLE 4.3

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERSONALITY VARIABLES (N=40)

	Self- esteem	Assertive- ness	Inter- nality	Powerful others
Assertiveness	0,44**			
Internality	-0,21	0,41**		
Powerful others	-0,24	-0,02	0,21	
Chance	-0,34*	-0,23	0,02	0,63**

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

4.3.4 Sex-role identity

Table 4.4 indicates that the division of respondents into four categories on the basis of a median split of masculinity and femininity scores is a useful one. Undifferentiated women obtained lower scores on self-esteem, assertiveness and internal control and higher scores on chance than the other groups. Feminine women obtained lower scores on assertiveness and internal control in relation to other women. Masculine women showed a tendency to obtain higher scores on internal control and lower scores on being controlled by powerful others.

The androgynous woman obtained lower scores on the Powerful Others Scale and higher scores on assertiveness and internality. She was less likely to fear assertiveness than the masculine woman, probably because she had a more flexible approach to assertiveness. Because of the small sample size and the small number of women in each category, tests of significance were not done. Thus only trends are indicated. The patterns are consistent with Bem's (1981) theory. Feminine and undifferentiated women feel more powerless than masculine and androgynous women who are capable of sex-role transcendence. The relation between sex-role identity and the need for power will be explored in the main study.

4.3.5 The behavioural questionnaire

A cluster analysis was done in order to see whether the behaviour patterns elicited in the questionnaire grouped together in the manner suggested by McClelland (1975) as indicative of stages of power motive development. This analysis is given in Table 4.5. It is read on the diagonal. A cluster analysis arranges variables which corre-

TABLE 4.4 THE INFLUENCE OF SEX-ROLE IDENTITY ON OTHER ASPECTS OF PERSONALITY

Personality variables	Sex-role identity									
	Undifferentiated		Feminine		Masculine		Androgynous		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Self-esteem low (a) high (b)	8	73	5	63	5	50	5	46	23	58
	3	27	3	37	5	50	6	54	17	42
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40
Assertiveness low high	7	64	6	75	4	40	7	36	21	53
	4	36	2	25	6	60	4	64	19	47
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40
Internal control low high	8	73	7	88	3	30	4	36	22	55
	3	27	1	12	7	70	7	64	18	45
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40
Powerful others low high	6	55	4	50	7	70	5	46	22	55
	5	45	4	50	3	30	6	54	18	45
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40
Chance low high	8	27	4	50	6	60	7	64	20	50
	3	73	4	50	4	40	4	36	20	50
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40
Orientation towards women's roles: companionate egalitarian	7	64	6	75	6	60	7	64	26	65
	4	36	2	25	4	40	4	36	14	35
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40
Fear of assertiveness: absent present	6	55	6	75	4	40	6	55	22	55
	5	45	2	25	6	60	5	45	18	45
	Total	11	100	8	100	10	100	11	100	40

(a) Scores at or below the median
(b) Scores above the median

late with each other in such a way that they may be grouped together. Five clusters were differentiated from the data:

(a) Cluster one

Cluster one included taking care of one's body through physical fitness exercises, yoga and dieting, regarding appearance as important, valuing prestige possessions, desiring the lifestyle of a powerful and influential woman, joining and participating in organizations and having an egalitarian orientation towards women's roles. This cluster approximates McClelland's Stage Two behaviour patterns.

(b) Cluster two

Cluster two included frequent betting, participating in games of chance, playing sport, drinking alcohol, and internal control on Levenson's scale. This cluster corresponds to Stage Three of McClelland's theory.

(c) Cluster three

Cluster three included the following variables: frequent attendance at organizations, the ability to laugh at one's mistakes and living vicariously through one's husband and children. Broadly speaking, this cluster is similar to McClelland's Stage One dependency and vicariousness, although there are some discrepancies between them.

(d) Cluster four

This cluster was formed by similar behaviour patterns to McClelland's Stage Four leadership pattern, including

TABLE 4.5
CLUSTER ANALYSIS

Variable no.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
1	40	4	24	32	18	3	0	22	17	21	33	29	10	2	28	26	16	10	1	0	32	1	4	21	26	6	0	7
2	5	2	13	26	15	13	19	10	4	15	4	10	5	22	3	0	5	2	16	12	22	33	13	13	11	3	2	
3	20	34	43	25	25	19	11	8	7	16	0	23	18	17	8	14	6	5	7	18	45	3	32	1	49	18		
4	50	63	27	15	4	8	24	8	9	46	9	7	14	21	13	11	25	7	5	10	13	3	35	9	14			
5	67	37	22	23	10	16	7	16	24	3	17	14	28	5	25	27	0	38	26	14	17	13	10	5				
6	35	37	1	11	8	4	6	49	25	1	0	8	20	28	17	6	19	28	16	18	17	2	8					
7	1	13	19	15	26	12	4	17	14	7	5	1	9	0	12	9	25	11	2	11	7	2						
8	46	40	26	13	16	1	4	7	12	0	19	0	5	14	19	37	4	39	1	8	2							
9	36	41	25	33	12	10	1	13	10	8	11	5	10	3	38	13	3	19	21	26								
10	10	22	23	3	17	9	7	8	14	4	1	0	10	1	0	15	3	0	7									
11	79	32	9	29	4	31	6	9	17	18	14	4	24	11	16	12	15	12										
12	42	14	57	7	25	0	15	14	27	13	4	13	5	13	10	30	13											
13	3	20	9	18	18	15	8	2	2	19	25	18	40	12	21	2												
14	30	22	6	15	10	25	19	5	0	11	5	3	18	2	10													
15	41	24	14	7	29	8	13	5	9	11	1	2	3	1														
16	5	15	7	4	18	12	22	5	40	24	25	39	16															
17	48	19	12	2	10	4	13	18	24	36	2	9																
18	24	2	3	15	24	5	6	29	5	13	8																	
19	40	33	13	0	4	20	40	8	21	34																		
20	2	3	8	6	6	8	12	14	0																			
21	34	21	7	16	8	16	20	10																				
22	21	13	14	23	11	6	3																					
23	46	40	30	22	16	16																						
24	30	31	19	27	10																							
25	42	37	24	35																								
26	15	3	24																									
27	12	23																										
28	6	3																										
29																												

Legend

Prestige cluster

- 1 = care of body
- 2 = importance of appearance
- 3 = prestige possessions
- 4 = joining many organizations
- 5 = holding office
- 6 = doing voluntary work
- 7 = women's roles

Impact cluster

- 8 = bets
- 9 = games of chance
- 10 = playing sport
- 11 = alcohol quantity
- 12 = alcohol frequency
- 13 = internality

Dependency cluster

- 14 = attendance at organizations
- 15 = unconventional
- 16 = laugh at mistakes
- 17 = living through husband
- 18 = living through children
- 19 = helping others
- 20 = Type of help

Leadership cluster

- 21 = being part of an organization
- 22 = power games
- 23 = helping friends
- 24 = status-prestige
- 25 = self-esteem
- 26 = assertiveness
- 27 = happy marriage

Powerlessness cluster

- 28 = powerful others
- 29 = chance

enjoying being part of an organization, giving advice and help, high self-esteem and assertiveness.

(e) Cluster five

The final cluster separates the chance and powerful others scores from the other variables. Although a cluster analysis is based on absolute values, a correlation matrix indicated that there was a negative correlation between these two variables and some stage four behaviour patterns. If a respondent feels she cannot control the outcome of her behaviour then she is unlikely to engage in behaviour related to need satisfaction.

(f) Conclusion

In general, McClelland's stages were supported by the pilot study. The relation between these behaviour patterns and the need for power will be explored in the main study.

4.3.6 Working patterns

Thirty-one of the respondents were engaged in paid work at the time of the pilot study. The majority was engaged in commercial and clerical work (N=9), in health professions (N=7) and in teaching (N=5). The most important reason for working, given the highest mean rating on a five point scale ($\bar{X}=4,2$), was to make use of one's talents and abilities. Other reasons were relatively less important. Working to supplement the family income was rated as more important ($\bar{X}=3,4$) among younger respondents than among the older group ($\bar{X}=3,2$).

When correlations between reasons for working, and between these reasons and personality variables were calcu-

lated, Table 4.6 indicates the following pattern: women work for three broad groups of reasons, namely (i) financial reasons, (ii) self-fulfilment and (iii) defensive reasons (working to avoid boredom, to escape the role of housewife and to form social contacts). Working for self-fulfilment is related to internal control. Working for defensive reasons is related to feelings of powerlessness as measured by the powerful others and chance scales. Work may therefore compensate for feelings of powerlessness and low self-esteem among respondents who work to avoid boredom, to escape being a housewife and to form social contacts. But it allows for self-fulfilment among those who feel internally controlled. The influence of n Power on these reasons for working will be explored in the main study.

4.3.7 Age group differences

There were very few measurable differences between the older and younger respondents. The only differences found were the following: the older group obtained higher scores on assertiveness ($t(38) = 2,57; p 0,05$) than the younger group. They also took bets and did voluntary work more frequently than the younger group. In all other respects, the groups were similar. Perhaps education had a larger influence on these variables than age. The main study therefore included respondents of various ages and educational backgrounds.

4.4 CONCLUSIONS

The pilot study was useful in demonstrating that the need for power could be aroused among English speaking South African women. The findings strengthen the contention that the need for power is a universal motive.

TABLE 4.6 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN REASONS FOR WORKING AND PERSONALITY VARIABLES (N=31)

	Reasons for working					Escape housewife	Avoid boredom	Form social contacts
	Support family	Supplement family income	Develop career	Use talents	Use academic training			
Support family								
Supplement income	0,61**							
Develop career	0,19	-0,13						
Use talents	-0,11	-0,24	0,60**					
Use academic training	0,11	-0,23	0,77**	0,80**				
Escape housewife	-0,23	-0,28	0,06	0,10	0,13			
Avoid boredom	-0,13	-0,19	0,07	0,06	0,01	0,83**		
Form social contacts	-0,23	-0,34*	0,08	0,21	-0,03	0,35*	0,51*	
Personality variables								
Self-esteem	0,15	0,32	0,12	0,01	0,20	-0,51**	-0,53**	-0,49*
Assertiveness	0,20	0,02	0,11	-0,12	0,03	-0,16	-0,33	-0,39*
Internality	-0,08	-0,14	0,17	0,38*	0,23	-0,04	-0,15	-0,05
Powerful others	-0,06	-0,20	0,00	-0,08	-0,08	0,43*	0,57**	-0,20
Chance	-0,06	-0,23	-0,06	-0,07	-0,15	0,34	0,54**	-0,32

*p<0,05
**p<0,01

The concept of fear of assertiveness as a motive proved useful. It seemed to be related to a dependency pattern of behaviour. Internal control and self-esteem modified its behavioural expression. The pilot study also demonstrated that the other measuring instruments used here assess the concepts that they purport to measure.

The results need to be interpreted with caution because the sample was small and because graduate women may differ from other English-speaking women regarding the variables measured. A larger, more diverse group was used in the main study, as discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

THE MAIN STUDY: METHODOLOGY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the main study, interest was focused on ways in which the need for power is expressed in everyday life. The need for power was measured using Winter's (1973) n Power scoring system. This system was found to be applicable to a group of English-speaking women in the pilot study. In the main study, it was assumed that the strength of n Power was characteristic of its customary level in each respondent at the time of testing as no arousal procedure was used. This assumption has frequently been made in motivation research (McClelland 1975; Winter 1973; Veroff and Feld 1970; Veroff 1982). The relationships between n Power, personality and behaviour were then explored.

The main study also examined the motive to fear assertiveness further. The preliminary method of assessing the presence or absence of this motive, developed in the pilot study, was tested in the main study. The relation between this motive and other aspects of personality and behaviour patterns covered in this project were studied further.

Relationships between the other personality variables were also investigated further.

In contrast to the pilot study, respondents of various ages and education levels were used. The main study therefore aimed to explore

- . the relationships between n Power and behaviour.
- . the relationship between n Power and other aspects of personality.
- . the relationship between fear of assertiveness and other aspects of personality as well as behaviour.
- . the relationships of other personality variables to each other.
- . the influence of age on n Power and its expression.
- . the influence of education on n Power and its expression.
- . the influence of working patterns on n Power and its expression.
- . the inter-relationships between all these variables.

5.2 METHOD

5.2.1 Subjects

At the outset of the main study, it was decided, on the basis of the amount of money made available for fieldwork, to attempt to obtain a sample of 200 English speaking women in the Johannesburg-Pretoria areas. These women were required, as in the pilot study, to be married with at least one child. The life circumstances of unmarried and childless women may affect the expression of the need for power, thus confusing the picture of a relatively small sample. Age and education, however, were

not used as selection criteria, provided respondents were younger than 70 years.

The 1980 census was used to randomly draw the names of 22 suburbs in the Johannesburg-Randburg-Sandton-Pretoria municipal areas. Only those suburbs where more than 50 % of respondents were English speaking, as indicated by the census data, were included in the draw, in order to limit expenditure on telephone calls. The proportional size of the suburb in relation to other suburbs drawn in the sample determined the number of respondents required from that area. More respondents were drawn from larger suburbs, fewer from smaller ones. The municipalities supplied lists of ratepayers in the relevant suburbs. Random samples of names and addresses were drawn from these lists according to stand numbers. Initially, the name and address list was three times the required size. Owing to the large number of refusals, of women who could not be traced or of those who did not meet the criteria, further random samples were drawn for some suburbs. Table 5.1 indicates the distribution of the number of desired respondents according to suburb. It also indicates people who could not be contacted, unsuitable people and those who refused to participate. The final total number of actual respondents for each suburb is then given. The large number of refusals gives cause for concern. The respondents who agreed to participate may not be representative of the population from which they were drawn. The question of personality differences between respondents and those who refuse to participate remains an issue which limits the generalizability of research findings. The reasons most often given for refusal to participate were lack of time and interest.

The final total of 168 respondents was reached when time and money allotted to fieldwork had run out. A question-

TABLE 5.1 NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS REQUIRED AND EVENTUALLY OBTAINED ACCORDING TO SUBURB

Suburbs	Number of respondents required	Number of people contacted	Number of refusals	Number of unsuitable people (a)	People who could not be contacted (b)	Number of respondents obtained
Craighall Park	10	25	5	6	4	10
Northcliff	21	40	11	1	9	19
Berario	6	16	4	1	5	6
Kibler Park	5	15	6	3	3	3
Regent's Park	5	19	6	6	5	2
Orange Grove	16	55	15	13	12	15
Lyndhurst	6	17	4	1	6	6
Kew	14	26	8	1	5	12
Bez Valley	11	20	10	3	3	4
Observatory	6	9	3	2	2	1
Robindale	5	7	1	0	3	3
Hatfield	5	15	4	2	5	4
Waterkloof	7	18	6	2	1	5
Waterkloof Ridge	6	16	3	1	6	6
Wendy wood	7	7	1	1	1	4
Blairgowrie	14	43	10	4	15	14
Parkhurst	19	54	21	10	5	19
Mondeor	8	31	12	3	8	8
Riverclub	7	17	8	0	2	7
Sandown	11	39	15	3	10	11
Highlands North	6	22	5	7	4	6
Illovo	5	19	8	5	3	3
TOTAL	200	530	166	75	117	168

- (a) There were no women in the household, or else the women were not married, or they did not have any children or they were older than 70 years.
- (b) The telephone number could not be found, or the person had moved out of the suburb or the wrong name was listed in the municipality lists.

naire completed by one respondent was discarded because of the poor quality of the responses. Therefore data obtained from 167 respondents was used. In general the questionnaires were satisfactorily completed, and the fieldworkers adhered to the prescribed procedure.

5.2.2 Procedure

The author and three paid fieldworkers contacted potential respondents by means of a telephone call. The same approach was used to gain the participation of these women as was the case in the pilot study. An appointment was then made to interview each respondent individually.

Each fieldworker was required to attend a training session, during which the questionnaire and picture story tasks were explained. A manual was given to each fieldworker which described how each question should be answered; it also included instructions for administering the picture-story-test. The random lists of possible respondents were given to each fieldworker according to suburbs allocated to her; she then made her own appointments to interview the respondents.

The order in which the tests were administered remained the same as in the pilot study. However, no tapes were played. Eysenck's inventory was given just before the story writing tasks. Pictures 1, 2, 6 and 4 were used in that order to elicit stories.

5.3 BIOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The age, educational level, occupation, work situation and number of children of respondents were regarded as

important classification variables that may influence the need for power and its expression.

5.3.1 Age

The respondents were divided into four age groups:

- . Those aged 33 years and younger (N=41; 25 % of the sample);
- . those aged between 34 and 40 years (N=44; 26 % of the sample);
- . those aged between 41 and 50 years (N=42; 25 % of the sample);
- . those aged 51 years and older (N=40; 24 % of the sample).

This division into age categories reflects life-cycle stages. The first group corresponds to "the trying twenties" and the "catch thirty", the second to the "mid-point crisis" and "crucible", the third to the "switch forty" and the fourth to the "renewal" stages of Sheehy's (1974) classification of life-cycle stages.

5.3.2 Educational level

(a) Academic

Table 5.2 indicates the highest standard passed at school or the highest level of educational qualifications attained by the respondents according to age. This table shows that the older respondents, particularly those aged 51 years or more, were less educated academically than the younger ones. This may have important implications

TABLE 5.2 HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION ACCORDING TO AGE

Highest academic qualification		33 years and less		34 to 40 years		41 to 50 years		51 years and more		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Std 6	N							2	5,0	2	1,2
	%							100,0		100	
Std 7	N	1	2,4					1	2,5	2	1,2
	%	50,0						50,0		100	
Std 8	N	2	4,9	4	9,1	7	16,7	11	27,5	24	14,4
	%	8,3		16,7		29,2		45,8		100	
Std 9	N			4	9,1	1	2,4	5	12,5	10	6,0
	%			40,0		10,0		50,0		100	
Std 10	N	19	46,3	16	36,4	19	45,2	13	32,5	67	40,1
	%	28,4		23,9		28,4		19,4		100	
Teaching Diploma	N	8	19,5	8	18,2	3	7,1	2	5,0	21	12,6
	%	38,1		38,1		14,3		9,5		100	
Other Diploma	N	1	2,4	6	13,6	3	7,1	3	7,5	13	7,8
	%	7,7		46,2		23,1		23,1		100	
B. Degree	N	6	14,6	3	6,8	5	11,9	3	7,5	17	10,2
	%	35,3		17,6		29,4		17,6		100	
Hons. Degree	N	1	2,4							1	0,6
	%	100,0								100	
B. Degree and diploma	N	2	4,9	2	4,5	4	9,5			8	4,8
	%	25,0		25,0		50,0				100	
M. Degree	N	1	2,4							1	0,6
	%	100,0								100	
D. Degree	N			1	2,3					1	0,6
	%			100,0						100	
TOTAL	N	41	100	44	100	42	100	40	100	167	100
	%	24,6		26,3		25,1		24,0		100	

for n Power and its expression. The proportion of matriculated women (40 %) in the sample is higher than that of the white female population, according to the 1980 South African census, when 29 % of women over the age of 20 years had attained matriculation. It therefore seems as if the less educated respondents were more likely to refuse to participate.

The respondents were divided into three groups on the basis of education:

- . Those who had not matriculated (N=38; 23 % of the sample);
- . those who had passed matriculation (N=67; 40 % of the sample);
- . those who had attained tertiary degrees and diplomas (N=62; 37 % of the sample).

(b) Other training

Almost half (49 %) of the respondents had received some form of typing, secretarial or office training. A few others (7 %) had received training in diverse fields such as hairdressing, beauty-culture and the teaching of drama, ballet or other performing arts and 5 % had obtained a nursing qualification (this percentage is in addition to those with degrees in nursing).

5.3.3 Working patterns

(a) Working and non-working women

The majority of respondents (N=99; 59 %) were engaged in paid work at the time of the study. Of these 99 working

women, 69 % were engaged in paid work outside the home, 18 % were receiving payment for work done at home, 3 % were engaged in work done both at home and outside the home and a further 10 % were receiving payment for occasional selling or the promotion of products or from involvement in their husbands' businesses.

Sixty-eight women (41 %) were not engaged in paid work at the time of the study, 63 respondents described themselves as full-time housewives and five were helping their husbands at work but were not remunerated for this help. These five women were regarded as being unemployed for the purpose of this project.

(b) Occupations

The occupations of the working women are given in Table 5.3. The majority of women worked in clerical, typing, secretarial, teaching and nursing occupations which are traditionally associated with work done by women. There were very few role innovators at work among women. Occupation was not used as a means of classification of respondents, because of this traditional pattern.

(c) Time spent on work activities

The women who engaged in paid work were divided into five groups according to the average number of hours per week spent on work activities.

On average

- . 23 respondents spent 10 hours or less
- . 26 respondents spent between 11 and 20 hours
- . 26 respondents spent between 21 and 30 hours

TABLE 5.3

OCCUPATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

Occupation	N	%
Artist	1	1,0
Clerk	14	14,1
Typist	18	18,2
Private secretary	6	6,1
Interviewer, market researcher	6	6,1
Medical doctor	1	1,0
Teacher	10	10,1
Lecturer	2	2,0
Psychologist	1	1,0
Paramedical occupation	2	2,0
Selling occupation	13	13,1
Beauty services	4	4,0
Semi-skilled manual worker	1	1,0
Florist, dressmaker, knitter, landscape gardener (craftwork)	11	11,1
Manager	2	2,0
Nurse	2	2,0
Counselling related work	2	2,0
Architect	1	1,0
Radio broadcaster and TV presenter	2	2,0
TOTAL	99	100

- . 14 respondents spent between 31 and 40 hours
- . 10 respondents spent 41 hours or more

per week on paid work activities.

Figure 5.1 a block chart showing the average of number of hours per week on average, spent on paid work activities according to age and educational level, indicates the following:

In the youngest age group, the more educated respondents were less likely to engage in paid work activities, probably to spend more time on childrearing activities. With each successive increase in age group, the more education a respondent had received, the more time she spent on work activities. There was also a general increase in time spent at work with increase of age across all educational levels. After the age of 51 years however, there was a sharp decrease in participation in paid work activities. This applied particularly to the less educated respondents, where amongst the oldest age group a large group who had not matriculated were not working.

Figure 5.1, also indicates that 75 % of the working respondents spent 30 hours or less on average per week at work. Relatively little of the respondent's time was therefore spent on participation in the work-force. Nevertheless, work was an important aspect of their lives as only ten of these respondents said they would rather be full-time housewives than engage in paid work.

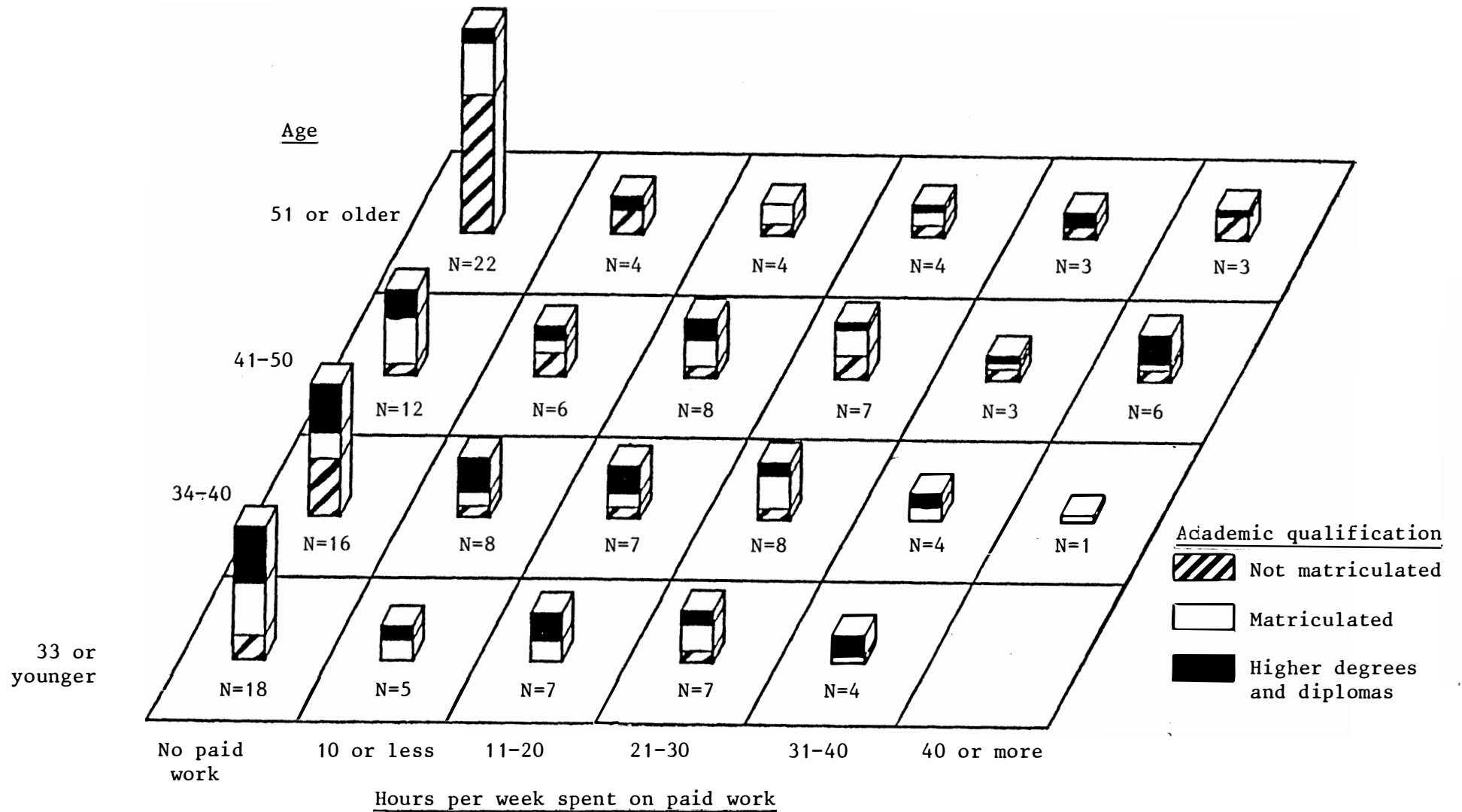
(d) The non-working women

Of the 68 women who were not engaged in paid work at the time of the study, 38 preferred to be full-time house-

FIGURE 5.1

THE AGE GROUP AND ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT ON WORK ACTIVITIES

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wives, while 30 would have preferred paid work. In general the women did not work for reasons connected with the role of mother, which some women perceived as being incompatible with a working role. Forty-one women planned to return to work at some time in the future when family demands were less pressing. The number and ages of the respondents' children may have influenced the type of power goals available to the respondents. The family structure is discussed below.

5.3.4 The respondents' children

Table 5.4 indicates the number of children of respondents according to the amount of time spent on paid work activities. This table is read as follows using preschool children as an example:

Forty of the 67 women who did not work (60 %) did not have any preschool children; 20 of the 67 women who did not work (30 %) had one preschool child and seven (10 %) had two preschool children. Of the 23 women who worked an average of 10 hours or less per week; 13 (57 %) had no preschool children, eight (35 %) had one preschool child and two (9 %) had two preschool children, and so on.

This table indicates that, in general, the number of children, but not the age group the children, influenced whether or not the respondents engaged in paid work. Women with more than two children were less likely to work than those with two or fewer children. Larger families may therefore affect whether or not opportunities outside the home exist for women to seek power goals. Women with preschool children however spent less time on work activities than those with older children.

TABLE 5.4 AGE CATEGORIES OF RESPONDENTS' CHILDREN ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT ON WORK ACTIVITIES BY RESPONDENTS

Number of respondents who have:	Number of hours per week spent on work activities													
	No paid work		10 hours per week or less		11 to 20 hours per week		21 to 30 hours per week		31 to 40 hours per week		41 hours per week		Total or more	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Preschool children														
0	40	60	13	57	15	60	19	73	9	69	10	100	106	65
1	20	30	8	35	9	36	5	19	3	23			45	27
2	7	10	2	9	1	4	2	8	1	8			13	8
Subtotal	67	100	23	100	25	100	26	100	13	100	10	100	164	100
Primary school children														
0	44	66	10	44	13	52	11	42	7	54	8	80	93	57
1	18	27	7	30	7	28	10	39	2	15	2	20	46	28
2	5	7	6	26	5	20	5	19	4	31			25	15
Subtotal	67	100	23	100	25	100	26	100	13	100	10	100	164	100
High school children														
0	49	73	13	59	18	69	14	54	10	77	6	60	110	67
1	12	18	7	32	7	27	10	39	3	23	2	20	41	25
2	6	9	2	9			1	4			2	20	11	7
3					1	4	1	4					2	1
Subtotal	67	100	22	100	26	100	26	100	13	100	10	100	164	100
Children who have left school but are financially dependent														
0	50	75	19	86	18	69	23	89	9	69	5	50	124	76
1	12	18	1	5	6	23	3	12	3	23	3	30	28	17
2	5	7	2	9	2	8					2	20	11	7
3									1	8			1	
Subtotal	67	100	22	100	26	100	26	100	13	100	10	100	164	100
Children - financially independent														
0	43	64	16	73	19	76	19	73	10	77	4	40	111	68
1	5	8	2	9	3	12	1	4	2	15	3	30	16	9
2	13	19	2	9	1	4	4	15	1	8	2	20	23	7
3	5	8	1	5	1	4	2	8			1	20	10	14
4	1	2			1	4							2	6
5														1
6														
7			1	5									1	
Subtotal	67	100	22	100	25	100	26	100	13	100	10	100	164	100
Total number of children														
1	10	15	1	5	6	23	2	8	3	23			22	13
2	31	46	11	48	10	39	15	58	6	46	7	70	80	49
3	22	33	8	35	6	23	7	27	3	23	1	10	47	29
4	2	3	1	4	4	15	1	4	1	8	2	20	11	7
5	1	2	1	4			1	4					3	2
6														
7	1	2	1	4									2	1
Subtotal	67	100	23	100	26	100	26	100	13	100	10	100	164	100

It therefore appears from Figure 5.1 and Table 5.4 that only the graduate women are likely to stop working altogether when their children are of preschool age. The other women may reduce the time spent on work activities when their children are of preschool age.

CHAPTER 6

POWER AND PERSONALITY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As expected, the relationships found between the need for power and behaviour patterns as well as other aspects of personality were indirect and complex. The need for power did not relate to an assertive group of personality traits or behaviour patterns. Instead it was associated with femininity as a personality trait and with helping behaviour. Vicariousness and identification with family members, rather than direct assertiveness were the preferred modes of expressing a need for power among respondents. This method of handling power was also apparent in fantasy in that many stories which could be scored for n Power contained vicariousness and helping imagery. There was thus a carry-over of ways of obtaining and maintaining power in fantasy to real life situations. Helping others was found in both fantasy as well as being the preferred method of feeling strong and powerful. This choice of behaviour is in keeping with McClelland's (1975) description of the life-style of power-motivated women. He contended that women's behaviour is shaped by role expectations. Their role has traditionally been to manage social and emotional resources in the family. The goal of the power motive, namely to feel strong, is attained by sharing resources.

The need for power was not related to self-esteem, assertiveness, sex-role transcendence or an egalitarian role orientation. Instead, a high need for power was associated with femininity. Sex-role expectations may have influenced the respondents to believe that feminine traits

lead to the attainment of desired power goals rather than direct assertiveness.

On the other hand, assertive respondents were more likely to be internally controlled. They had a higher self-esteem and were able to use masculine traits to gain desired goals. Respondents who felt powerless obtained lower scores on self-esteem, assertiveness and masculinity, indicating that the traditional roles of women may be associated with feeling powerless.

The idea that fear of assertiveness is a motive which develops in relation to negative experiences when attempting to gain or maintain power was shown to be viable, as this motive related to a dependency pattern of behaviour. These results are discussed in the following sections.

6.2 THE NEED FOR POWER

6.2.1 Scoring power imagery

An example of a story containing power imagery and sub-categories and one in which power imagery is absent is given below to illustrate how a need for power is expressed in fantasy. In these stories, grammar, spelling and punctuation have not been corrected. These stories are taken from responses to Picture 4, the woman seated behind a desk and the man standing.

(a) Story containing power imagery

"The office situation: secretary has been with the company for 20 years and young man is now in the company and full of innovative ideas. Secretary has produced her work in the usual way and the young man is pointing out

that he does not like her methods (Power Imagery - strong powerful actions) and trying to point out more efficient ways (I)*. Secretary is thinking man is a young upstart (Pa⁻). Man is thinking that he will have to get rid of her as soon as possible (BW). The secretary will overstep the mark and give him an excuse to fire her (Eff)."

(b) Story in which there is no power imagery

"Problem being discussed. Business associates. Queries or production problems. They are wanting to know what to do about it. How do we solve this? Can we improve the figures? Better planning is wanted by both people. Talk to the people concerned with the problem or production. New ideas experimented with to find improvement."

6.2.2 Total n Power scores

In past research, scores obtained on all four pictures have been added together to obtain a total n Power score. This score is then used as part of a continuous scale. (Winter 1973; McClelland 1975). In this project the n Power score was used in two ways. Firstly, it was used as a continuous scale and secondly, it was used as a means of classifying the respondents into four groups according to quartiles. This division was done for the sake of correspondence analyses discussed later. The group scoring at or below the 25th percentile contained

*Key for subcategories: Pa⁺ and Pa⁻ = positive and negative prestige of the actor; N = stated need for a power goal; BW = block in the world; Ga⁺ and Ga⁻ = positive and negative power goal anticipation; G⁺ and G⁻ = positive and negative power goal states; Eff = strong response to a power goal.

those who had obtained a score of zero, as well as some respondents who had obtained a score of one or two. Table 6.1 indicates that there is no difference between those who scored zero and those who obtained low scores on n Power with regard to behaviour. A zero score on n Power does not mean that the respondent does not have a need for power, but rather that this need is relatively low in the individual's hierarchy of needs. A low score also indicates the possibility that a need for power is relatively low in the hierarchy of needs.

6.2.3 n Power, Personality and Behaviour

Scores obtained on all the variables relating to personality, as well as the n Power and fear of assertiveness scores, were used in a Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation (for details of this technique, see Du Toit, et al. 1979). A scree plot of eigenvalues (not given here) indicated that the eight factors extracted were sufficient and explained 61 % of the variance. The five clusters of personality and behaviour variables found in the pilot study were too few to explain the variance in the main study sufficiently; instead, eight were needed. Only those variables with a factor loading higher than 0,20 are indicated in the discussion below. The relevant variables for each factor are the following:

(a) Factor 1: Belonging to organizations

Variable	Factor loading
Joining organizations	0,94
Doing voluntary work for organizations	0,79
Enjoying being part of an organization	0,75
Holding office in an organization	0,61

TABLE 6.1 COMPARISON OF SCORES ON BEHAVIOURAL MEASURES AMONG RESPONDENTS WHO OBTAINED A SCORE OF ZERO ON N POWER AND THOSE WHO OBTAINED LOW N POWER SCORES (2 or less)

Behaviour patterns		Mean	SD	F ^a	p<	df	t	p<
Status	No <u>n</u> Power	19,37	4,25	0,49	0,48 ns	41	-0,68	0,60 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	20,31	3,95					
Happy marriage	No <u>n</u> Power	28,69	5,59	0,57	0,45 ns	41	0,53	0,59 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	27,69	5,93					
Joining organizations	No <u>n</u> Power	3,71	2,68	3,00	0,09 ns	41	1,48	0,15 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	2,21	1,07					
Busy with husband and children	No <u>n</u> Power	6,10	2,26	0,04	0,83 ns	41	0,24	0,81 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	5,92	2,02					
Vicariousness	No <u>n</u> Power	20,23	5,19	7,29	0,01*	39,1	1,65	0,11 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	18,46	1,66					
Helping	No <u>n</u> Power	15,83	2,58	0,76	0,38 ns	41	1,65	0,11 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	14,31	3,22					
Gambling	No <u>n</u> Power	7,63	3,22	0,17	0,68 ns	41	-0,69	0,49 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	8,38	3,45					
Alcohol	No <u>n</u> Power	5,40	2,37	0,38	0,53 ns	41	-1,45	0,15 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	6,54	2,33					
Dependency	No <u>n</u> Power	4,77	5,55	0,35	0,55	4	-0,94	0,35 ns
	Low <u>n</u> Power	5,54	2,43					

Overall Difference: Hotelling $T^2 = 9,65$ $df = 9$ $p < 0,60$

^a If F is significant, the separate variance estimate t value is used; if F is not significant, the pooled variance estimate t value is used.

* Significant difference.

Weighted variance explained = 13,3 %.

McClelland (1975) related this behaviour pattern to Stage Four power motive development. In this project, n Power scores obtained a low loading on this factor, indicating that the need for power is not an essential motive for belonging to organizations.

(b) Factor 2: Happy marriage

Variable	Factor loading
Overcoming difficulties together	0,85
Solving problems together	0,81
Companionship	0,79
Emotional support	0,78
Communication	0,75
Shared interests	0,54
Good sexual relationship	0,46

Weighted variance explained = 11,8 %.

This factor, a happy marriage, formed a logically coherent pattern, which Winter (1981) said was related to n Power among women, but not among men, where the opposite was true. In this study, however, n Power had a low loading on this factor, indicating that a need for power was not essential for respondents for a happy marriage.

(c) Factor 3: Gambling

Variable	Factor loading
Casino gambling	0,92
One-armed bandits	0,74
Card gambling	0,44

Horse racing	0,37
Making bets	0,27

Weighted variance explained = 8,9 %.

This factor brought together all the gambling questions, but the n Power score had a low loading here. McClelland said gambling was indicative of Stage Three power-motive development.

(d) Factor 4: Helping others

Variable	Factor loading
Helping people in times of trouble	0,86
Giving people advice	0,78
Accepting confidences of friends	0,68
Laughing at one's mistakes	0,35
Femininity	0,33
Need for power	0,23

Weighted variance explained = 7,3 %.

This factor is indicative, according to McClelland, of both Stage Three and Stage Four power motive development. The individual who helps others feels stronger than those requiring the help. The weakness of the person receiving the help in relation to the helper is the determining aspect by means of which McClelland classified this behaviour as Stage Three. His description of the power motive in relation to helping behaviour in Indian society (McClelland 1975) which implies a superior-subordinate orientation is relevant here. Indian society uses helping behaviour to maintain the status quo. However, among women, McClelland found that helping others is typical of Stage Four power-motive development, implying leadership

qualities. McClelland described the power of giving as a typically feminine manifestation of the need for power. The loading of n Power on this factor, although relatively low, was the highest loading obtained. Among respondents a need for power was most likely to be expressed through helping behaviour. The loading of femininity on to this factor indicates that respondents tended to seek power through traditionally feminine roles, rather than through direct assertiveness.

This loading of power on helping behaviour and femininity is relevant regarding women's interests. While boys and girls obtain essentially similar scores on abilities on the Senior Aptitude Test in South Africa, their scores differ on the 19 Field Interest Inventory (Roos 1975). One of the main differences concerns scores on rendering a service, where girls consistently obtain higher scores on these items than boys. This reflects the feminine preference for expressing a need for power through helping others.

(e) Factor 5: Powerlessness

Variable	Factor loading
Powerful others	0,81
Chance	0,77
Being very busy with husband's needs	0,43
Being very busy with children's needs	0,37
Being involved in husband's work	0,33
Self-esteem	0,39

Weighted variance explained = 6,8 %.

The Powerful Others and Chance Scales of Levenson's measure (powerlessness) were part of behaviour patterns where

one's life is dominated by other people and self-esteem is low. The woman who feels powerless does not believe that her behaviour will have the desired consequences, so she leans on powerful others to feel strong.

(f) Factor 6: Vicariousness

Variable	Factor loading
Being more ambitious for one's children than for oneself	0,81
Enjoying children's achievements more than one's own	0,68
Enjoying husband's achievements more than one's own	0,54
Involvement in children's interests more than one's own	0,38
Involvement in husband's interests more than one's own	0,32
Being more ambitious for one's husband than for oneself	0,30
Internal control	-0,33
Drinking alcohol frequently	-0,44
Drinking alcohol often	-0,46

Weighted variance = 4,7 %.

This factor is indicative, according to McClelland, of Stage One power motive development. The negative loading of internal control on this factor indicates that, among the respondents, the less the internal control, the more likely they were to live vicariously through others. The negative loading of the measures of alcohol consumption on this factor indicates that living vicariously or drinking heavily are alternative life-styles. Respondents who live vicariously through their families are less

likely to be heavy drinkers. A need for power was not an essential aspect of vicariousness.

(g) Factor 7: Status symbols

Variable	Factor loading
Owning status furniture	0,58
Owning a status home	0,54
Owning status jewellery	0,45
Living in a status suburb	0,43
Owning status clothes	0,40
Thinking that appearance is important	0,40
Husband engaged in high status work	0,40
Owning a status car	0,39
Respondent thinks her work is of high status	0,24

Weighted variance explained = 4,0 %.

This factor should be related to McClelland's Stage Two power-motive development. n Power obtained a low loading here indicating that it is not an essential aspect of acquiring status symbols.

(h) Factor 8: Assertiveness

Variable	Factor loading
Rathus's Assertiveness Inventory	0,63
Masculinity	0,59
Extraversion	0,49
Thinking that status and prestige are important	0,33
Dieting	0,28

Fear of assertiveness	-0,25
Reluctance to make decisions without husband	-0,43
Reluctance to spend money without husband's consent	-0,47

Weighted variance explained = 3,8 %.

This is an interesting cluster. Personality traits associated with assertiveness are those of extraversion and masculinity. This is in keeping with Bem's (1974) theory that women need to accept masculine stereotyped traits in to their personalities in order to act assertively. One also needs an extraverted, outgoing approach to act assertively. The motive to fear assertiveness obtained a negative loading on this factor, although the loading was relatively low. Fear of assertiveness as a motive therefore relates negatively to direct assertiveness, masculinity and extraversion. A motive to fear assertiveness prevents the transcendence of sex-roles and the acceptance of masculine traits as part of a woman's personality. It may also prevent the development of extraversion and direct assertiveness. Behaviour patterns indicative of dependency on one's husband also loaded negatively on this factor, indicating that fear of assertiveness is related to dependency. But the more assertive, masculine and extravert the respondent, the less likely she was to rely on her husband for decision making.

The need for power had a negligible loading on all factors except Factor 4, namely helping others. Even here, the loading was low. n Power was therefore only weakly related to behaviour. Among the respondents, fantasy was not directly related to, but substituted for behaviour. Skolnick (1966a & b) also found that fantasy substituted for actual power-motivated behaviour among her sample of

women, but this does not apply to men. Among men there is a direct relation between n Power and assertiveness, leadership, impulsiveness and other power behaviour patterns. Fear of assertiveness also had a negligible influence on all factors, except Factor 8, namely assertiveness. Again, this negative loading was low indicating that the relationships between fantasy and behaviour are indirect and complex.

Nevertheless the need for power was most likely to be related to helping behaviour, fear of assertiveness and to dependency; and fear of assertiveness was negatively related to direct assertiveness.

Perhaps the relatively weak relation found between n Power, fear of assertiveness and the other variables may be explained in terms of the difficulty of verifying the findings of operant measures for example, telling stories to pictures by using respondent instruments such as rating scales. Operant measures are used to reveal stronger and less socially accepted aspects of personality (Combs 1973) whereas respondent measures are more concerned with values (McClelland 1981). In spite of these problems, the findings do give support to McClelland's view of how a need for power is expressed in women, namely by helping through sharing resources. They also support the author's view that fear of assertiveness is a motive, which develops in relation to direct assertiveness, in such a way that negative consequences make some women fear assertiveness. This motive is related to dependency and avoidance of assertive situations, as is evident in the factor analysis. The stages of development outlined by McClelland were supported here, because they are in agreement to a large extent, with the factors found here.

Factor analysis is based on a correlation matrix. It can only give an indication of relationships that are linear in nature. The associations between the various behaviour measurements and n Power are not necessarily linear. Before one can decide that n Power has almost no connection with behaviour, possible non-linear relationships should be investigated.

6.2.4 n Power and Behaviour

Further consideration was given to the association between n Power and behaviour by means of correspondence analysis, an exploratory statistical technique of simultaneously representing the rows and columns of a two-way classification table, in this case n Power categories and behaviour clusters, in graphic form (Du Toit, Steyn and Stumpf 1984).

The scores obtained on each factor regarding the behaviour questions were combined by adding them together to obtain a single score indicative of each behaviour pattern for each respondent. The variables that loaded negatively on a factor were separated from those that loaded positively. Thus scores on nine behaviour patterns were obtained, namely behaviour associated with a happy marriage, alcohol consumption, helping others, vicarious identification with husband and children, acquiring status possessions, being so busy with husband's and children's needs that there is no time for oneself, dependency on one's husband, participating in organizations and gambling. The mean scores obtained for each of these behaviour patterns together with the four categories of n Power, namely low (first quartile), some (second quartile), moderate (third quartile) and high (fourth quartile) were used in a series of correspondence analyses, firstly for the total group, then for working and non-

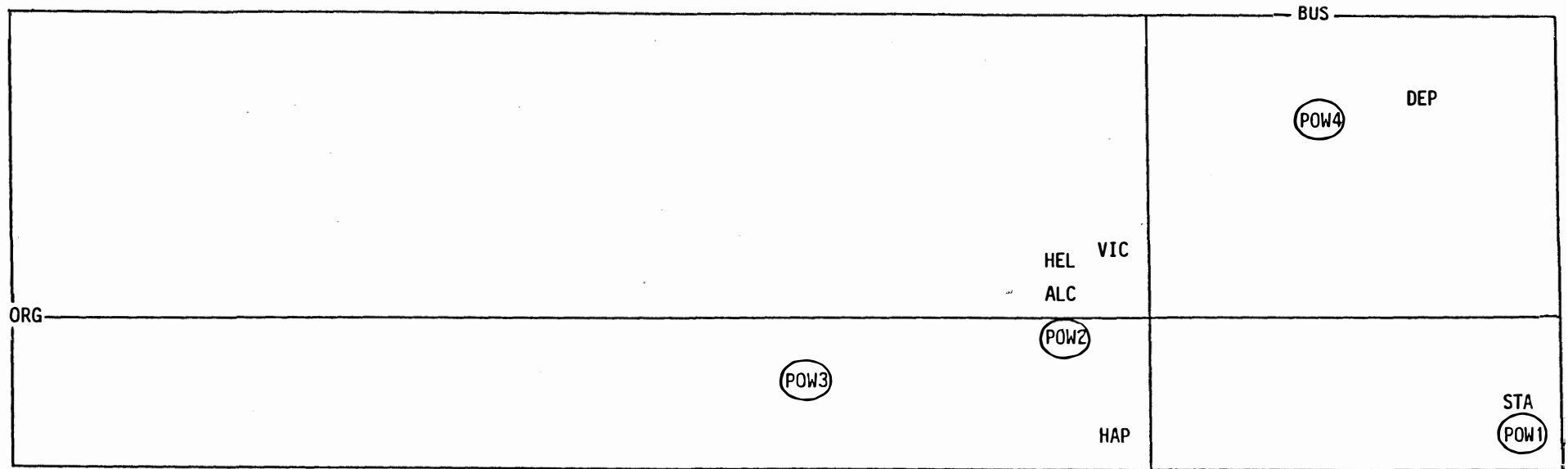
working respondents, for the various age groups and educational levels respectively.

(a) The total group

The correspondence analysis depicting the associations between the four categories of n Power and behaviour patterns indicated that n Power did indeed have a bearing on behaviour patterns. In Figure 6.1, where 81 % of the variance is explained in two dimensions of the graph, the representation of "gambling" was of a poor quality and was therefore excluded, the following emerged: (The term quality is used to describe the accuracy and reliability that may be attributed to the position of each variable on the graph; Du Toit et al. 1984.)

There was a close association between low n Power and concern with status symbols. Some and moderate n Power scores were associated with alcohol consumption, vicarious identification with husband and children, helping behaviour and a happy marriage. Therefore n Power scorers between the 25th and 75th percentile were able to use diverse behaviour patterns to obtain power goals. High n Power was associated with dependency on the husband and being so busy with the needs of husbands and children that there was no time for oneself. This indicates that a high need for power is associated with some feelings of powerlessness. Respondents who had a high need for power may have experienced frustration in the past when trying to gain power directly; they therefore used the behaviour patterns of dependency and living through others to gain power.

FIGURE 6.1
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND STRENGTH OF n POWER



-105-

Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP depending on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

Strength of n power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

The correspondence analyses of n Power and behaviour of working and non-working respondents, of respondents in various age groups and those of different educational backgrounds indicates how these biographical variables influenced n Power and its expression. These graphs are indicated in Appendix 5.

(b) Working and non-working respondents

Regarding respondents who engaged in paid work, and those who did not, it appears as if paid work offers more ways of expressing n Power than does a domestic role. Among working women, high n Power was associated with a diverse group of behaviour patterns including gambling, vicariousness and helping as well as being very busy with one's husband's and children's needs, a happy marriage and concern with status and prestige symbols. The non-working woman who obtained high scores on n Power had far fewer ways of expressing it. Dependency and being involved with one's husband's and children's needs were most closely associated with high n Power among non-working women.

(c) Age groups

The correspondence analyses regarding age groups given in Appendix 5 indicate the following:

A high n Power score among respondents aged 33 years or younger was associated with a happy marriage and helping behaviour. Thus the need for power found expression in ways directly related to the life circumstances of this group. Building a happy marriage was an important goal for the highly power motivated woman with preschool children because at this stage she may have a direct impact on the environment through her family. Helping others is

also a way of having an impact when domestic roles are important.

Among the 34 to 40 year old respondents a high n Power was associated with vicarious identification with husband and children, and less closely, with dependency and a happy marriage. At this stage, when the husband may be attaining greater success at work, and the children are entering the competitive environment of school, gaining power by living vicariously through the recognition given to one's husband and children for their achievements becomes feasible. Veroff and Feld (1970) discussed the covert power that women gained through their husbands and children. This covert power is evident in the way it influences the husband and children in their success.

Among the 41 to 50 year olds, the pattern of association between n Power and behaviour changed again. High n Power was less closely associated with vicarious identification and being involved in the needs of one's husband and children, although the association was still present. These women whose husbands may have reached a plateau at work as far as promotion opportunities are concerned and whose children were entering high school and becoming less dependent on the home, were offered fewer opportunities to gain power gratification vicariously, although this mode was still available. In chapter five, it was indicated that this group of respondents aged 41 to 50 years spent more time on paid work activities than the other groups. Work, rather than home roles may have offered power motive goals at this stage. Among those aged 51 years or older, a new pattern again emerged. Vicariousness was associated with moderate rather than high n Power. Gambling including playing card games and being involved in the needs of husband and children were associated with high n Power at this stage.

The children have moved or are moving out of the home and the husband may be preparing for or facing retirement. Vicariousness is no longer as accessible as a means of expressing a high need for power as it was previously.

(d) Level of education

The amount of education which the respondent had received influenced the association between the strength of n Power and behaviour patterns as shown in Appendix 5.

Among the non-matriculants a high need for power was associated with dependency and a happy marriage. Among matriculants a high need for power was associated with helping others and being very busy satisfying the needs of one's husband and children, while those scoring between the 25th and 75th percentiles on n Power used a happy marriage, vicariousness, alcohol consumption and gambling to gain power goals. Among respondents who had completed tertiary education the associations between n Power and behaviour patterns were relatively weak. This may be because they used the work situation, rather than domestic roles to attain power goals. High n Power for this group was most closely associated with being absorbed in one's husband's and children's needs.

(e) Conclusions

Statistical inferences cannot be made when using correspondence analysis, because patterns of association, rather than significant relationships are found. The patterns found here are consistent with power-motive theory. The various behaviour patterns which McClelland (1975) said were an indication of power-motive development were found to be associated with different strengths of n Power, depending on the life situation of the indi-

vidual. Biographical variables influenced the way in which a need for power was expressed. The effects of personality on the need for power and its expression also needed to be taken into account. These effects are discussed in the following section.

6.2.5 n Power and personality

The relation between n Power and other personality variables was not direct and linear as indicated in Table 6.2, and by means of Pearson correlations, no significant relations, either positive or negative, were found between n Power and the other measured aspects of personality. However, possible non-linear associations between the strength of n Power and these personality variables were further explored in a correspondence analysis, as illustrated in Figure 6.2. A high n Power score was associated with femininity and internal control, moderate n Power was associated with assertiveness, the presence of some n Power was associated with being controlled by powerful others and low n Power with self-esteem, extraversion and masculinity. Thus an interesting pattern emerged supporting the theory on which this research project is based.

It appears as if highly power-motivated respondents gained power goals through stereotyped feminine actions rather than through direct assertiveness. This confirms the previous finding in the factor analysis, namely that n Power and femininity are part of the same factor. The use of feminine traits to gain power goals was associated with being internally controlled, because the woman who is internally controlled may have learned that power goals are best attained through traditional roles. The most socially acceptable mode of gaining power for women is through traditionally feminine behaviour patterns.

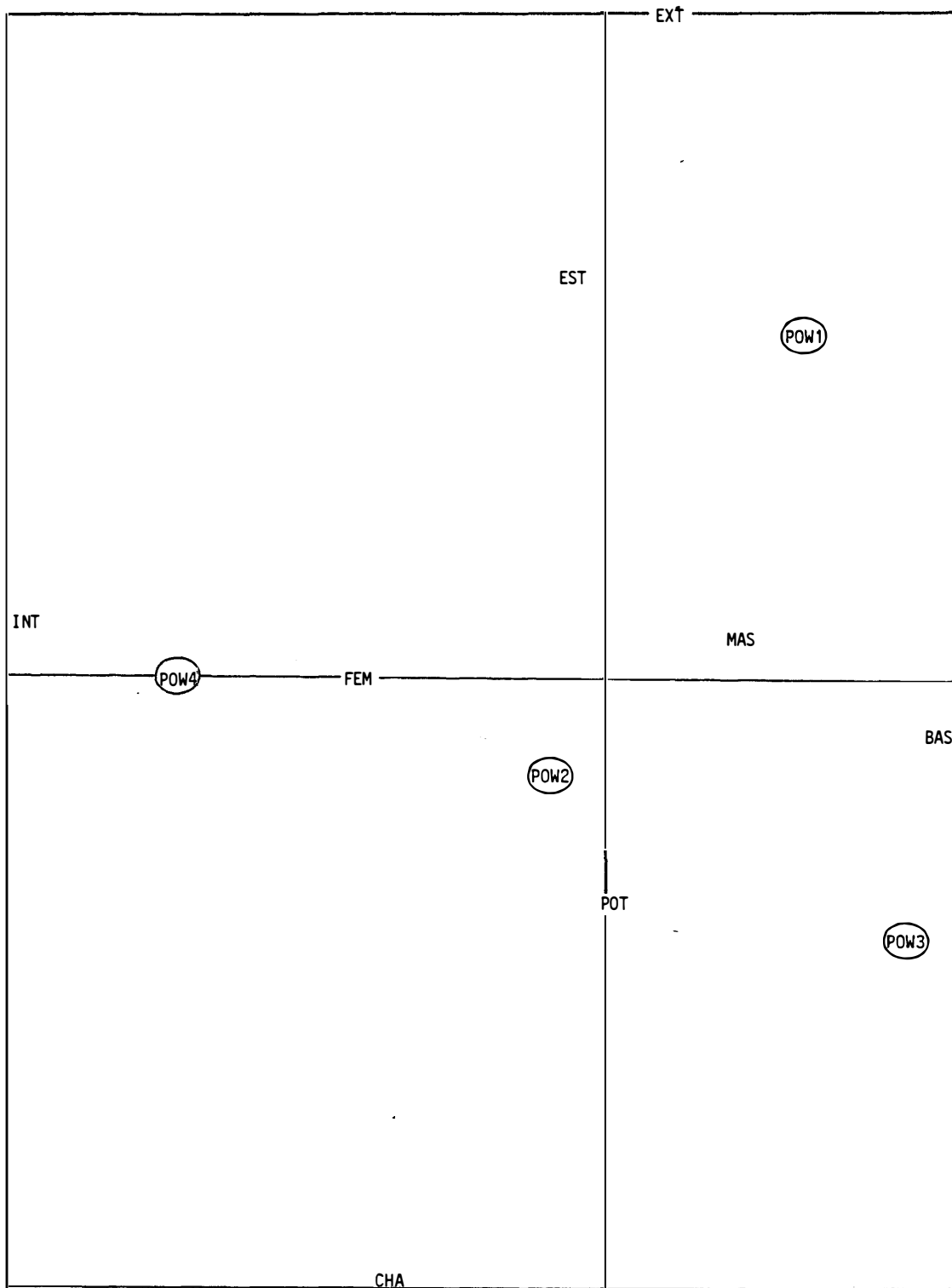
TABLE 6.2

CORRELATION MATRIX OF PERSONALITY VARIABLES OF ALL RESPONDENTS

	Need for power	Self-esteem	Behavioural assertiveness	Masculinity	Femininity	Internal control	Powerful others	Chance	Extraversion	Orientation towards women's roles
Need for power										
Self-esteem										
Behavioural assertiveness		0,36**								
Masculinity		0,37**	0,62**							
Femininity										
Internal control			0,21**	0,39**						
Powerful others		-0,39**	-0,25**	-0,21**						
Chance		-0,35**	-0,25**	-0,25**			0,75**			
Extraversion		0,20*	0,47**	0,33**						
Orientation towards women's roles			0,23*	0,30**		0,18*	-0,23**			

** $p < 0,01$ * $p < 0,05$

FIGURE 6.2
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF PERSONALITY VARIABLES AND NEED FOR POWER



Personality variables

- BAS behavioural assertiveness (Rathus)
- CHA chance (Levenson)
- EST self esteem
- EXT extraversion
- FEM femininity (Bern)
- INT internality (Levenson)
- MAS masculinity (Bern)
- POT powerful others (Levenson)

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

Moderate n Power scorers were able to gain power goals through direct assertiveness, perhaps, because high rather than moderate n Power scorers were more likely to develop a motive to fear assertiveness, as will be discussed later.

The association between self-esteem and low n Power may indicate that high n Power is dysfunctional for women, regarding the development of self-esteem. These two aspects of personality develop simultaneously, at the time when the child, aged two or slightly older, is directly asserting herself on the environment, while at the same time she is seeking close relationships with her caretakers (Veroff and Veroff 1980) and is developing a sense of self. If submissiveness, rather than assertiveness is encouraged in girls, then self-esteem develops at the expense of the need for power. Interactions enhancing the self-esteem of young girls within the family may inhibit power-motive development.

6.2.6 Personality variables and their relationships with one another

Table 6.2 indicates that assertiveness, masculinity, self-esteem, extraversion and internal control were all correlated with each other. The same pattern was found in the pilot study. In other words, women with a high self-esteem, who were internally controlled and had incorporated stereotypically masculine traits into their personalities were more likely to be assertive.

On the other hand, the Powerful Others and Chance Scales were highly correlated with one another and were negatively correlated with self-esteem, masculinity and behavioural assertiveness scores. This pattern is also similar to that found in the pilot study. Respondents

who felt powerless were likely to have a lower self-esteem, to be less assertive and to have incorporated fewer masculine traits in to their personalities than those who felt internally controlled.

Table 6.2 also indicates that the more a respondent believed that men's and women's roles should be equal, the more assertive, "masculine" and internally controlled she was likely to be. From the above findings, it would appear that among women, the possession of high self-esteem, masculinity and extraversion as personality traits, as well as the belief that one has control over one's own life encourage assertiveness. The need for power, however is less directly associated with assertiveness than the above-mentioned personality traits, perhaps because a high need for power makes one aware of the possibility of failure to attain power goals through direct assertiveness. Fear of rejection may lead women to seek power-motive gratification through fantasy rather than through direct activity, through vicariousness and dependency rather than through direct experience. Working patterns, age and educational level may influence the individual's personality. These biographical variables had the following effects:

(a) Overall effect of biographical variables on personality

An analysis of variance and a Duncan Multiple Range Test were done to find out how working patterns, age and education influenced personality. The analysis of variance indicated that biographical variables had a relatively small influence on personality, because personality once formed, remains relatively stable. Nevertheless, some effects were apparent. Level of education, age and num-

ber of hours worked all had an influence on some aspects of personality as discussed below.

(b) Number of hours of paid work

Table 6.3 indicates that women who did not work had a lower self-esteem score than those who worked. As the self-esteem scores increased, more hours per week were spent at work (except among those working for 41 or more hours per week on average whose self-esteem was relatively low). Paid work, provided that it did not take up too much time, contributed towards higher self-esteem. Paid work also contributed towards instilling an egalitarian orientation towards women's roles. Table 6.3 also indicates that in general the more traditional the respondent, the less time she spent on paid work activities. Regarding internal control, in general, the more hours one worked the higher the internal control scores of respondents.

(c) Age groups

Table 6.3 indicates that n Power scores are highest among respondents aged 41 to 50 years, perhaps because at this stage the opportunity to seek power goals outside the home becomes more available, and the need for power becomes more salient.

(d) Educational groups

Table 6.3 indicates that non-matriculated respondents were more likely to feel powerless than those who had matriculated or who had attained higher degrees and diplomas. Respondents with a tertiary education were more assertive than the other women.

TABLE 6.3 SUMMARY OF THE EFFECTS OF AGE, EDUCATION AND NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK IN PAID WORK ON PERSONALITY

(a)	Number of hours per week in paid work	\bar{X}	Self-esteem Duncan's Ranking	
	31 - 40 hours	3,0	1(a)	
	11 - 20 hours	2,7	1	2
	10 hours or less	2,4	1	2
	21 - 30 hours	2,3	1	2
	41 or more hours	2,3	1	2
	No paid work	2,2		2

(b)	Number of hours per week in paid work	\bar{X}	Orientation towards women's roles Duncan's Ranking	
	10 hours or less	2,7 (Traditional)	1	
	11 - 20 hours	2,5	1	2
	No paid work	2,4	1	2
	21 - 30 hours	2,2	1	2
	41 hours or more	2,0		2
	31 - 40 hours	1,8 (Egalitarian)		2

(c)	Number of hours per week in paid work	\bar{X}	Internal control Duncan's Ranking	
	41 hours or more	3,6	1	
	31 - 40 hours	3,4	1	
	11 - 20 hours	3,4	1	
	21 - 30 hours	3,3	1	
	No paid work	3,2	1	2
	10 hours or less	2,8		2

(d)	Age group of respondents	\bar{X}	Need for power Duncan's Ranking	
	41 - 50 years	2,8	1	
	33 years and younger	2,4	1	2
	34 - 40 years	2,4		2
	51 years and older	2,1		2

(e)	Education level of respondents	Assertiveness	
		\bar{X}	Duncan's Ranking
	Degrees and diplomas	2,7	1
	Matriculation	2,5	1 2(a)
	No matriculation	2,2	2

(f)	Educational level of respondents	Powerlessness	
		\bar{X}	Duncan's Ranking
	No matriculation	2,7	1
	Matriculation	2,5	1
	Degrees and diplomas	1,7	2

- (a) The symbols 1 and 2 represent groupings of variables that differ significantly from each other. Variables sharing the same symbols do not differ from each other.

6.2.7 Conclusions

There were very few significant findings regarding the influence of biographical variables on personality. One may therefore conclude that life circumstances have a rather small influence on personality; nevertheless there is some interaction between them. It seems more likely that the personality of the individual influences the way in which life circumstances are perceived. Personality, once formed may prove to be relatively difficult to change. Women who are not assertive may have developed a motive to fear assertiveness during childhood, as an aspect of their personalities. The development of this motive may make it difficult for women to act assertively, because they have learned that assertive behaviour may lead to negative consequences. This pattern, once established may prove to be difficult to change. Fear of assertiveness is discussed in the following section.

6.3 FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS

The scoring system developed in the pilot study was used here to determine the presence or absence of fear of assertiveness as a motive. In this main study, 82 respondents were given the "Anne" as assertive person cue, and 85 the "John" cue.

Responses were classified into three groups:

- . stories which contained no n Power and no fear of assertiveness (N=9)
- . stories in which n Power imagery was present, but fear of assertiveness was absent (N=51)

. stories in which both n Power and fear of assertiveness were present (N=107).

Fear of assertiveness was present in 69 % of the Anne stories and 59 % of the John stories. Thus the respondents were equally likely to tell stories where fear of assertiveness was present in both the John and the Anne cues. However, in all these stories, Anne was more likely to be the victim of assertiveness than John as she was the victim in 70 % of the stories, irrespective of whether the Anne or John cue had been given. For example, in the following story, Anne is a victim of her own assertiveness:

Anne is often involved in heated discussions One day in a discussion with John she "argues she is right and he's wrong, gets very cross and red in the face. Rather than back down, she walks out of the room and slams the door feeling rather silly."

In the following story, in which John was introduced as the assertive person, Anne remains the victim of assertiveness:

"He tries to convince her that she should find a half-day job. Anne explains that the stimulation she gets from her full-time job is very necessary and important to her. John feels the home and children are neglected. He forbids her to work at all and Anne feels put down."

In the following story, fear of assertiveness is absent.

Assertive Anne "puts across her point of view so well that she won him over. After that he consulted with her on every major decision."

6.3.1 Fear of assertiveness and n Power

Both low (70 % of respondents in the 25th percentile and lower category) and high (72 % of respondents in the 76th percentile and higher category) n Power scorers told more stories where fear of assertiveness was present than the other groups. The presence of fear of assertiveness as a motive may suppress the development of the need for power among low n Power scorers, or else it may inhibit the direct expression of the need for power when n Power scores are high. The earlier finding that high n Power is associated with femininity rather than direct assertiveness is relevant here. The high n Power scorer may learn to fear assertiveness.

6.3.2 Fear of assertiveness and personality

Tables 6.4(a) and (b) are Pearson correlation matrices of personality variables calculated separately for those where fear of assertiveness is present and where it is absent. A comparison of these tables indicates the following tendency:

When fear of assertiveness is present, a respondent needed a higher degree of extraversion, self-esteem, masculinity and internal control to act assertively than when this motive is absent. In the presence of fear of assertiveness, if a respondent felt powerless, she was also likely to obtain low scores on self-esteem, masculinity and assertiveness. This tendency was less obvious among respondents who told stories where fear of assertiveness was absent. The differences between the two groups were small however, because a discriminant analysis failed to differentiate between the two groups on all variables except chance. In the presence of fear of assertiveness, respondents felt their lives were controlled

TABLE 6.4

(a) Fear of assertiveness present

CORRELATION MATRIX

	Orientation towards women's roles	<u>n</u> Power	Behavioural assertiveness	Extra- version	Masculinity	Femini- nity	Powerful others	Chance	Internality	Self- esteem
Orientation towards women's roles										
<u>n</u> Power										
Behavioural assertiveness										
Extraversion				0,57**						
Masculinity	0,24*			0,58**	0,58**					
Femininity										
Powerful others	-0,23*									
Chance										
Internality										
Self-esteem										
Academic qualifications										

* $p < 0,05$ ** $p < 0,01$

TABLE 6.4

(b) Fear of assertiveness absent

CORRELATION MATRIX

	Orientation towards women's roles	n Power	Behavioural assertiveness	Extraversion	Masculinity	Femininity	Powerful others	Chance	Internality	Self-esteem	Academic qualifications
Orientation towards women's roles											
n Power											
Behavioural assertiveness	0,29*										
Extraversion											
Masculinity	0,34*		0,68**	0,30*							
Femininity		0,28*	-0,28*								
Powerful others	-0,29*										
Chance							0,76**				
Internality					0,29*						
Self-esteem			0,40**		0,48**			-0,30*			
Academic qualifications											

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* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

by chance factors more so than when this motive was absent. The felt their lives were controlled by chance factors more so than when this motive was absent. The above discussion therefore indicates trends rather than clearly established differences.

6.3.3 Fear of assertiveness and behaviour

A correspondence analysis (Figure 6.3) indicates that the presence of fear of assertiveness is associated with a happy marriage and more distantly, with dependency. The absence of fear of assertiveness and of the need for power is associated with a variety of behaviour patterns. Fear of assertiveness therefore inhibits direct expression of the need for power.

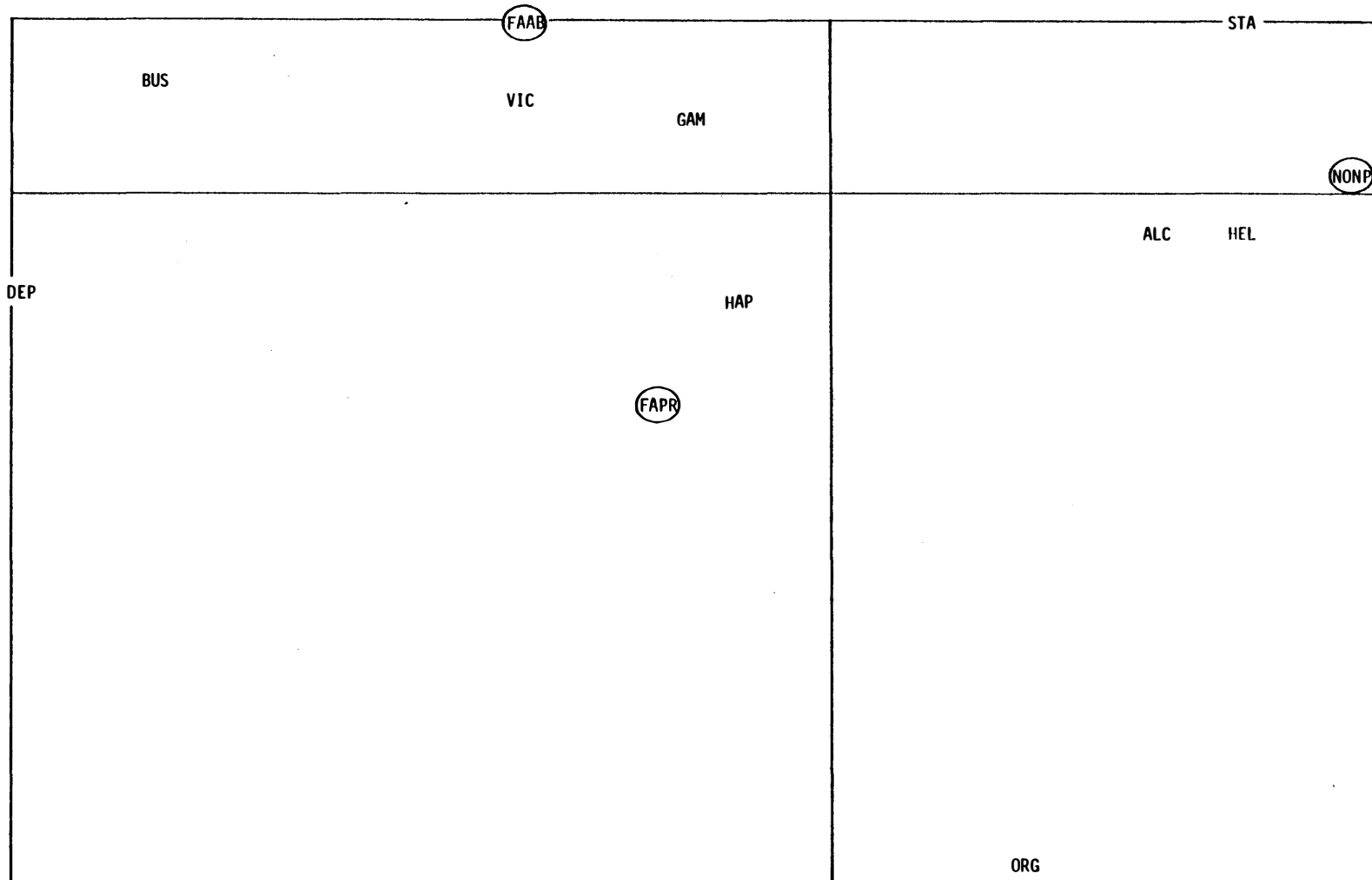
6.3.4 Fear of assertiveness and biographical variables

An analysis of variance indicated that there were no significant differences between groups when fear of assertiveness is absent and when it is present, regarding education and number of hours per week in paid work. With regard to age, however, there was a tendency for younger respondents to tell more stories that could be scored for the presence of fear of assertiveness than was the case with respondents over the age of 40 ($F(3) = 3, 28; p < 0,05$). Perhaps as respondents aged, they gained more confidence, and fear of assertiveness as a motive became less salient.

6.3.5 Summary

The concept fear of assertiveness as a motive had some explanatory power. Although there were no real differences in the number of stories that could be scored for fear of assertiveness when the Anne or John cue was used,

FIGURE 6.3
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS



Behaviour patterns

ALC alcohol consumption
 BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs
 to have time for oneself
 DEP dependency on husband
 GAM gambling
 HAP happy marriage
 HEL helping behaviour
 ORG participating in organizations
 STA concern with status and prestige symbols
 VIC vicarious identification with husband
 and children

Fear of assertiveness

FAAB fear of assertiveness absent
 FAPR fear of assertiveness present
 NONP no n power

Anne was more likely to be the victim of assertiveness than John. This finding indicates that women may think it is more socially acceptable for a man to be assertive than for a woman. Both high and low n Power scorers told stories containing more fear of assertiveness imagery than the intermediate scorers. Perhaps fear of assertiveness prevents the development of a need for power or else it inhibits the expression of this need, if the individual is sensitized to the possibility of failure to gain or exercise power through assertive behaviour. Respondents who feared assertiveness needed to obtain high scores on self-esteem, internal control, extraversion and masculinity before they could obtain high scores on assertiveness. They also needed to overcome feelings of powerlessness. The relatively weak associations between fear of assertiveness, personality and behaviour indicate that it is possible that operant and respondent measures are not directly comparable. Instead operant measures may need to be compared to other operant measures. This is done for both n Power and fear of assertiveness in the following section.

6.4 THE BEST AND WORST ASPECTS OF BEING A WOMAN, N POWER AND FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS

When comparing n Power and fear of assertiveness scores to the sentence completion tasks which are operant measures: "The best (worst) thing about being a woman is", interesting associations were found.

6.4.1 The best thing about being a woman

Sentences written in response to this "best thing" cue were divided into the following categories on the basis of content analysis:

(a) The role of mother

This was the most popular choice as 28 % of responses could be coded here. The following examples were coded in this category: "enjoying watching children growing up; being able to bear and care for a child and being a mother".

(b) Femininity

This category contained 17 % of responses, which included "just being a woman, being feminine and having the good qualities of women".

(c) Dependency

The following type of responses were coded as indicative of dependency: "not having financial responsibilities, being cared for by my husband and not having the responsibility of having to support a family." This response was given by 17 % of respondents.

(d) Many roles of women

Of all the responses 14 % were coded in this category which included enjoying a diversity of roles such as wife, mother, housewife and work roles.

(e) Feeling loved and needed

Of the responses 17 % were coded in this category, including the following: "being loved by my family for what I do" and "being needed as a woman in the family."

(f) Having many choices

The 5 % of responses coded in this category included the following: "having the choice of whether or not to work" and "having the choice of whether or not to compete."

(g) Nothing is good

The 3 % of responses coded here, included such responses as "nothing is liked" and "its a man's world so there's nothing nice for women."

(h) Sharing-companionship

The 2 % of responses coded here included sharing tasks with the husband, doing things together and enjoying the husband's company.

(i) Being oneself

A further 2 % of responses, for example "being myself" and "just being me" were coded here.

(j) Influencing others

A further 2 % of responses, for example, "she has great influence over creating an atmosphere for the development of the family" were scored here.

(k) Special warm qualities of women

The mention of warmth, kindness and tenderness was scored here and included 2 % of responses.

6.4.2 Association with n Power

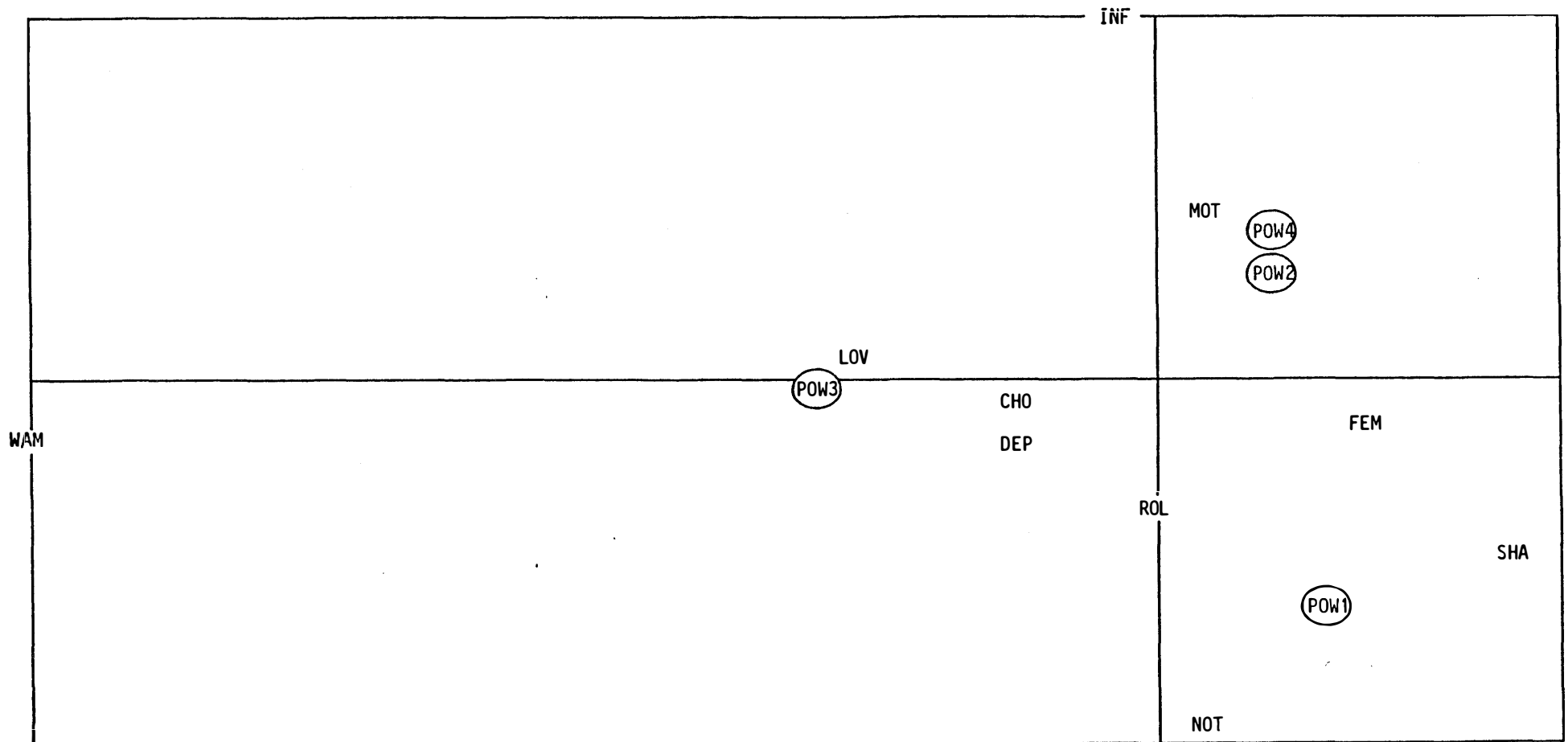
A correspondence analysis using the percentages for each of the above categories and the four categories of n Power (Figure 6.4) indicated that low n Power was associated with enjoying sharing and companionship, having many roles, femininity and with not liking anything about being a woman. Some and high n Power scores were associated with enjoying the role of mother and more distantly with enjoying influencing others. Moderate n Power was associated with feeling loved and wanted, having many choices and dependency. The close association between high n Power and enjoying the role of mother indicates that a need for power may be expressed through the family, by means of nurturance. This form of gaining power is what Winter (1981) termed responsible nurturing power and nurturance offers enjoyment for highly power-motivated women rather than direct assertiveness for personal goals.

6.4.3 Association with fear of assertiveness

Figure 6.5 indicates that the presence of fear of assertiveness is associated with enjoying dependency, being feminine, sharing and companionship. The presence of a motive to fear of assertiveness therefore encouraged the enjoyment of a more traditional life-style. It was also associated with not liking anything about being a woman. The absence of this motive was associated with enjoyment of influencing others, of being oneself and having many choices.

Direct assertiveness and individualism are therefore enjoyed when a motive to fear assertiveness is absent. This finding confirms the theory that fear of assertiveness inhibits direct expression of a need for power,

FIGURE 6.4
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF THE BEST THING ABOUT BEING A WOMAN AND STRENGTH OF n POWER



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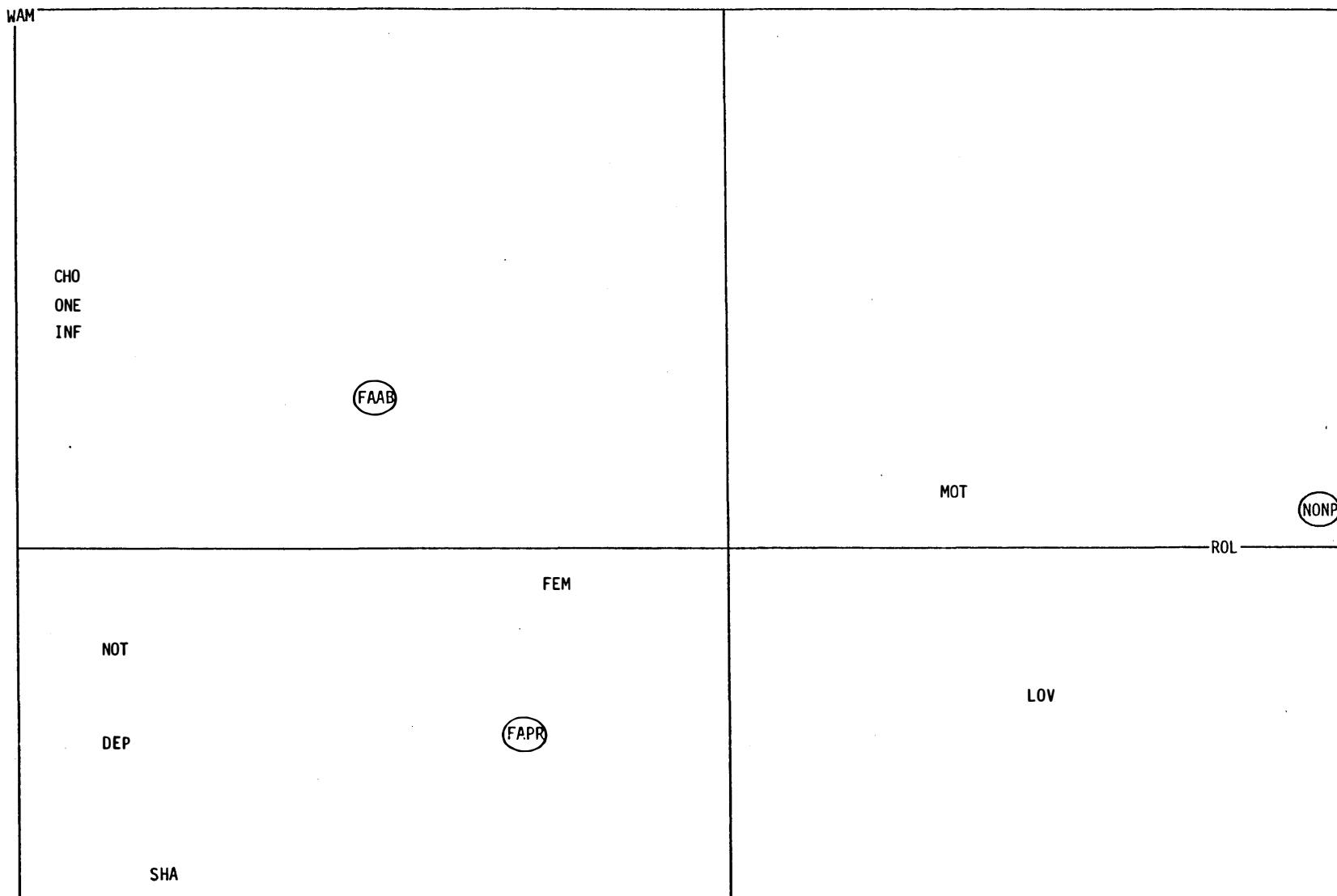
Best thing about being a woman

- CHO having many choices
- DEP dependency
- FEM femininity
- INF influencing others
- LOV feeling loved and wanted
- MOT role of mother
- NOT nothing best
- ROL many roles of women
- SHA sharing and companionship

Strength of n power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

FIGURE 6.5
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF THE BEST THING ABOUT BEING A WOMAN AND FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS



The best thing about being a woman

- CHO having many choices
- DEP dependency
- FEM femininity
- INF influencing others
- LOV feeling loved and wanted
- MOT role of mother
- NOT nothing best

- ONE being oneself
- ROL many roles of women
- SHA sharing and companionship
- WAM special warm qualities of women

Fear of assertiveness

- FAAB fear of assertiveness absent
- FAPR fear of assertiveness present
- NONP no n power

but when this motive is absent, the direct expression of power and assertiveness may be enjoyed.

6.4.4 The worst thing about being a woman

Sentences written in response to "the worst thing" cue were classified as follows:

(a) Inferior role of women

A large proportion (15 %) of responses were coded in this category including the following: "work women do is not recognized as work, being treated as an inferior species, and being treated as an extension of the family".

(b) Role conflict and strain

A further 15 % of responses, including the following, were coded here: "having to be many different people, that is wife, mother, nurse etc. at the expense of self, the pressures that all that a woman has to contend with and you are often indispensable to everyone."

(c) Physical aspects

Physical aspects such as menstruation, premenstrual tension, pregnancy, giving birth and the menopause were mentioned by 14 % of respondents as being most disliked.

(d) Housework

A further 10 % of responses were coded as disliking aspects of housework.

(e) Dependency

The dislike of dependency, which included the following responses was present in 10 % of responses: "having to depend on her husband for support", and "to have to be so dependent on a man".

(f) Discrimination

Sentences mentioning actual exploitation or discrimination against women were scored here and included 10 % of responses.

(g) Family responsibilities

The dislike of having to bear responsibility for children and family was mentioned by 7 % of respondents.

(h) Nothing wrong with being a woman

Nothing wrong with being a woman was mentioned by 6 % of respondents.

(i) Lack of freedom

Lack of freedom was mentioned by 5 % of respondents.

(j) Traditional role

Mention of a dislike of the traditional role of women was made by 4 % of respondents.

(k) Trying to keep up with men

This aspect was disliked by 3 % of respondents.

(1) Keeping up appearances

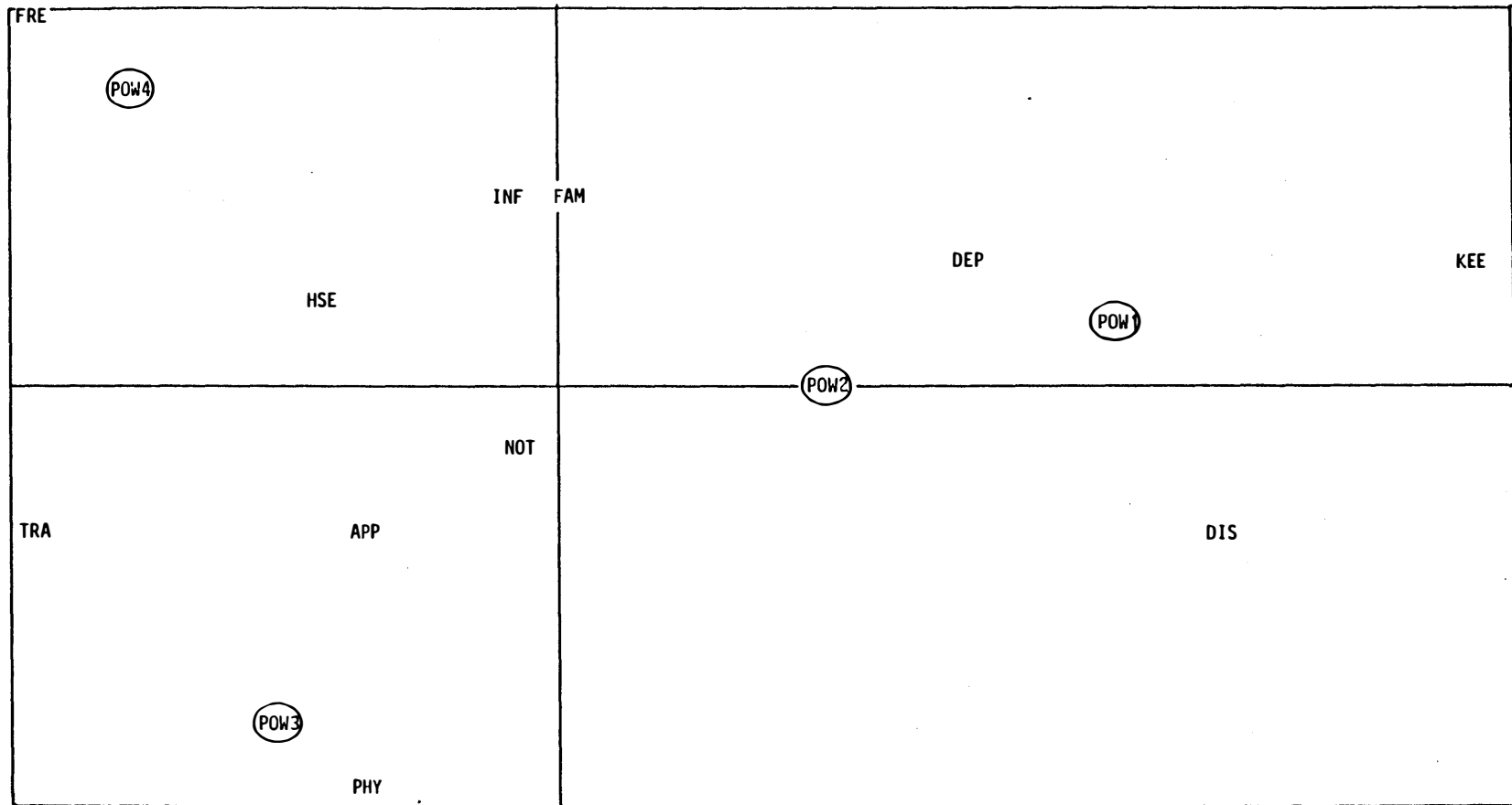
Dislike of dieting in order to fit into one's clothes, and dislike of the need to be well dressed and well groomed were coded in this category which included 3 % of responses.

6.4.5 Association with n Power

Figure 6.6 indicates that a high n Power score is associated with a dislike of housework, with a perceived lack of freedom of women, the inferior role of women and family responsibilities. Moderate n Power was associated with the dislike of the physical aspects of being a woman, the traditional role of women and keeping up appearances. Those in the lowest half of n Power scorers disliked dependency, discrimination and trying to keep up with men.

If the best and worst aspects of being a woman in relation to n Power are compared, the very same aspects that are enjoyed by moderate and high n Power scorers are also the aspects most disliked. In other words, although traditional feminine roles offer outlets for the expression of high and moderate n Power, at the same time they alert women to the possibility of frustration and non-goal attainment. Expectations of satisfying a need for power through family roles are not always fulfilled. This leads to a dislike of aspects of women's traditional roles. Conflict may therefore have been experienced regarding to the preferred patterns of expressing a need for power.

FIGURE 6.6
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF THE WORST THING ABOUT BEING A WOMAN AND STRENGTH OF n POWER



The worst thing about being a woman

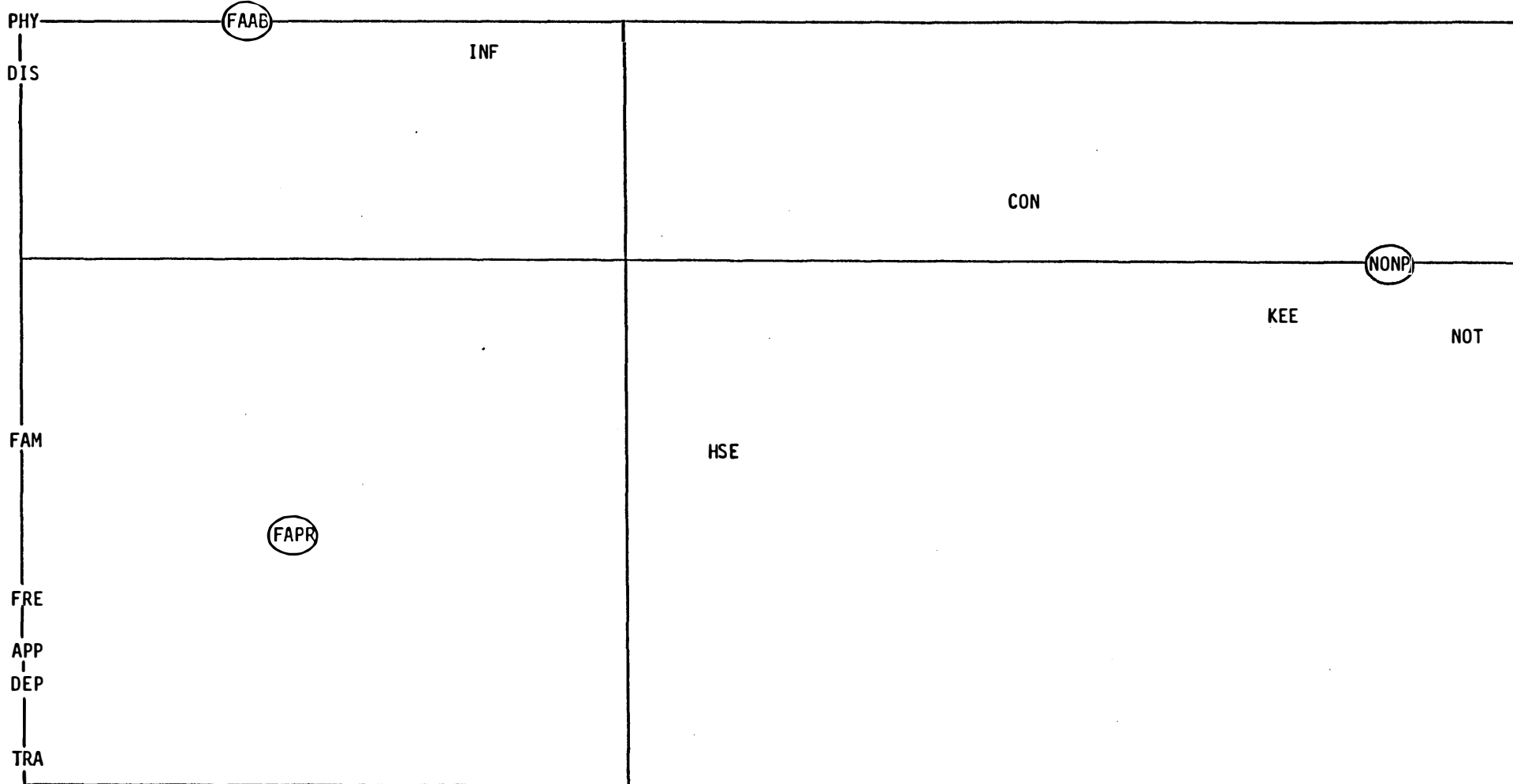
APP keeping up appearances
 DEP dependency
 DIS discrimination
 FAM family responsibilities
 FRE lack of freedom
 HSE housework
 INF inferior role of women

KEE trying to keep up
 NOT nothing wrong
 PHY physical aspects
 TRA traditional role of woman disliked

Strength of n power

POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
 POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
 POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
 POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

FIGURE 6.7
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF THE WORST THING ABOUT BEING A WOMAN AND FEAR OF ASSERTIVENESS



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The worst thing about being a woman

- APP keeping up appearances
- CON role conflict and strain
- DEP dependency
- DIS discrimination
- FAM family responsibilities
- FRE lack of freedom
- HSE housework
- INF inferior role of women
- KEE trying to keep up
- NOT nothing wrong
- PHY physical aspects
- TRA traditional role of women disliked

Fear of assertiveness

- FAAB fear of assertiveness absent
- FAPR fear of assertiveness present
- NONP no n power

6.4.6 Association with fear of assertiveness

Figure 6.7 indicates the associations between fear of assertiveness and the worst aspects of being a woman. When fear of assertiveness was absent, physical aspects, for example menstruation, discrimination and the inferior role of women were disliked. In other words those environmental aspects which may prevent a woman from obtaining an equal role with men were most disliked by those who did not fear assertiveness. When fear of assertiveness was present, the traditional role of women, dependency, keeping up appearances, lack of freedom and family responsibilities were disliked. These are again similar to what the women fearing assertiveness most enjoy. This motive may therefore give rise to conflict. The woman who fears assertiveness may want to be dependent, yet at the same time she may resent her dependency. She may value sharing and companionship, yet at the same time she may dislike the responsibilities that sharing implies. Fear of assertiveness as a motive may be dysfunctional as it gives rise to tensions between dependency and independence.

6.5 SUMMARY

The need for power was related to a traditionally feminine way of life regarding home roles among respondents. They felt strong through helping others and through vicariousness, namely by identifying with the activities of their husbands and children. Factors that played a role in modifying the type of power goals they wanted were age, education and the working patterns of the women. Paid work, a higher education and maturity offered more diverse ways of obtaining power goals. The need for power was not related to assertiveness. On the other hand, self-esteem, internality, an egalitarian orien-

tation towards women's roles and masculinity were all related to direct assertiveness. Respondents obtaining high scores on being controlled by powerful others and by chance factors were more likely to have lower self-esteem, to have incorporated fewer masculine traits into their personalities and to be less assertive than those who felt internally controlled. Respondents who obtained high scores on n Power were more likely to develop a motive to fear assertiveness than moderate n Power scorers, possibly because these respondents were more aware that negative consequences could result if they were directly assertive. Those obtaining low scores on n Power were also likely to develop a motive to fear assertiveness, perhaps because the presence of fear of assertiveness as a motive inhibited the development of the need for power. Fear of assertiveness was associated with dependency. Direct assertiveness and individuality were enjoyed more when fear of assertiveness was absent. Both n Power and fear of assertiveness may give rise to conflicts, as the presence of these motives is related to enjoying and at the same time disliking traditional, feminine women's roles. Women who are highly power-motivated seek power through "feminine" behaviour, but at the same time, they are aware that such behaviour may fail to make them feel stronger and more powerful.

Perhaps the work situation may offer more opportunities for power motive gratification. The relation between the need for power, the other personality and biographical variables and reasons for working are explored in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 7

POWER AND WORK

In this chapter, the way in which work relates to a need for power is explored. The changing roles of women affect their opportunities of gaining power in a work situation. One would expect work roles to offer more opportunities for expressing a need for power than do home roles. One would also expect that women in paid work would feel that they are able to obtain power goals by working, especially if they are not working because of financial necessity. The possible relationships between the need for power and reasons for working are indicated in the following research findings.

7.1 REASONS FOR WORKING

All respondents who were engaged in paid work at the time of the study were asked to rate the importance they attached to various reasons for working on a five point scale ranging from not at all important to very important (Question 3b(iv) of Appendix 1). On average the most important reason for working was to make use of one's talents and abilities ($\bar{X} = 3,9$) followed by the desire to feel useful ($\bar{X} = 3,6$), to avoid boredom ($\bar{X} = 3,3$), to make use of training ($\bar{X} = 3,2$), to develop a career ($\bar{X} = 3,1$); to supplement the family income ($\bar{X} = 3,0$), to form social contacts ($\bar{X} = 2,8$), to escape the role of housewife ($\bar{X} = 2,7$) and the need to support oneself and the family ($\bar{X} = 2,4$). These reasons for working reflect intrinsic and extrinsic goals, financial reasons being classified as extrinsic goals. Intrinsic goals may be further divided into those related to making full use of

potential abilities, those related to avoiding traditional home roles and those related to affiliation.

7.1.1 Relations between reasons for working, power and personality

A principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to detect groups of linearly related variables regarding scores obtained on reasons for working and the need for power, fear of assertiveness, internal control, powerful others, chance, masculinity, femininity, extraversion, assertiveness and self-esteem scores. Five factors were retained on the basis of a scree plot. These factors explain 60 % of the variance. Table 7.1 indicates these factors.

(a) Factor 1: Using one's potential

Variable	Factor loading
Working to use talents and abilities	0,78
Working to use training	0,72
Working to develop a career	0,71
Internal control	0,56

Variance explained = 13,5 %.

Women who were internally controlled were more likely to work to make use of their potential abilities. Masculinity, n Power and working to avoid boredom were also related to this factor (see Table 7.1). Thus women who are internally controlled and who have incorporated masculine stereotyped characteristics into their personalities were likely to seek power goals by working to use their talents and abilities, to use their training, to develop a career and to avoid boredom.

TABLE 7.1 MATRIX OF VARIMAX ROTATED FACTORS^(a)

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5
	Using one's potential	Escaping traditional roles	Assertiveness	Usefulness	Financial Reasons
Working to use talents and abilities	0,78				
Working to use training	0,72				
Working to develop a career	0,71				
Internal control	0,56				
Powerful others		0,84			
Chance		0,79			
Working to escape the role of housewife		0,35			
Femininity		-0,29			
Self-esteem		-0,58	0,44		
Assertiveness			0,87		
Extraversion			0,70		
Masculinity	0,40		0,66		
Working to feel useful				0,80	
Working to form social contacts		0,25		0,66	
Working to avoid boredom	0,27	0,32		0,64	
Power	0,39	0,27		-0,40	
Working to support oneself and family					0,88
Working to supplement family income					0,80
Fear of assertiveness			-0,33		0,34

(a) Only factor loadings of 0,20 or higher are indicated.

(b) Factor 2: Escaping traditional roles

Variable	Factor loading
Powerful others	0,84
Chance	0,79
Working to escape the role of housewife	0,35
Femininity	-0,29
Self-esteem	-0,58

Variance explained = 12,6 %.

Some women who felt powerless worked to escape the role of housewife. Self-esteem loaded negatively on this factor, indicating that women with lower self-esteem felt more powerless and were more likely to work to escape the role of housewife. Feminine women were more likely to seek power through the roles of wife and mother, as indicated in Chapter 6. They were therefore less likely to work to escape the role of housewife, and were less likely to feel powerless. Working to form social contacts, to avoid boredom and n Power were also related to the above factor. Work therefore offered some opportunities for expressing a need for power by avoiding the perceived powerlessness of the role of the housewife.

(c) Factor 3: Assertiveness

Variable	Factor loading
Assertiveness	0,87
Extraversion	0,70
Masculinity	0,66

Variance explained = 12,2 %.

This factor was previously found in Chapter 6. Assertive respondents were more likely to be extraverted and to have acquired some stereotyped masculine characteristics. As expected, self-esteem was also related to this factor. Fear of assertiveness as a motive was again shown to be negatively related to direct assertiveness. The interesting finding regarding this factor was that assertiveness was not related to work. Women do not necessarily expect that they may act assertively in a work situation.

(d) Factor 4: Usefulness

Variable	Factor loading
Working to feel useful	0,80
Working to form social contacts	0,66
Working to avoid boredom	0,64
n Power	-0,40

Variance explained = 11,3 %.

Women who work for affiliation goals, namely to feel useful, to form social contacts and to avoid boredom were less likely to work for power goals.

(e) Factor 5: Financial reasons

Variable	Factor loading
Working to support oneself and the family	0,88
Working to supplement the family income	0,80
Fear of assertiveness	0,34

Variance explained = 9,9 %.

This factor indicates that the women who have developed a motive to fear assertiveness were more likely to work for extrinsic rather than intrinsic rewards.

The factor analysis indicates that a need for power for women may find more outlets in a work situation than in a home situation. At work this need is related to gaining power through the use of one's potential. It is also related to a defensive behaviour pattern of working to escape powerlessness. It is negatively related to seeking affiliative goals at work. Changing women's roles may have made the need for power more relevant to the work situation. It is not only personality that influences goals a woman seeks to attain through work, but also life circumstances. These life circumstances are reflected in the biographical variables, as discussed below.

7.1.2 Effect of biographical variables on reasons for working

An analysis of variance and a Duncan Multiple Range Test were done to determine how biographical variables influence reasons for working. The ANOVA indicated that level of education and number of hours worked had a significant overall effect on reasons for working.

Table 7.2, a summary of the significant findings using the Duncan Test indicates the following: In general, the higher the level of education, the more likely the respondents were to work to use talents and abilities, to develop a career and to use their training. The greater the number of hours spent in paid work activities, the more likely the respondents were to work for financial reasons. Working to develop a career and to use training were particularly important to those respondents who spent between 31 and 40 hours on average per week at

TABLE 7.2 SUMMARY OF THE INFLUENCE OF BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES ON REASONS FOR WORKING

(a)	Level of education	Working to develop a career \bar{X} Duncan's Ranking ^{a)}		
	Degrees and diplomas	3,5	1	
	Matriculation	3,0	1	2
	Not matriculated	2,3		2
(b)	Level of education	Working to use talents and abilities \bar{X} Duncan's Ranking		
	Degrees and diplomas	4,1	1	
	Matriculation	3,9	1	
	Not matriculated	3,1		2
(c)	Level of education	Working to use training \bar{X} Duncan's Ranking		
	Degrees and diplomas	3,6	1	
	Matriculation	3,4	1	
	Not matriculated	2,1		2
(d)	Number of hours per week in paid work	Working to support self and family \bar{X} Duncan's Ranking		
	41 hours or more	3,8	1	
	31 - 40 hours	3,3	1	
	21 - 30 hours	2,2		2
	11 - 20 hours	1,8		2
	10 hours or less	1,8		2
(e)	Number of hours per week in paid work	Working to supplement family income \bar{X} Duncan's Ranking		
	41 hours or more	4,3	1	
	31 - 40 hours	3,8	1	2
	21 - 30 hours	3,2		2 3
	11 - 20 hours	2,6		3
	10 hours or less	2,4		3

(f)	Number of hours per week in paid work	Working to develop a career		
		\bar{X}	Duncan's Ranking	
	31 - 40 hours	3,1	1	
	41 hours or more	3,5	1	2
	21 - 30 hours	3,1	1	2
	11 - 20 hours	3,0	1	2
	10 hours or less	2,6		2

(g)	Number of hours per week in paid work	Working to use training		
		\bar{X}	Duncan's Ranking	
	31 - 40 hours	3,9	1	
	21 - 30 hours	3,5	1	2
	11 - 20 hours	3,4	1	2
	10 hours or less	2,8		2
	41 hours or less	2,4		3

- a) The symbols 1, 2, and 3 represent groupings of variables that differ significantly from each other. Variables sharing the same symbols do not differ significantly from each other.

work. Women who worked 41 hours or more per week, on average, were less likely to engage in work to use their training. Financial considerations were most important to this group. Age did not have a significant influence on reasons for working.

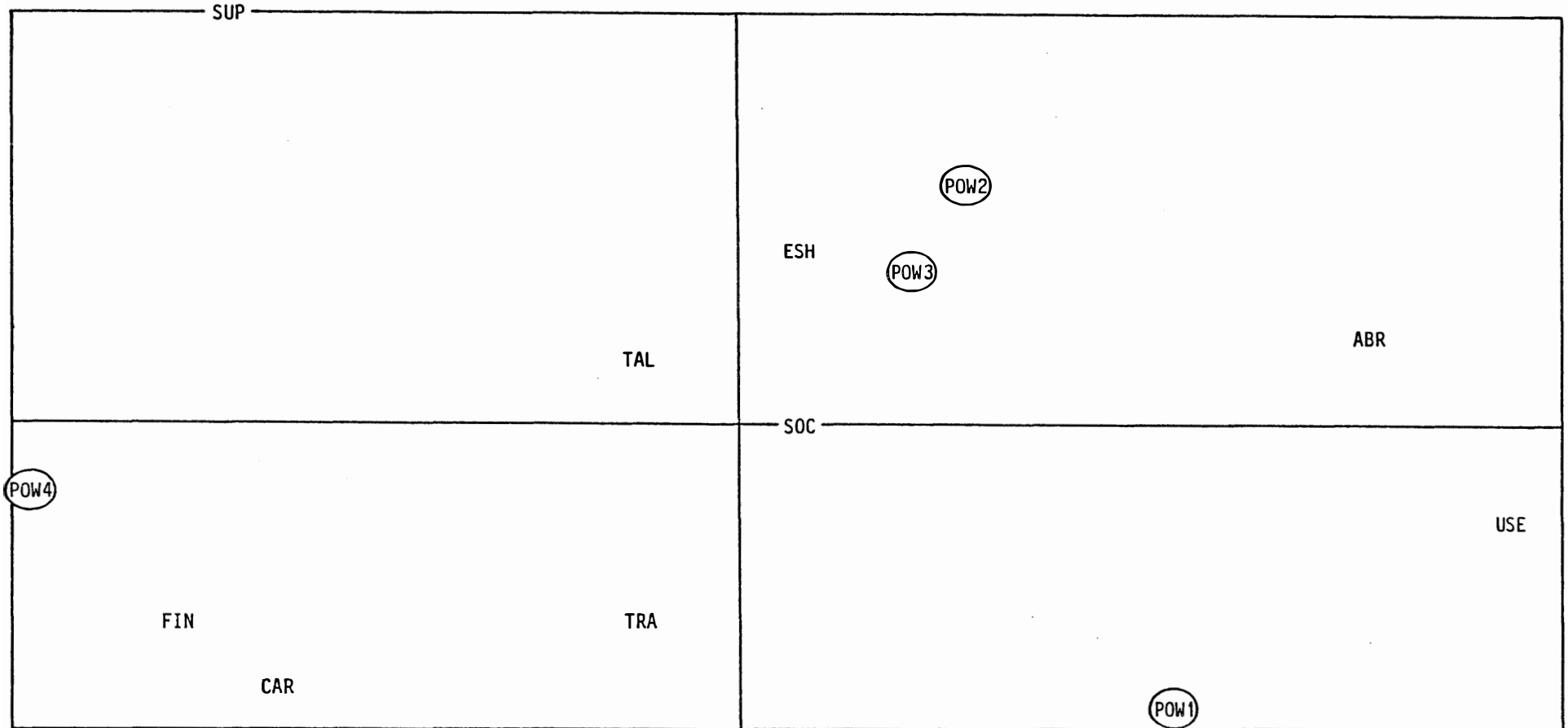
7.2 REASONS FOR WORKING AND THE NEED FOR POWER

A series of correspondence analyses were plotted to explore how the strength of the need for power is associated with the importance attached to the various reasons for working, taking biographical variables into account. The resulting trends are discussed below.

(a) The total group

Figure 7.1 in which the various strengths of n Power were plotted against the mean scores obtained on the reasons for working in a correspondence analysis indicates the following: The presence of some or moderate n Power (n Power scores between the 25th and 75th percentile) was associated with working to escape the role of housewife, to form social contacts, to make use of one's talents and abilities, to avoid boredom and to make use of one's training. The cluster of n Power scores and reasons for work occupy a central position on the graph, indicating that if the need for power is not very high, there are many alternative ways of attaining power goals in a paid work situation. Low n Power is associated, although distantly with working to feel useful. High n Power scorers were more likely to work to develop a career and for financial reasons than was the case with the other groups. The position on the far left of the graph of high n Power scorers may indicate that these respondents were less likely to seek power goals at work than was the case with moderate scorers. Nevertheless, many goals satisfying a

FIGURE 7.1
CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND STRENGTH OF n POWER



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Reasons for working

- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income
- TAL working to use talents and abilities
- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

Strength of n power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

need for power were available to the women who worked, provided that their n Power scores were not too high.

(b) Age

The correspondence analyses illustrating the associations between the strength of n Power and the various reasons for working according to age and education are given in Appendix 6. Regarding age, the following trends were found: Among the respondents aged 33 years and younger, some and moderate n Power scores (between the 25th and 75th percentile) were associated with a large group of reasons for working. Low and high n Power scores were more distantly associated with these variables, indicating that work offered many opportunities for the youngest respondents with moderate n Power scores to gain power goals. In the 31 to 40 year age group, high n Power was closely associated with working for financial reasons, and low n Power, with working to feel useful, to form social contacts and to avoid boredom, while some n Power (scores between the 25th and 50th percentile) was associated with working to develop a career. Among the 41 to 50 year age group, the pattern changes. The moderate and high n Power scores were associated with working to use potential, rather than working for affiliation needs or to escape the role of housewife. Therefore respondents in the 41 to 50 year age group were most likely to seek power through self actualization at work. This is the age when family responsibilities are decreasing, with the freedom from family ties possibly allowing the 41 to 50 year olds to use the work situation to gain constructive power goals.

Among the respondents aged 51 years and older, the associations between n Power and reasons for working were generally rather distant. Possibly the problems of fac-

ing competition from younger people or of facing retirement made the older respondents less likely to use a work situation as a means of attaining power goals.

(c) Education

The level of education attained by respondents influenced the type of power goals they wanted to find at work. Appendix 6 illustrates that non-matriculated respondents who obtained high scores on n Power worked to escape the role of housewife; moderate n Power scorers worked to avoid boredom, while low n Power was associated with personal development (working to develop a career, to use talents, abilities and training). Among matriculated respondents, high n Power was associated with working to supplement the family income and to develop a career; moderate n Power with working to use training, to escape the role of housewife, to avoid boredom and to use talents and abilities. Among respondents with higher academic qualifications high n Power scorers were relatively isolated from all reasons for working, as is apparent on the relevant figure in Appendix 6. Moderate n Power was associated with working to use talents and abilities and to develop a career. In this group moderate rather than high n Power scorers could attain power goals at work.

7.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter four main factors or patterns relating to reasons for working were found, namely (i) to work for financial reasons, associated with fear of assertiveness; (ii) to work for self-development and to use potential, associated with the need for power, masculinity and particularly, with internal control; (iii) to work to escape traditional roles, associated strongly with measures of powerlessness but also with the need for power, and

negatively associated with self-esteem and femininity, and (iv) to work to satisfy affiliative needs, negatively associated with the need for power. An additional factor, assertiveness was not related to these reasons for working. Many power goals are available to working women, both in terms of self-fulfilment and avoiding powerlessness. The lack of association between n Power and assertiveness is again obvious. Women do not express a need for power either at home or at work through direct assertiveness, rather, they feel strong at work through self-development. Biographical variables influenced the reasons why women worked. The non-matriculated women were less likely to work to develop a career or to use their talents and abilities and training than was the case with those with matriculation or tertiary education. The more hours the women spent at work, the more likely they were to work for financial reasons and to develop a career.

Biographical variables also influenced the association between various strengths of n Power and the reasons for working. Regarding age the women in the 41 to 50 year age group were most likely to seek self-development at work if they scored above the 50th percentile on n Power. Those aged 51 years and older were least likely to seek power at work. Regarding education non-matriculated moderate and high n Power scorers worked to escape traditional home roles, whereas matriculated respondents and those with higher academic qualifications who scored between the 50th and 75th percentile were more likely to work for self-development. A high n Power score among graduates was not closely associated with any particular reason for working. The changing roles of women therefore influence the type of power goals they seek. Work rather than the home offers more power-motive gratification.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 SUMMARY

8.1.1 Introduction

In view of the shortage of high level manpower in South Africa at present there are opportunities for women to contribute further to the labour market by working in highly skilled technical and managerial posts, yet relatively few women do so (Wessels 1981). Part of the reason may lie in the way the motivation of women in general, and the power motive in particular, is expressed. The influence of the power motive on certain behaviour patterns and on reasons for working was examined in this research project. The relationship between this motive and other aspects of personality, namely locus of control, self-esteem, assertiveness, sex-role identity and extraversion was also examined. The purpose behind this examination was to find out what goals are sought to express a need for power and what factors modify the seeking of power goals in a group of women. A better understanding of this motive and its expression may indicate how the potential of women may best be used at work.

8.1.2 Aims

This research project aimed:

- To explore the need for power and its relation to behaviour in a group of married women.

- . To explore the relationship between a need for power and other personality variables, namely self-esteem, sex-role identity, locus of control, assertiveness and extraversion.
- . To determine the influence of age, education and working patterns on the need for power and on its expression as well as on other aspects of personality.
- . To explore the idea that fear of assertiveness is a motive which develops as a component of the power motive of women.

8.1.3 Methodology

This research was divided into two parts:

(a) The pilot study

A random sample of 40 English speaking graduate women living in either Johannesburg or Pretoria with at least one child was used. The respondents were required to be in either of two age groups: between 23 to 33 years or between 43 to 53 years. Their names and addresses were obtained from the HSRC Register of Graduates. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the usefulness of the measuring instruments selected for the research project. The pilot study confirmed that the need for power could be aroused and measured in a manner similar to that used in America (Winter 1973). The value of the instruments used to assess behaviour patterns, previously-mentioned aspects of personality and the reasons for working was also confirmed. A preliminary measure to assess the presence or absence of a motive to fear assertiveness was also developed.

(b) The main study

A random sample of 167 English-speaking women living in the Johannesburg, Sandton, Randburg and Pretoria municipal areas, who had at least one child and were younger than 70 years of age, was used. The relationship between the variables was examined. The respondents were divided into four age, three education and two work groups (working or non-working). The women engaged in paid work were further classified in terms of number of hours worked. These biographical variables were regarded as indicative of life circumstances that could influence the need for power and its expression.

8.1.4 Results

The relation found between need for power and other variables indicate that, regarding the domestic roles of women, the power-motive was related to a traditionally feminine way of life. The respondents felt strong and powerful through helping others and through vicarious identification with the activities of their husbands and children. Factors that played a role in modifying the type of power goals the respondents sought were age, education and the amount of time spent on paid work activities. Paid work, a higher level of education and being in the age group 41 to 50 years contributed towards finding more diverse ways of expressing a need for power. On the other hand, a need for power was not related to direct assertiveness among respondents.

Self-esteem, internal locus of control, extraversion, an egalitarian orientation towards the roles of women and a more masculine sex-role identity were all related to assertiveness, but not to a need for power. An external locus of control, namely the feeling that one is con-

trolled by powerful others or by chance factors, related negatively to self-esteem and to assertiveness. In other words respondents who felt externally controlled were likely to have a low self-esteem and were less likely to be assertive. They were also less likely to have incorporated masculine traits into their sex-role identity.

With regard to fear of assertiveness as a motive, respondents who obtained high scores on n Power were more likely to develop a motive to fear assertiveness than moderate n Power scorers, perhaps because they were sensitized to the possibility of negative consequences if they were directly assertive. Those who obtained low scores on n Power were also more likely to fear assertiveness. Perhaps the development of a motive to fear assertiveness inhibited the development of other aspects of the need for power. Fear of assertiveness was associated with dependency.

Work roles offered more opportunities for expressing a need for power than domestic roles. Many power goals were available to working women, particularly those related to self-development and to the avoidance of powerlessness. The changing roles of women therefore influenced the type of power goals they sought. Work rather than the home offered more opportunities to feel strong and powerful. In the work situation, and at home, the need for power was not related to assertiveness.

8.2 CONCLUSIONS

The examination of the need for power and its expression in a group of married, English-speaking, South African women who had at least one child demonstrated that the interaction between this variable and life circumstances

influenced how this motive is expressed. Work, rather than the home, offered more opportunities for power motive gratification. It is likely that in future, as more mass-produced food becomes available and automation occurs in the home, more women will turn to the work situation to gain feelings of strength and power. But English speaking women are unlikely to adopt the assertive or competitive behaviour patterns that are characteristic of men to express a need for power. Instead they tend to seek different ways from men of expressing a need for power at work. For example, they are likely to feel strong and powerful by making use of their training and ability at work. Other needs, for example the need for affiliation may also be met at work rather than in the relative isolation of the modern home. Further research is needed to explore how the changing roles of South African women influence the way in which other motives such as the need for affiliation and achievement are expressed at work. An indication was given here that the respondents who worked in pursuit of affiliation reasons were less likely to work to gain power goals.

The lack of relation between need for power and assertiveness indicates that the respondents did not feel strong by being directly assertive. Sharing resources rather than assertiveness made the women feel powerful.

The concept that a motive to fear assertiveness develops in relation to power strivings seems a useful one. It needs further exploration. A more comprehensive scoring system, an arousal procedure and a practice manual needs to be developed to conform to the current TAT methods of assessing motives. Fear of assertiveness is not necessarily confined to women. It may apply to men in certain situations, as well as to the less privileged groups in

society who are often in a submissive role, for example unskilled labourers.

The nurturing power of women is an important aspect of their way of expressing a need for power. Indeed, the type of work traditionally associated with women, for example nursing, teaching, paramedical and secretarial jobs, are those occupations involving nurturing. These jobs may be preferred by women because they offer the opportunity of feeling strong and powerful through caring for others or advancing the careers of others, as in the case of a secretary. Further research is needed into what needs are met in specific occupations and how specific motives, for example the need for power, sensitizes the person concerned to strive for possible goal attainment in order to satisfy that particular need at work. In this study it was not possible to examine the effect of the need for power on occupational choice, because so many respondents worked in traditionally female occupations.

Perhaps the most relevant finding regarding the work situation and power among women is that women do not express a need for power through direct assertiveness. The relationship between effective management and the need for power found for men (McClelland 1985) does not necessarily apply to women. The assumption that women who are highly power motivated will behave in the same way as power motivated men in a management role cannot be made. The association between power and assertiveness is based on a male norm. It is therefore unlikely that the shortage of high-level manpower in management will be overcome to any great extent by using women, because at present the type of goals that women seek to express a need for power differ from those of men. The driving force behind assertiveness for men in managerial posts is a need for

power. This does not apply to women. Expectations and incentives differ for men and women in a situation in which power motivation is aroused, and a fear of assertiveness may intervene between the need for power and the gaining of power goals through direct assertiveness. Direct assertiveness is a necessary component of effective management.

On the other hand, women who are internally controlled and who have a high self-esteem, who are extraverted and have incorporated "masculine" qualities into their sex-role identities are more likely to be able to fill management posts effectively, irrespective of the strength of their need for power. Confident, assertive women should be selected for management posts, rather than those who have a high need for power. Their high self-esteem and sex-role transcendence will enable them to handle the job demands more efficiently than the more "feminine" women.

Perhaps women do not enter technical occupations because these jobs offer very few opportunities to express a need for power through helping others or through vicariousness. These jobs offer very little in the way of expressing power through traditionally female behaviour. It would therefore be difficult to try to supplement the present shortage of technical skills by encouraging women to enter these occupations. Although they may have the ability to enter these fields, they are unlikely to find the type of power goals they seek at work in these occupations. On the other hand, the woman who is assertive, who has incorporated stereotyped masculine qualities into her personality, who is extraverted and has a high self-esteem, is more likely to adjust to and succeed in these types of occupations, as she is less likely to pursue the

same power goals sought by the more traditionally "feminine" women.

If women are encouraged to enter those occupations that require highly skilled technical knowledge or managerial skills, their approach to the work may be different from that of men, because they are likely to seek different ways from men of expressing a need for power. Further research is therefore needed to indicate how women cope with demands in a work situation that are based on male norms and are more appropriate for men.

Cultural differences, which have been shown in past studies to have a strong influence on how a need for power is expressed, made it necessary to limit the study to English-speaking women. Afrikaans speakers may express a need for power differently. Perhaps the home offers many opportunities to express a need for power among Afrikaans-speaking women, because more value is placed on housekeeping skills in this group.

With regard to women in other population groups in South Africa, the relation between the need for power and the type of goals sought to express this need may be quite different from those of the English-speaking group used in this study. Opportunities available for the expression of the need for power will influence the way in which this motive is expressed. Further research is necessary to examine these possible differences.

It would also be interesting to study how a need for power is expressed with regard to present intergroup contacts between the various population groups in South Africa.

The way in which power is expressed in a given cultural group is often evident in the group's myths, folklores and stories told to children (McClelland 1975). A better understanding of how the various groups wish to gain power goals may lead to a better understanding of our complex society. For example McClelland (1975) contrasts the way in which power is gained through the act of giving to others in Indian society to the machismo power goals of Mexican society. A better understanding of how culture modifies the expression of needs, such as the need for power, gives us a better understanding of people in different cultures. Even a need as fundamental as the hunger drive is modified by societal taboos and food preferences.

It may also be interesting to relate the other concepts and personality variables examined here to other cultural groups. Assertiveness, locus of control, sex-role identity and self-esteem may also be influenced by culture. For example the feminine stereotypes may differ, and femininity may take on a different meaning in other cultural groups.

The constructs of a need for power and the motive to fear assertiveness proved useful with regard to gaining a better understanding of a group of English-speaking South African women. Further research applying these concepts to other groups may prove to be beneficial.

HOOFSTUK 9

OPSOMMING EN GEVOLGTREKKINGS

9.1 OPSOMMING

9.1.1 Inleiding

Ofskoon die huidige tekort aan hoëvlakmannekrag in Suid-Afrika vroue die geleentheid bied om deur hulle toetrede tot poste wat hoë tegniese of bestuursvernuf vereis 'n verdere bydrae in dié verband te lewer, maak betreklik min vroue gebruik van die geleentheid (Wessels 1981). Die rede hiervoor kan deels gevind word in die wyse waarop vroue se motivering in die algemeen en die magsdryfveer in die besonder uitgedruk word. In hierdie navorsingsprojek is ondersoek ingestel na die uitwerking van die magsdryfveer op sekere gedragspatrone en op die redes waarom vroue werk. Navorsing is ook gedoen oor die verband tussen hierdie dryfveer en ander persoonlikheidsaspekte, naamlik beheerlokus, selfbeeld, geldingsdrang, geslagsrol-identiteit en ekstraversie. Die doel met die ondersoek was om te bepaal watter doelwitte nagestreef word ten einde uitdrukking te gee aan 'n behoefte aan mag, en die faktore te identifiseer wat die nastreef van magsdoelwitte en by 'n groep vroue wysig. 'n Beter begrip van die magsdryfveer en die wyse waarop dit manifesteer, kan bydra tot die doeltreffender benutting van vroue se potensiaal in die werksituasie.

9.1.2 Doelwitte

Die doel met die projek kan soos volg omskryf word:

- . Om ondersoek in te stel na die behoefte aan mag, en die verband te bepaal tussen dié behoefte en gedrag by 'n groep vroue.
- . Om ondersoek in te stel na die verband tussen 'n behoefte aan mag en ander persoonlikheidsveranderlikes, naamlik selfbeeld, geslagsrol-identiteit, beheerlokus, geldingsdrag en ekstraversie.
- . Om die uitwerking te bepaal van ouderdom, onderwys en werkpatrone op die magsbehoefte en hoe daaraan uitdrukking gegee word, asook op ander persoonlikheidsaspekte.
- . Om ondersoek in te stel na die gedagte dat vrees vir die geldingsdrang 'n dryfveer is wat as 'n komponent van die magsdryfveer by vroue ontwikkel.

9.1.3 Metodologie

'n Tweeledige ondersoek is uitgevoer:

(a) Voorstudie

'n Ewekansige steekproef bestaande uit 40 Engelssprekende gegradueerde vroue met ten minste een kind en woonagtig in Johannesburg of Pretoria is in die ondersoek gebruik. Die respondente was afkomstig uit die ouderdomsgroepe 23 tot 33 jaar en 43 tot 53 jaar. Die name en adresse van respondente is uit die RGN-register van Gegradueerdes verkry. Die doel met die voorstudie was om die bruikbaarheid te bepaal van die meetinstrumente wat in die ondersoek gebruik sou word. Die voorstudie het bevestig dat die behoefte aan mag op 'n soortgelyke wyse gewek en gemeet kan word as wat in Amerika bevind is (Winter 1973). Bevestiging is ook gevind vir die bruikbaarheid

van die betrokke instrumente vir die evaluering van gedragspatrone, bogenoemde persoonlikheidsaspekte en die redes waarom vroue werk. Voorts is 'n voorlopige instrument ontwikkel vir die evaluering van die teenwoordigheid of afwesigheid van 'n dryfveer om die geldingsdrang te vrees.

(b) Hoofstudie

'n Ewekansige steekproef van 167 Engelssprekende vroue met ten minste een kind en woonagtig in die munisipale gebiede van Johannesburg, Sandton, Randburg of Pretoria is in die ondersoek betrek. Die respondente was almal onder die ouderdom van 70 jaar. Die doel met die studie was om ondersoek in te stel na die verband tussen die verskillende veranderlikes. Die respondente is onderverdeel op grond van ouderdom (vier groepe), onderwyspeil (drie groepe), en werk (twee groepe: werkend/nie-werkend). Diegene wat besoldigde werk gedoen het, is verder geklassifiseer op grond van die aantal ure wat gewerk is. Bogenoemde biografiese veranderlikes is as aanduidend beskou van lewensomstandighede wat 'n uitwerking kan hê op die behoefte aan mag en die wyse waarop uitdrukking daaraan gegee word.

9.1.4 Resultate

Die verband wat gevind is tussen 'n behoefte aan mag en ander veranderlikes dui daarop dat, wat vroue se rolle tuis betref, hierdie magsdryfveer verband hou met 'n tradisioneel vroulike leefwyse. Hulpverlening aan ander en onregstreekse identifisering met hulle mans en kinders se aktiwiteite het die vroue sterk en magtig laat voel. Faktore wat 'n rol gespeel het by die wysiging van die tipe magsdoelwitte wat deur die respondente nagestreef is, is ouderdom, onderwyspeil en die hoeveelheid tyd wat

aan besoldigde werk bestee is. Besoldigde werk, 'n hoër onderwyspeil en 'n ouderdom van tussen 41 en 50 jaar het daartoe bygedra dat 'n wyer verskeidenheid wyses gevind is om uitdrukking te gee aan 'n behoefte aan mag. Andersyds is geen verband gevind tussen 'n behoefte aan mag en 'n regstreekse geldingsdrang by die respondente nie.

Selfbeeld, interne beheerlokus, ekstraversie, 'n gelykmatiger oriëntering tot die rolle van die vrou, en 'n manliker geslagsrol-identiteit het almal verband gehou met selfgelding, maar nie met 'n behoefte aan mag nie. 'n Negatiewe verband is gevind tussen 'n eksterne beheerlokus enersyds, met ander woorde 'n gevoel by die persoon dat sy deur magtige buitepersone of deur toevallige faktore beheer word, en selfbeeld en selfgelding andersyds. Respondente wat gevoel het dat hulle ekstern beheer word, was derhalwe geneig om 'n swak selfbeeld te hê en minder geneig om selfgeldend te wees. Hulle was ook minder geneig om manlike eienskappe in hulle geslagsrol-identiteit op te neem.

Wat die vrees vir selfgelding as 'n dryfveer betref, is gevind dat respondente wat 'n hoë telling op n Mag behaal het meer geneig was om 'n dryfveer om selfgelding te vrees te ontwikkel as diegene wat gemiddelde tellings behaal het, waarskynlik omdat hulle gevoelig was vir die moontlikheid van die negatiewe gevolge wat direkte selfgelding kon hê. Respondente wat lae tellings op n Mag behaal het, was ook meer geneig om selfgelding te vrees. Die ontwikkeling van 'n dryfveer om selfgelding te vrees, het waarskynlik die ontwikkeling van ander aspekte van die magsbehoefte geïnhibeer. Vrees vir selfgelding is met afhanklikheid geassosieer.

Werkrolle het meer geleentheid gebied om uitdrukking te gee aan 'n magsbehoefte as die rolle wat vroue tuis ver-

vul. Talle magsdoelwitte is binne die bereik van werkende vroue, veral doelwitte wat verband hou met selfontwikkeling en die vermyding van magteloosheid. Die veranderende rolle van vroue het dus 'n invloed uitgeoefen op die tipe magsdoelwitte wat hulle nagestreef het. Die werksituasie eerder as hulle rolle tuis het die vroue meer geleentheid gegee om sterk en magtig te voel. Geen verband is gevind tussen die behoefte aan mag en selfgelding in die werksituasie of tuis nie.

9.2 GEVOLGTREKKINGS

Die ondersoek na die magsbehoefte en die wyse waarop uitdrukking daaraan gegee word by 'n groep getroude Engelsprekende Suid-Afrikaanse vroue met ten minste een kind, het getoon dat die wisselwerking tussen die behoefte aan mag en lewensomstandighede die wyse bepaal waarop die magsdryfveer manifesteer. Werk eerder as die huis het meer geleentheid gebied om dié dryfveer te bevredig. Dit is waarskynlik dat na gelang meer massageproduseerde voedsel beskikbaar word en outomatisering in die huis toeneem, meer vroue hulle na die werksituasie sal wend ten einde 'n behoefte aan mag te bevredig. Dit is egter onwaarskynlik dat Engelssprekende vroue die selfgeldende of mededingende gedragpatrone wat tiperend van mans is, sal aanneem om aan die magsbehoefte uitdrukking te gee. Daarenteen neig hulle om op ander wyses as mans 'n behoefte aan mag in die werksituasie uit te leef, byvoorbeeld deur van hulle opleiding en vernuf gebruik te maak. Ander behoeftes soos dié aan affiliasie word ook in die werksituasie eerder as die betreklike geïsoleerdheid van die moderne huis bevredig. Verdere navorsing is nodig ten einde te bepaal in watter mate die veranderende rolle van Suid-Afrikaanse vroue 'n uitwerking het op die wyse waarop ander dryfvere soos die behoefte aan affiliasie en

sukses uitdrukking vind in die werksituasie. In die ondersoek is bevind dat respondente wat affiliasie nagestreef het minder geneig was om te werk ten einde magsdoelwitte te bereik.

Die feit dat daar geen verband gevind is tussen 'n behoefte aan mag en 'n geldingsdrang nie, dui daarop dat direkte selfgelding nie aan die respondente 'n gevoel van mag gegee het nie. Die aanwending van haar vermoëns ten behoeve van ander, eerder as selfgelding het aan die vroue 'n magsgevoel gegee.

Die konsep dat 'n dryfveer om selfgelding te vrees in verhouding tot magstrewende ontwikkel, blyk nuttig te wees. Dit behoort verder nagevors te word en 'n omvattender nasienstelsel, wekprosedure en oefenhandleiding daargestel te word om aan te pas by die TAT-metodes wat tans gebruik word om dryfvere te evalueer. Vrees vir selfgelding is nie noodwendig tot vroue beperk nie, maar kan in sekere gevalle op mans van toepassing wees sowel as op die minder bevoorregte groepe in die samelewing wat dikwels in 'n onderdanige rol verkeer, byvoorbeeld ongeskoolde arbeiders.

Die versorgende mag van vroue is 'n belangrike aspek van die wyse waarop hulle uitdrukking gee aan 'n magsbehoefte. Die tipes werk wat tradisioneel met vroue geassosieer word, byvoorbeeld verpleging, onderwys, paramediese en sekretariële werk, het tewens almal 'n mate van versorging daaraan verbonde. Vroue gee waarskynlik voorkeur aan hierdie beroepe omdat hulle daardeur die geleentheid gebied word om sterk en magtig te voel deur ander te versorg, of ander se loopbane te help bevorder, soos in die geval van 'n sekretaresse. Verdere navorsing is nodig ten einde lig te werp op watter behoeftes deur bepaalde beroepe bevredig word en die mate

waarin spesifieke dryfvere, byvoorbeeld die behoefte aan mag, die betrokke persoon gevoelig maak vir die moontlikheid van doelwitbereiking ten einde 'n bepaalde behoefte te bevredig in die werksituasie. Aangesien 'n groot aantal van die respondente in tradisioneel vroulike beroepe werksaam was, was dit nie in hierdie studie moontlik om ondersoek in te stel na die invloed wat die magsbehoefte op beroepskeuse uitoefen nie.

Waarskynlik die tersaaklikste bevinding betreffende die werksituasie en die magstrewe by vroue, is dat vroue nie deur regstreekse selfgelding aan laasgenoemde uitdrukking gee nie. Die verband wat gevind is tussen doeltreffende bestuur en die magstrewe by mans (McClelland 1985) geld nie noodwendig vir vroue nie. Die aanname kan dus nie gemaak word nie dat vroue met 'n hoë magsdryfveer op dieselfde wyse in 'n bestuursrol sal optree as mans met 'n behoefte aan mag. Die verband tussen mag en selfgelding is op 'n manlike norm gegrond. Gevolglik is dit onwaarskynlik dat die huidige tekort aan hoëvlakbestuursmannekrag in enige beduidende mate te bowe gekom sal word deur van vroue gebruik te maak, aangesien die tipe doelwitte wat vroue tans nastreef ten einde aan 'n magstrewe uiting te gee, verskil van dié van mans. Die motivering vir selfgelding by mans in bestuursposte is 'n strewe na mag. Dit geld nie vir vroue nie. Verwagtings en aansporing verskil vir mans en vroue in 'n situasie waar magstrewe gewek word, en 'n vrees vir selfgelding kan intree tussen die magstrewe en die bereiking van magsdoelwitte deur direkte selfgelding. Laasgenoemde is 'n noodsaaklike komponent van doeltreffende bestuur.

Daarenteen sal 'n vrou met 'n interne beheerlokus en wat 'n hoë selfbeeld het, ekstravert is en "manlike" eienskappe in haar geslagsrol-identiteit opgeneem het waarskynlik beter in staat wees om 'n bestuurspos

doeltreffend te hanteer, ongeag die intensiteit van haar behoefte aan mag. Selfversekerde, selfgeldende vroue behoort in bestuursposte aangestel te word eerder as diegene met 'n sterk behoefte aan mag. Hulle hoë selfbeeld en geslagsroltransendensie sal hulle beter as die meer "vroulike" vrou in staat stel om die eise wat die werk stel te hanteer.

Een rede waarom vroue nie tegniese beroepe betree nie, is moontlik omdat dit baie min geleentheid bied om 'n behoefte aan mag uit te leef deur ander behulpsaam te wees of deur plaasvervanging. Voorts bied hierdie beroepe min geleentheid om uiting te gee aan mag by wyse van tradisioneel vroulike gedrag. Dit sou derhalwe moeilik wees om te poog om die huidige tekort aan tegniese vaardigheid uit vroulike geledere aan te vul. Ofskoon hulle waarskynlik oor die nodige vermoëns beskik, is dit onwaarskynlik dat dié tipes werk die magsdoelwitte sal bied wat vroue in die werksituasie soek. Andersyds sal die vroue met 'n hoë selfgeldingsdrang wat stereotipe manlike eienskappe in haar persoonlikheid opgeneem het, ekstravert is en 'n hoë selfbeeld het, beter in staat wees om by hierdie tipes beroepe aan te pas en sukses daarin te behaal as die meer tradisioneel "vroulike" vrou.

Indien vroue aangemoedig word om beroepe te betree wat hoë tegniese of bestuursvernuf vereis, sal hulle benadering tot die werk waarskynlik verskil van dié van mans, omdat vroue ander uitdrukkingswyses vir die behoefte aan mag nastreef. Verdere navorsing is derhalwe nodig om aan te dui hoedanig vroue die eise van die werksituasie hanteer wat op manlike norme gebaseer is en toepasliker vir mans as vir vroue is.

Kultuurverskille wat, soos in vroeër studies aangedui is, 'n sterk invloed uitoefen op die wyse waarop uitdrukking

gegee word aan 'n behoefte aan mag, het dit noodsaaklik gemaak om die studie tot Engelssprekende vroue te beperk. Afrikaanssprekendes kan moontlik op 'n ander wyse uitdrukking daaraan gee. Aangesien laasgenoemde groep meer waarde heg aan huishoudelike vaardighede, sal die huis waarskynlik aan die Afrikaanssprekende vrou baie geleenthede bied om die behoefte aan mag uit te leef.

Wat vroue van ander bevolkingsgroepe in Suid-Afrika betref, kan die verband tussen behoefte aan mag en die doelwitte wat in dié verband nagestreef word waarskynlik heeltemal verskil van dié met betrekking tot die Engelsprekende vroue wat in die ondersoek gebruik is. Geleenthede wat beskikbaar is vir die uitlewing van die behoefte aan mag sal 'n invloed uitoefen op die wyses waarop uitdrukking gegee word aan hierdie dryfveer. Verdere navorsing is nodig ten einde moontlike verskille aan die lig te bring.

Dit sou interessant wees om ondersoek in te stel na die wyse waarop uitdrukking gegee word aan 'n behoefte aan mag met betrekking tot die huidige tussengroepkontak in Suid-Afrika.

Die wyse waarop daar binne 'n bepaalde kultuurgroep aan mag uitdrukking gegee word, blyk dikwels uit die betrokke groep se mites, legendes en kinderverhale (McClelland 1975). 'n Beter begrip van die wyse waarop die verskillende groepe poog om hul magsdoelwitte te bereik, kan lei tot 'n beter begrip van ons ingewikkelde samelewing. McClelland (1975) tref byvoorbeeld 'n vergelyking tussen die wyse waarop mag in die Indiese samelewing verkry word deur aan ander te gee, en die machismomagsdoelwitte van die Mexikaanse samelewing. 'n Beter begrip van die mate waarin kultuur die uitdrukking van behoeftes wysig, insluitende die behoefte aan mag, bied 'n beter insig in

ander kultuurgroepe. Selfs 'n basiese behoefte soos die hongerdrang word gewysig deur sosiale taboes en voedselvoorkeure.

Dit kan verder interessant wees om die ander konsepte en persoonlikheidsveranderlikes waarna ondersoek ingestel is met ander kultuurgroepe in verband te bring. Selfgelling, beheerlokus, geslagsrol-identiteit en selfbeeld kan ook deur kultuur beïnvloed word. So kan die vroulike stereotipes byvoorbeeld verskil, en kan vroulikheid 'n ander betekenis hê in verskillende kultuurgroepe.

Die betrokke konstrukte, naamlik 'n behoefte aan mag en die dryfveer om selfgelling te vrees, het geblyk nuttig te wees ten einde 'n beter begrip te kry van 'n groep Engelssprekende Suid-Afrikaanse vroue. Verdere navorsing waarin hierdie konsepte op ander groepe toegepas word, kan van waarde wees.

APPENDIX 1

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Instituut vir
Mannekragnavorsing
(IMAN)

institute for
Manpower Research
(IMAN)



RGN·HSRC

Navrae Enquiries Mrs. R. Hirschowitz

Verwysing Reference

Telefoon Bylyn 264
Telephone (012)28-3944 Extension

U verwysing Your reference

Dear Participant

THE REACTIONS OF WOMEN TO THE DEMANDS OF MODERN LIFE

The Institute for Manpower Research of the Human Sciences Research Council is undertaking an investigation to gain a better understanding of how South African women view their life situation. Your contribution to this project is very valuable. Please answer all questions as frankly as possible. It is important to realise that there are no right or wrong answers as we wish to determine how women react to the demands of modern life. All information supplied by you will be regarded as strictly confidential. A report on our findings will be published. In this report, no information on any individual will be disclosed; results will be published in the form of group findings.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
INSTITUTE FOR MANPOWER RESEARCH

CARD NUMBER											1	1
RECORD NUMBER												2-4
PROJECT NUMBER	M	N	A	F	O	1	R	O	O	2		5-14
CO-WORKER NUMBER												15-23

		Office use	
1	<u>Age</u> years	<input type="checkbox"/>	24-25
2	<u>Your educational qualifications:</u> Please indicate below		
2.1	The highest standard which you passed at school. (e.g. Std 8, Matriculation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	26-27
2.2	Postschool academic degrees and diplomas (e.g. B.A., teacher's diploma)	<input type="checkbox"/>	28
2.3	Other postschool qualifications (e.g. typing, bookkeeping)	<input type="checkbox"/>	29
3	<u>Your occupation:</u> Which one of the following applies to you?		
3.1	I am a full-time housewife	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	
3.2	I am a housewife but also have a paid job outside the home	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	30
3.3	I am a housewife but also earn an income from extra work I do at home	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	
3.4	Other (e.g. I help my husband; I run my own business etc. Please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>	31-32
(a)	<u>If you are not engaged in paid work at present</u>		
(i)	Have you ever worked in a paid job since completing your education? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 1 No <input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
(ii)	Please indicate the main reason why you are not employed in paid work at present	<input type="checkbox"/>	34-35
(iii)	If you could choose, would you prefer to be a full-time housewife, or would you like to engage in paid work? Preference: Full-time housewife <input type="checkbox"/> 1 Paid work <input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
(iv)	Do you plan to work at any stage in the future? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 1 No <input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	37
	If yes: When will that be?.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	38-39

(b) If you are engaged in paid work at present

Office use

(i) Give a brief description of the work you do. (For example nursing sister in an intensive care unit.)

.....

40-41

(ii) On average how many hours per week do you spend on work activities?

.....hours per week

42-43

(iii) Would you prefer to be a full-time housewife?

Yes 1 No 2

44

(iv) Please rate each of the following reasons for working as they apply to you. Please work quickly. Your first impressions are the most important.

- To support myself and the family
- To supplement the family income
- To develop a career for myself
- To use my talents and abilities
- To make use of my training
- To escape from my role as housewife
- To avoid boredom
- To form social contacts
- To feel useful
- Other (Please specify).....

	Not at all important					Very important				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To support myself and the family										
To supplement the family income										
To develop a career for myself										
To use my talents and abilities										
To make use of my training										
To escape from my role as housewife										
To avoid boredom										
To form social contacts										
To feel useful										
Other (Please specify).....										
.....	1	2	3	4	5					

45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53

54-55

4 Your children

4.1 Do you have any children?

Yes 1 No 2

56

4.2 If YES, please indicate the number of children in each category.

Pre-school children	Primary school children	High school children	Post-school children: financially dependent	Other children: financially independent

PS 57
 P 58
 H 59
 FD 60
 FI 61
 T 62-63

5 Your own brothers and sisters

(a) How many brothers and sisters do you have?

64

(b) Please indicate your ordinal position in your family of origin (for example oldest child; youngest child).

65

6

Women's roles: Please indicate how you feel about women's roles by ticking one of the following in each section. Please work quickly. We want your first reactions.

Office use

A	(i) The husband as head of the family should take all major decisions and the wife should accept his authority.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	66
	(ii) The husband should be regarded as the head of the family, and the wife plays a strong supportive role.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	(iii) There should be complete equality for men and women in regard to authority and decision-making.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
B	(i) A woman's most important role is to care for her husband and children; other roles are unimportant.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	67
	(ii) Although caring for husband and children are very important roles, other roles outside family life should also be developed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	(iii) It is very important for a woman to have many roles and interests outside the family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
C	(i) The husband should be the sole breadwinner of the family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	68
	(ii) The husband should be the main breadwinner of the family, and the wife may have a supportive earning role.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	(iii) Husbands and wives should both be breadwinners; it does not matter who is the main breadwinner.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
D	(i) The wife should assume responsibility for all aspects of childcare, except for disciplining the children.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	69
	(ii) Childcare is the wife's responsibility but the husband should help when necessary.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	(iii) Childcare is a joint responsibility; both husband and wife should be involved in all aspects.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
E	(i) It is solely the wife's responsibility to see that the home runs smoothly and household tasks get done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	70
	(ii) It is mainly the wife's responsibility to see that the home runs smoothly, but the husband should contribute his share.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	(iii) Both husband and wife are equally responsible for seeing the home runs smoothly and household tasks get done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

7 Yourself

Office use

7.1 Please tick the appropriate square for each item to show how you feel about yourself. Please work quickly. We want your first reactions, not a long drawn out thought process.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
1	I feel that I am a person of worth at least on an equal plane with others.	1	2	3	4		71
2	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1	2	3	4		72
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4		73
4	I am able to do most things as well as other people.	1	2	3	4		74
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4		75
6	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4		76
7	On the whole I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4		77
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4		78
9	I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4		79
10	At times I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4		80

7.2 Indicate how characteristic or descriptive each of the following statements is of you by ticking the appropriate column below. Please answer quickly; your first impressions are the most important.

+3	Very characteristic of me, extremely descriptive						
+2	Rather characteristic of me, quite descriptive					2	1
+1	Somewhat characteristic of me, slightly descriptive						2-23
-1	Somewhat uncharacteristic of me, slightly non-descriptive						
-2	Rather uncharacteristic of me, quite non-descriptive						24-25
-3	Very uncharacteristic of me, extremely non-descriptive						

		De- scribes me			Does not describe me			
		+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	
1	Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	26
2	I have hesitated to accept dates because of "shyness".	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	27
3	When the food served at a restaurant is not done to my satisfaction, I complain about it to the waiter or waitress.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	28
4	I am careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings, even when I feel I have been injured.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	29

		De- scribes me			Does not describe me			Office use
		←		→	←		→	
5	If a salesman has gone to considerable trouble to show me merchandise which is not quite suitable, I have a difficult time saying "No".	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	30
6	When I'm asked to do something, I insist upon knowing why.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	31
7	There are times when I look for a good vigorous argument.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	32
8	I strive to get ahead as well as most people in my position.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	33
9	To be honest, people often take advantage of me.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	34
10	I enjoy starting conversations with new acquaintances and strangers.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	35
11	I often do not know what to say to attractive persons of the opposite sex.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	36
12	I hesitate to make phone calls to business establishments and institutions.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	37
13	I would rather apply for a job by writing letters than by going through with personal interviews.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	38
14	I find it embarrassing to return merchandise.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	39
15	If a close and respected relative were annoying me, I would smother my feelings rather than express my annoyance.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	40
16	I have avoided asking questions for fear of sounding stupid.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	41
17	During an argument I am sometimes afraid I will get so upset that I will shake all over.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	42
18	If a famed and respected lecturer makes a statement which I think is incorrect I will have the audience hear my point of view as well.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	43
19	I avoid arguing over prices with clerks and salesmen.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	44
20	When I have done something important or worthwhile, I manage to let others know about it.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	45
21	I am open and frank about my feelings.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	46
22	If someone has been spreading false and bad stories about me I would see him (her) as soon as possible to have a talk about it.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	47
23	I often have a hard time saying "No".	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	48
24	I tend to bottle up my emotions rather than make a scene.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	49
25	I complain about poor service in a restaurant and elsewhere.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	50
26	When I am complimented, I sometimes just do not know what to say.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	51

		De- scribes me			Does not describe me			Office use
27	If a couple near me in the theatre or a lecture were conversing rather loudly, I would ask them to be quiet or take their conversation elsewhere.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	3 1 2-23 24
28	Anyone attempting to push ahead of me in a line is in for a good battle.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	25
29	I am quick to express an opinion.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	26
30	There are times when I just cannot say anything.	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	27

7.3 Please indicate on a seven-point scale how well each of these characteristics describes you. Please answer quickly; your first impressions are the most important. 28-30

Please tick each item		<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Never true Never or al- most Always true Always or almost </div>							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	Self-reliant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	31
2	Yielding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	32
3	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	33
4	Defends own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	34
5	Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	35
6	Moody	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	36
7	Independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	37
8	Shy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	38
9	Conscientious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	39
10	Athletic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	40
11	Affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	41
12	Theatrical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	42
13	Assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	43
14	Flatterable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	44
15	Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	45
16	Strong personality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	46
17	Loyal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	47
18	Unpredictable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	48
19	Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	49
20	Feminine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	50
21	Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	51
22	Analytical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	52
23	Sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	53
24	Jealous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	54
25	Has leadership abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	55
26	Sensitive to needs of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	56
27	Truthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	57
28	Willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	58
29	Understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	59
30	Secretive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	60
31	Makes decisions easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	61

Please tick each item

		<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Never or almost never true Always or almost always true </div>							Office use	
									4	
32	Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	24
33	Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	25
34	Self-sufficient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	26
35	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	27
36	Conceited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	28
37	Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	29
38	Soft-spoken	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	30
39	Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	31
40	Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	32
41	Warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
42	Solemn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	34
43	Willing to take a stand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	35
44	Tender	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
45	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	37
46	Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	38
47	Gullible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	39
48	Inefficient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	40
49	Acts as a leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	41
50	Childlike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	42
51	Adaptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	43
52	Individualistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	44
53	Does not use harsh language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	45
54	Unsystematic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	46
55	Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	47
56	Loves children	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	48
57	Tactful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	49
58	Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	50
59	Gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	51
60	Conventional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	52
M Scale										
<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 53-55										
F Scale										
<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 56-58										
N Scale										
<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 59-61										

7.4 Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following.

	Office use						
	5	1	2-23				
	Strongly agree	Agree somewhat	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Strongly disagree	
	+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3	
1 Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.							24
2 To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings.							25
3 I feel that what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.							26
4 Whether or not I become involved in a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am.							27
5 When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.							28
6 Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interests from bad luck happening.							29
7 When I get what I want, it is usually because I'm lucky.							30
8 Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power.							31
9 How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.							32
10 I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.							33
11 My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.							34
12 Whether or not I become involved in a car accident is mostly a matter of luck.							35
13 People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.							36
14 It is not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.							37
15 Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.							38
16 Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I am lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.							39
17 If important people were to decide they did not like me, I probably would not make many friends.							40
18 I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.							41
19 I am usually able to protect my personal interests.							42
20 Whether or not I become involved in a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.							43
21 When I get what I want, it is usually because I worked hard for it.							44
22 In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.							45
23 My life is determined by my own actions.							46
24 It is chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends.							47

I scale
 48-49

P scale
 50-51

C scale
 52-53

8 Personal habits

Office use

8.1 Please indicate how often you are involved in each of the following

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Never → Very often </div>					
Physical fitness exercises (jogging, running, exercise classes)	1	2	3	4	5	54
Yoga or meditation	1	2	3	4	5	55
Dieting	1	2	3	4	5	56

8.2 Do you play any sport on a regular basis?

Yes 1 No 2

57

If Yes: Please specify

..... 58-59

.....

8.3 How important is personal appearance to you? (Tick one.)

(1) Very important; it makes a good impression to be well groomed. 1

(2) Important; it helps to make a good impression to be well groomed. 2

(3) Moderately important; it helps initially to make a good impression. 3

(4) Slightly important; other aspects of personality are more important in making a good impression. 4

(5) Not at all important; you cannot judge a book by its cover. 5

60

9 Activities

9.1 On average, how often do you make bets (with anyone about anything) for R1 or more (Tick one.)

Twice a week or more 5

About once a week 4

About once a month 3

About once a year 2

Never 1

61

9.2 Some people participate in games of chance which involve taking risks. Please indicate how often, if ever, you participate in each of the following:

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Never Very often </div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-top: 5px;"> → </div>					Office use
	1	2	3	4	5	
Card games						62
Horse racing						63
Casino games						64
Machine gambling games (e.g. one-armed bandit)						65

9.3 Now think of an occasion when you would be drinking alcohol; how many drinks would you have?

I do not drink	1	3-4 drinks	4		
1 drink or less	2	5-7 drinks	5		
2 drinks	3	8 or more drinks	6		

9.4 How often in the past year have you been involved in a situation where you would be drinking alcohol?

Never	1	2-4 times a month	4		
1-5 times a year	2	2-3 times a week	5		
6-12 times a year	3	4 or more times a week	6		

10 If you were introduced to a woman and you were told she is powerful and influential:

(1) Describe her clothes and accessories (watch, jewellery, shoes, etc.)

68-69

(2) What car would she drive?.....

70

(3) State her probable home address

71

		Office use
(4)	What kind of home would she live in?	
	
	72
(5)	What kind of furniture, paintings, carpets, curtains etc. would you expect to find in this powerful and influential woman's home?	73-74
(6)	Would she work? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 1 No <input type="checkbox"/> 2	75
	If yes, what work would she be doing?	
	76-77
		6
		1 2-23
(7)	Would her husband work? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 1 No <input type="checkbox"/> 2	24
	If yes, what work would he be doing?	
	25-26
(8)	How old would you expect a powerful and influential woman to be?	
 years.	27-28

10.1 Do you personally

Please tick each appropriate column

Office use

	Yes	No			
		but would like to	do not want to		
(1) own the type of clothes suggested for her?	3	2	1		29
(2) own the type of accessories suggested for her?	3	2	1		30
(3) own the type of car suggested for her?	3	2	1		31
(4) live in the area suggested for her?	3	2	1		32
(5) have a home similar to the one you described?	3	2	1		33
(6) own the furnishings you described?	3	2	1		34
(7) do the kind of work you suggested for her	3	2	1		35
(8) think your husband does the kind of job you suggested for her husband?	3	2	1		36

11 Organizations

Please indicate in the table below, to which, if any, organizations you belong (include professional, social, political and religious organizations as well as charities) and all other details asked for in relation to these organizations

Name of organization	Office/s held in the last 3 years (e.g. treasurer)	Voluntary work you do for the organization (e.g. fund-raising)		
1				37
2				38
3				39
4				
5				

11.1 Do you enjoy being part of these organizations?

Yes 1 No 2

40

If Yes: Which organizations?.....

.....

41

Why do you enjoy it?

.....

42-43

Office use

If No: Which organizations?

44

Why don't you enjoy it?

45-46

11.2 Please indicate how often the following apply to you:

	Never → Very often					
	1	2	3	4	5	
People come to me to ask for advice.	1	2	3	4	5	47
People come to me for help in times of trouble.	1	2	3	4	5	48
My friends confide in me and discuss personal problems with me.	1	2	3	4	5	49
I am able to laugh at the mistakes I make.	1	2	3	4	5	50

12 Please rate, in general terms, how important status and prestige are to you.

Not at all important			Very important	
1	2	3	4	5

13 How would you rate the following aspects of your marriage?

	Poor → Very good					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Companionship	1	2	3	4	5	51
Shared interests	1	2	3	4	5	52
Sexual relationship	1	2	3	4	5	53
Solving problems together	1	2	3	4	5	54
Overcoming difficulties together	1	2	3	4	5	55
Emotional support	1	2	3	4	5	56
Communication	1	2	3	4	5	57

14.1 Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements applies to you in your relationship with your husband.

Office use

	Not at all → Very much					
	1	2	3	4	5	
I am more ambitious for my husband than myself.	1	2	3	4	5	58
I enjoy my husband's achievements more than my own.	1	2	3	4	5	59
I am involved in the work my husband does more than my own work.	1	2	3	4	5	60
I am involved in my husband's interests and hobbies more than my own.	1	2	3	4	5	61
I am so busy with my husband's needs that I have no time for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	62
I am reluctant to make decisions without consulting my husband.	1	2	3	4	5	63
I am reluctant to spend money on the household without my husband's consent.	1	2	3	4	5	64

14.2 Please indicate to what extent each of the following statements applies to you in your relationship with your children.

	Not at all → Very much					
	1	2	3	4	5	
I am more ambitious for my children than for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	65
I enjoy my children's achievements more than my own.	1	2	3	4	5	66
I am involved in my children's interests and hobbies more than my own.	1	2	3	4	5	67
I am so busy with my children's needs that I have no time for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	68

15.1 Please complete these sentences:

The best thing about being a woman is

.....

.....

69-70

15.2 The worst thing about being a woman is

.....

.....

71-72

PICTURE STORY TEST
 PICTURE 1

Office use

1 What is happening? Who are the persons?

7 1
 2-23

.....

Imag 24
 Pa+ 25
 Pa- 26

2 What has led up to the situation? This is what has happened
 in the past?

N 27

.....

I 28
 Bw 29
 Ga+ 30
 Ga- 31

3 What is being thought? What is wanted?
 By whom?

G+ 32

.....

G- 33
 Eff 34

np 35-36

4 What will happen? What will be done?

.....

PICTURE 2

Office use

1 What is happening? Who are the persons?

.....
.....
.....
.....

Imag 37
Pa+ 38
Pa- 39

2 What has led up to the situation? This is what has happened
in the past?

.....
.....
.....
.....

N 40
I 41
Bw 42
Ga+ 43
Ga- 44
G+ 45

3 What is being thought? What is wanted?
By whom?

.....
.....
.....
.....

G- 46
Eff 47
np 48-49

4 What will happen? What will be done?

.....
.....
.....
.....

PICTURE 3

Office use

1 What is happening? Who are the persons?

.....
.....
.....
.....

Imag 50
Pa+ 51
Pa- 52

2 What has led up to the situation? This is what has happened
in the past?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

N 53
I 54
Bw 55
Ga+ 56
Ga- 57

3 What is being thought? What is wanted?
By whom?

.....
.....
.....
.....

G+ 58
G- 59
Eff 60
np 61-62

4 What will happen? What will be done?

.....
.....
.....
.....

PICTURE 4

Office use	
Imag	<input type="checkbox"/> 63
Pa+	<input type="checkbox"/> 64
Pa-	<input type="checkbox"/> 65
N	<input type="checkbox"/> 66
I	<input type="checkbox"/> 67
Bw	<input type="checkbox"/> 68
Ga+	<input type="checkbox"/> 69
Ga-	<input type="checkbox"/> 70
G+	<input type="checkbox"/> 71
G-	<input type="checkbox"/> 72
Eff	<input type="checkbox"/> 73
np	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 74-75

1 What is happening? Who are the persons?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2 What has led up to the situation? This is what has happened in the past?

.....
.....
.....
.....

3 What is being thought? What is wanted? By whom?

.....
.....
.....
.....

4 What will happen? What will be done?

.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX 2

THE AROUSAL PROCEDURE

THE MODERN WOMAN

Women are in the process of exciting change and the emergence of the modern woman is having a profound effect on Western societies.

The woman of tradition has drifted along passively with the cultural tide of the times. She has accepted things as they are, but not the modern woman. She is taking active measures to improve situations. The modern woman is trying to make a better life for all women. She is striving for equality of opportunity with men to enjoy a full life and she seeks the right to make decisions for herself, the right to determine her own destiny. She is more decisive. She is committed to a life of striving. She is changing as a person. She is more self-assertive and places more emphasis on reason and logic than women have in the past. Today's woman wants greater freedom.

It is not only what she is seeking that makes today's woman what she is. It is also the particular way she is seeking it. She is different from her older sister. The modern woman has an impact on the society in which she lives, moulding it, changing it, by the very force on her ideas. In this way, today's woman has a profound effect on those around her.

The modern woman demands equality in certain practical aspects of living. She demands equal freedom with man to experience and enjoy the good things of the world beyond the home. As part of her drive for equality she demands that women have equal opportunity to rise to executive status in business and that they be represented equally with men in all the various councils that govern the

state. The modern woman has a profound effect on society through her participation in the professions. These are areas where she feels she can assert herself, establish her full rights as a human being and at the same time enjoy new intellectual and emotional satisfactions beyond the home. Today's woman is actively invading the professions. The presence of women in medicine on an equal footing with men is doing much to counteract the cold technical approach which has developed in medicine; the advent of the modern woman in architecture has revolutionized the interior layout of the modern home. As regards the law, the modern woman is acutely aware that the law has been framed by men and she seeks both a broadening of the concept of justice for the individual and a liberalisation of many aspects of the law as it affects women.

The modern woman demands equality in sex. She is no longer the darling, the plaything of men. She feels that such a role is degrading. She wants to share rather than be desired.

She seeks something deeply satisfying in her interpersonal relationships. She wants relationships with others to be significant, to have meaning. Above all else the modern woman does not want to be thought of as a sex object.

The modern woman has done much to promote her cause by writing. She has burst forth into print to express her resentment about the lot of women. As a result of this, the whole Western World has come to know how she feels. She has the strength to pursue her cause and is not deflected from it.

Through her impact, the modern woman is producing corresponding changes in men. Sometimes she arouses men's hostility, but increasingly she is gaining men's admiration. Man's life is enriched by having an intellectual companion in his wife or woman friend. Today's woman adds to man's affluence. Her earnings contribute to the family resources and all benefit. She is more interesting and more fulfilled, more self-confident and more alive as a person.

Imagination, strength and courage are needed to become a modern woman. But the rewards are out there waiting for you if you grasp the opportunities to take an active part in change. Accept the challenge! Allow yourself to become a modern woman.

APPENDIX 3

THE NEUTRAL PROCEDURE

THE CASE OF THE VANISHING OBJECT

Have you a six or seven-month-old baby who snatches the glasses off your nose? If you do, you hardly need this piece of advice. Remove the glasses when the baby reaches for them, slip them in a pocket or behind a sofa pillow (and don't forget where you hid them!). Don't trouble to be sneaky about it, let the baby see you hide them. He will not go in search of them. He will stare at the place he last saw them - on your nose - then lose interest in the problem. He does not search for the glasses because he cannot imagine that they have an existence when he does not see them.

When the baby is around nine months old, don't rely on the old tricks. If he sees you remove your glasses and slip them behind a sofa pillow he will move the pillow and pounce on your glasses. He has learned that an object can be hidden from sight, yet still exist! He can follow its movements in your hand to the place of hiding and actively search for it there. This is a tremendous step in learning and one that is likely to be overlooked by the parents whose glasses, earrings, pipes, fountain pens and key cases are now not only lifted from their persons but defy safekeeping.

Now let's try this: Let the baby see you slip your glasses behind the pillow. Let him find them, ask him to give them to you, then hide the glasses under a second pillow. Now he is confused. He will search for the glasses under the first pillow, in the first hiding place, but he will not search for them in the second hiding place. This means that the baby can conceive of glasses having an existence when hidden, but only in one

place, the first hiding place where his search had earlier been successful. When the baby does not find the glasses under the first pillow, he continues to search for them there, but it does not occur to him to search for them in the second hiding place or anywhere else. An object can still vanish. In a few weeks he will extend his search from the first hiding place to the second one and he is on the way to the discovery that an object can be moved from place to place and still have a permanent existence.

If you continue these hiding procedures while your child is between one year and eighteen months, you will see that your baby is pretty good at following an object from your hand to two successive hiding places, if he can follow your movements with his eyes, but he cannot yet imagine the object existing some place if he has lost track of its movements through his eyes.

APPENDIX 4

THE PICTURES AND INSTRUCTIONS
FOR PICTURE STORY TEST

PICTURE STORY TEST

Instructions

This booklet contains 4 pictures, and your task is to tell a story that is suggested to you by each picture, and to write your stories in the answer booklet.

Try to imagine what is going on in each picture. Then tell what the situation is, what led up to the situation, what the people are thinking and feeling and what they will do. In other words, write as complete a story as you can - a story with a plot and characters.

You have 20 seconds to look at a picture and then four minutes to write your story about it. Write your first impressions and work rapidly. I will keep time. I will tell you when 20 seconds are up, then close your picture booklet and start writing. There are four sections. Each section should take about one minute. I will tell you when one minute is up so you can move into the next section. I will also tell you when it is time to finish your story, that is, when the four minutes are up and you are required to get ready for the next picture. There are no right or wrong stories or kinds of pictures, so you may feel free to write out as fully and as quickly as possible the story that comes into your mind as you imagine what is going on in each picture.

Now open your answer booklet. Notice that there is one page for writing each story. The same questions are asked on each page. The questions only serve as guidelines and will help you to finish all aspects of your story in the allotted time.

PICTURE 1





PICTURE 2

PICTURE 3



PICTURE 4



PICTURE 5



PICTURE 6



PICTURE 7



PICTURE 8



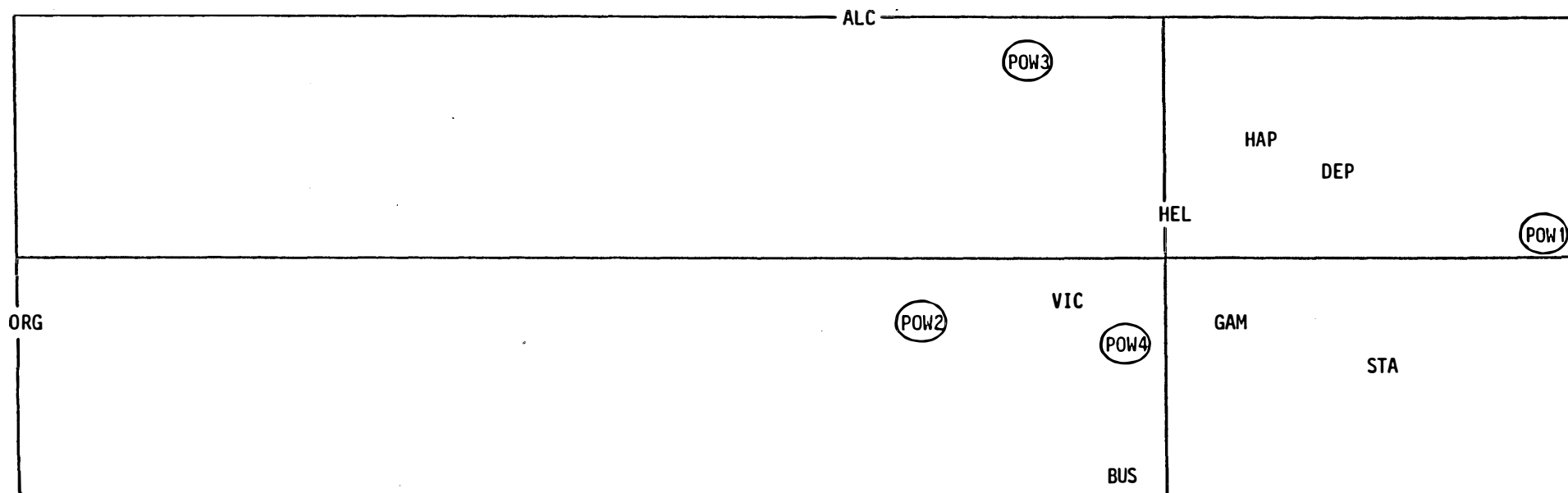
APPENDIX 5

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSES OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED
FOR POWER ACCORDING TO WORKING OR NON-WORKING CIRCUMSTANCES,
AGE GROUP AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS

APPENDIX 5

FIGURE 1

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER : RESPONDENTS IN PAID WORK



Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

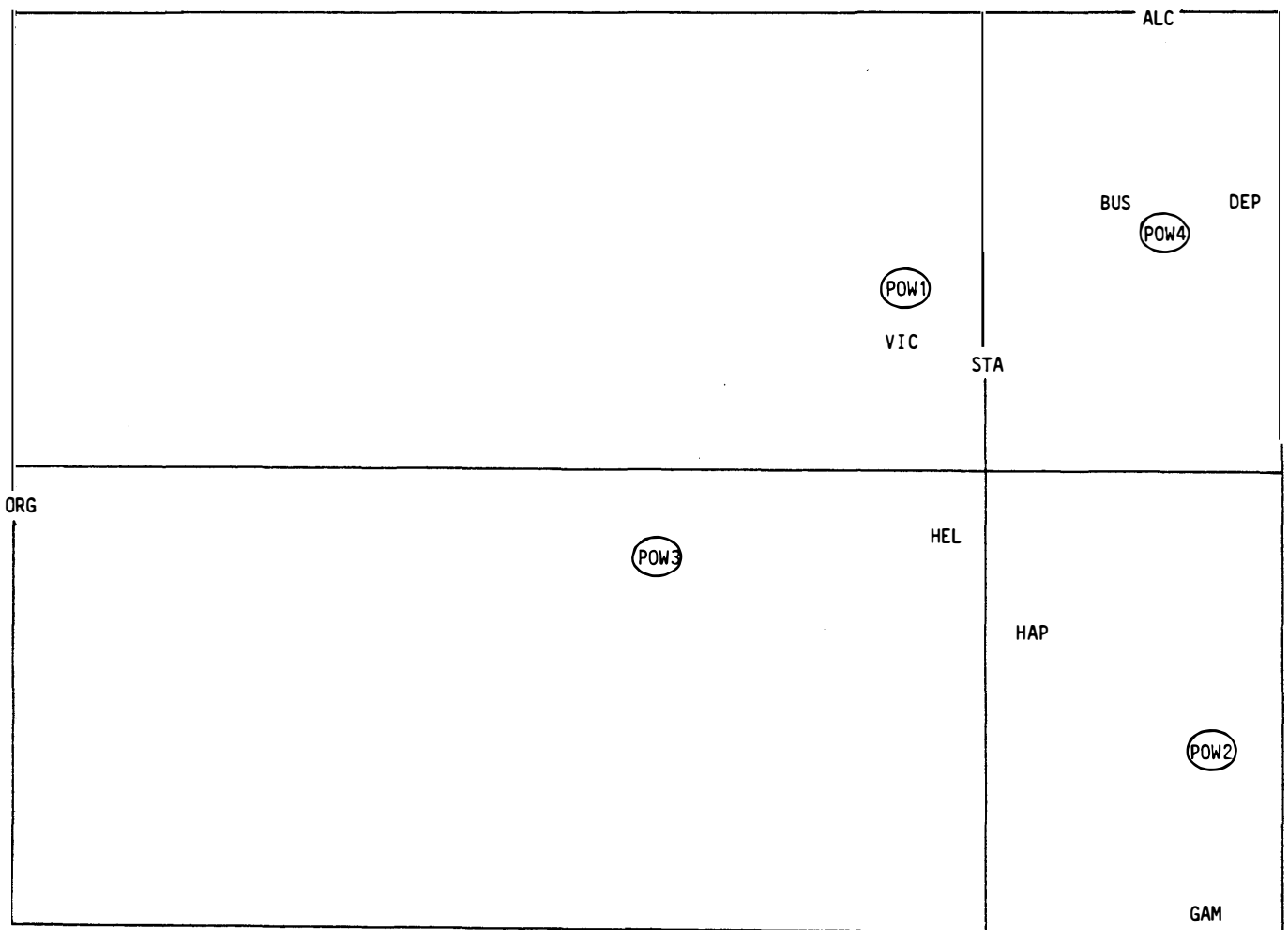
Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th percentile and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5

FIGURE 2

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER: NON WORKING RESPONDENTS



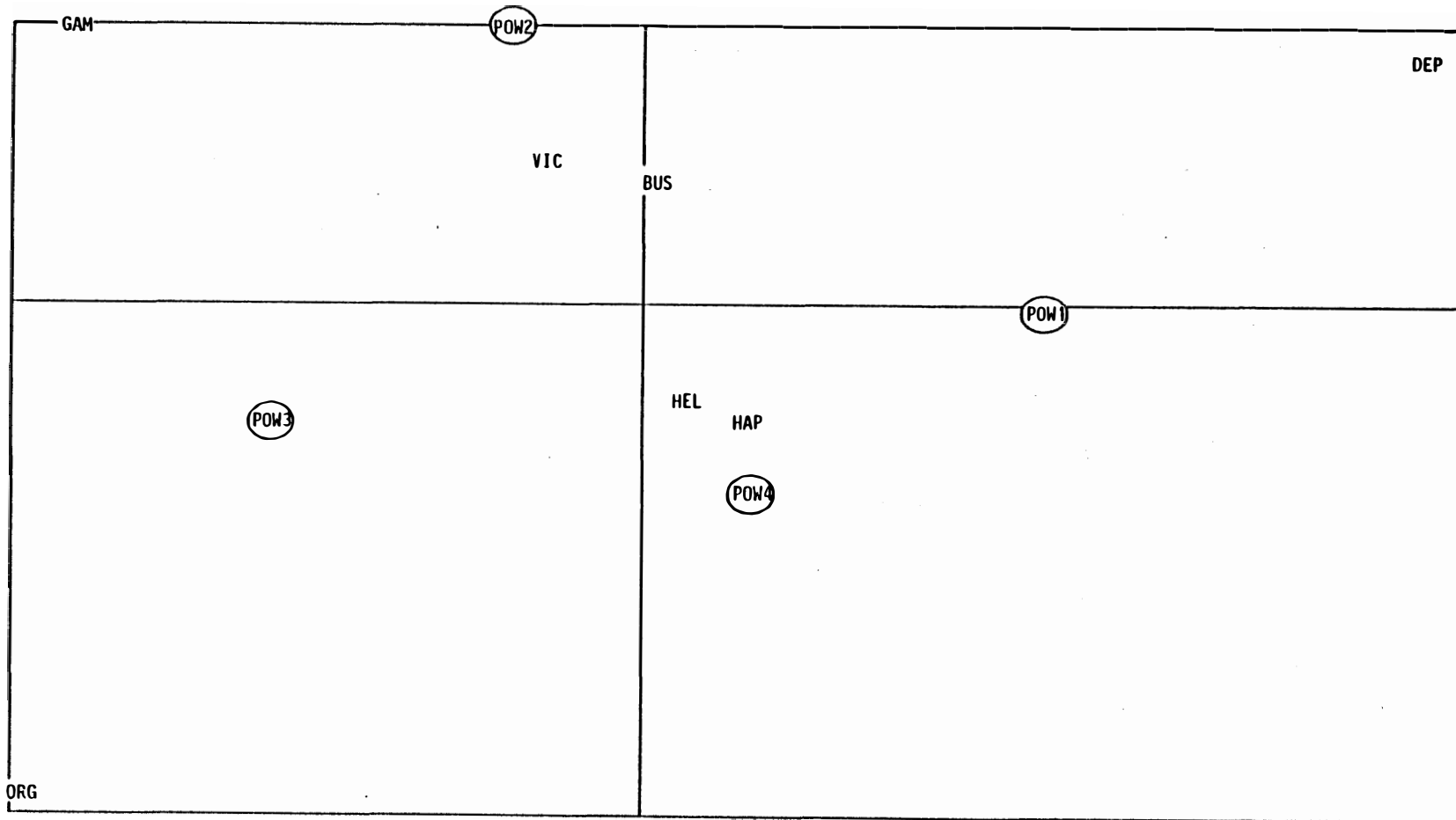
Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5
 FIGURE 3
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER: SUBJECTS AGED 33 YEARS OR LESS



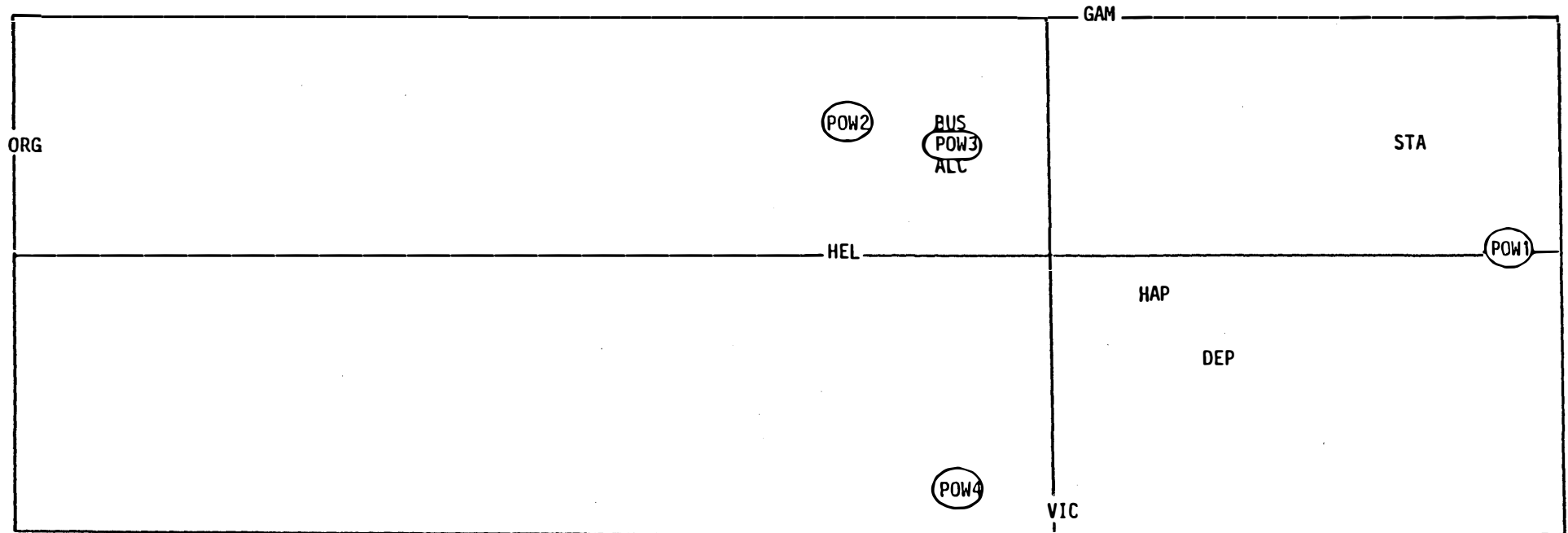
Behaviour patterns

BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs
 to have time for oneself
 DEP dependency on husband
 GAM gambling
 HAP happy marriage
 HEL helping behaviour
 ORG participating in organizations
 VIC vicarious identification with husband and
 children

Need for power

POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
 POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
 POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
 POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5
 FIGURE 4
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER : SUBJECTS AGED 34 TO 40 YEARS



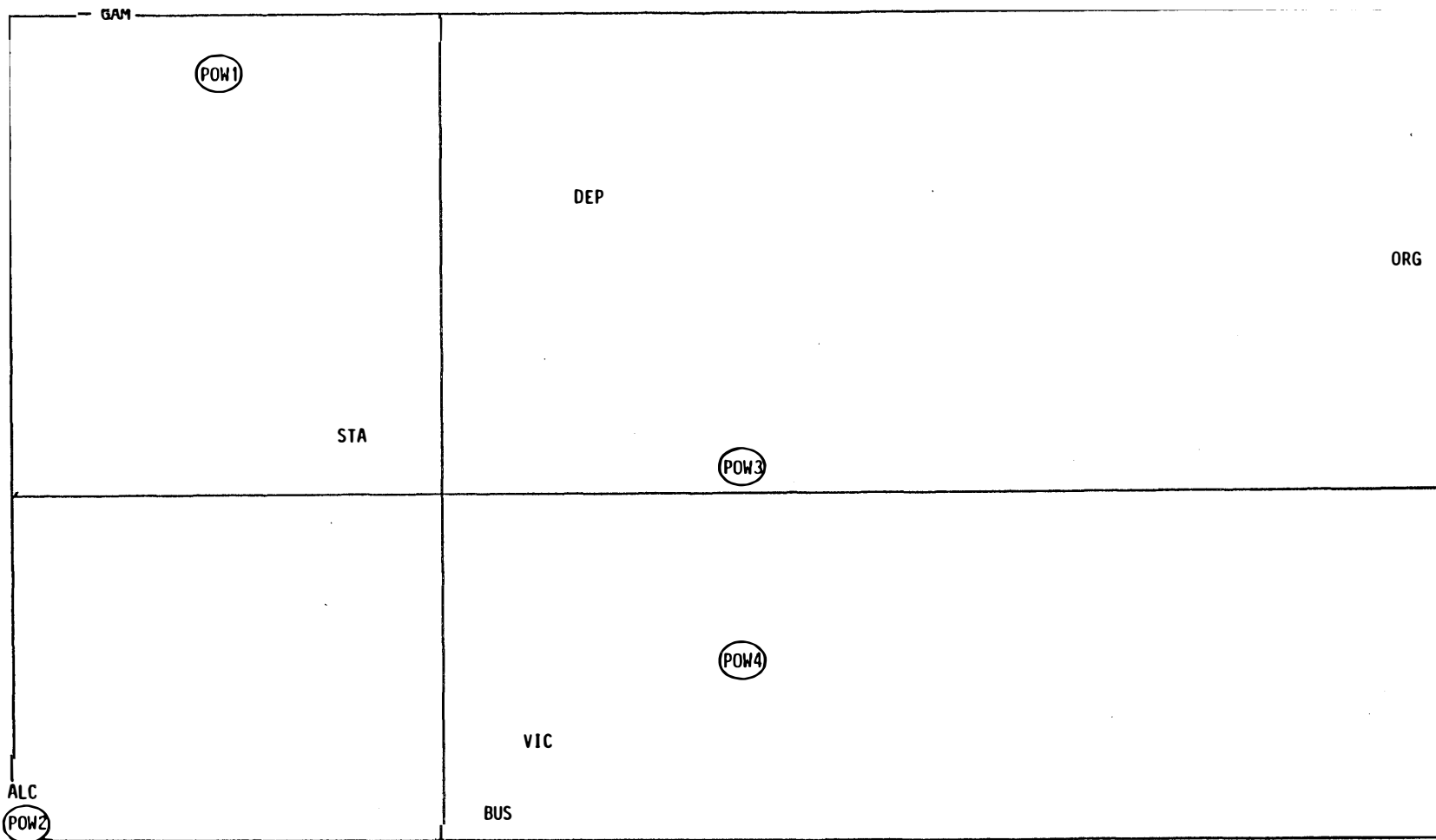
Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5
 FIGURE 5
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER: SUBJECTS AGED 41 TO 50 YEARS



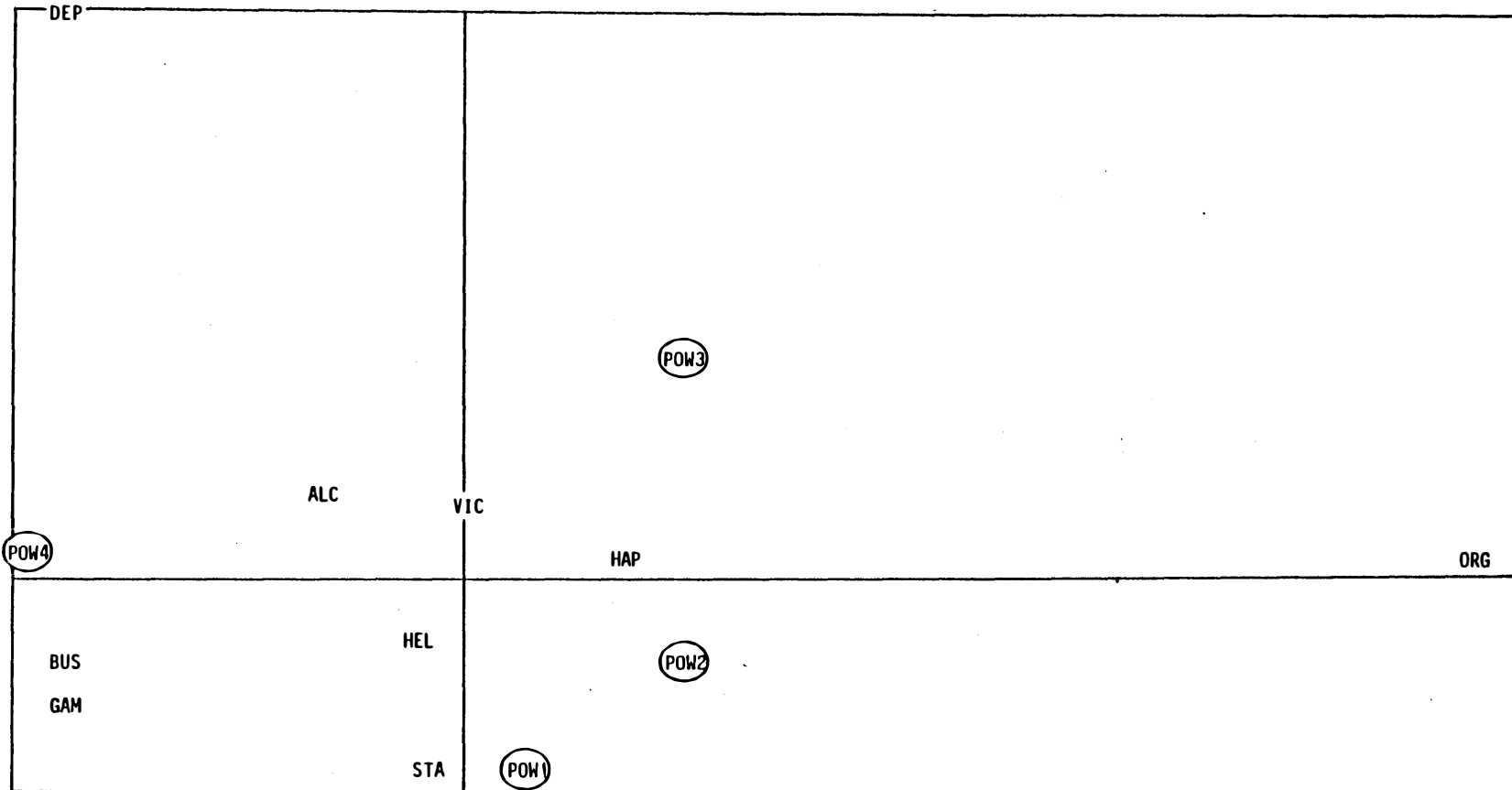
Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5
 FIGURE 6
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER: SUBJECTS AGED 51 AND OLDER



-213-

Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

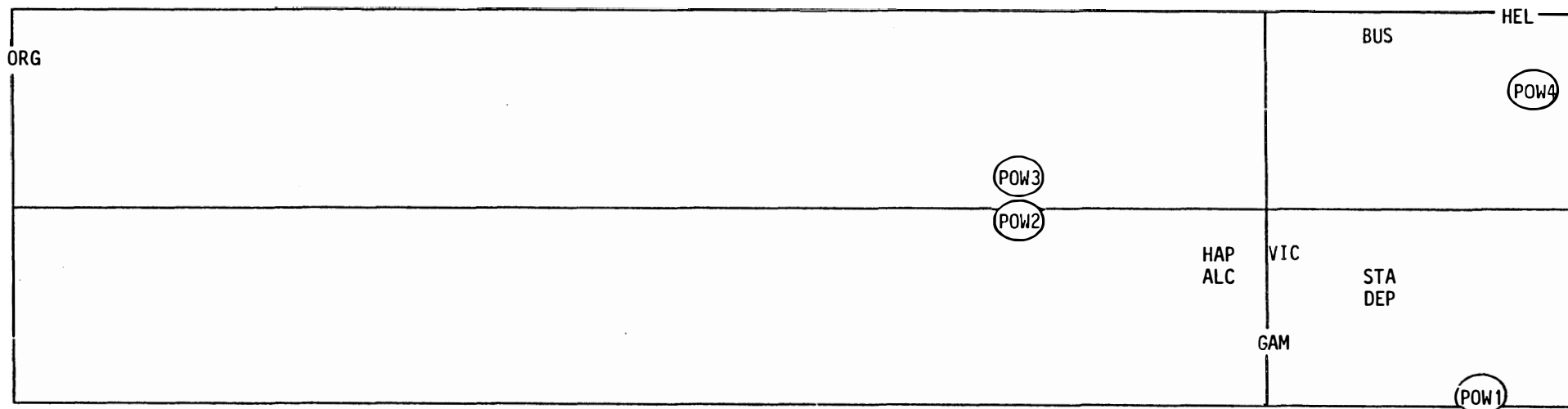
Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5

FIGURE 7

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER : MATRICULATED SUBJECTS



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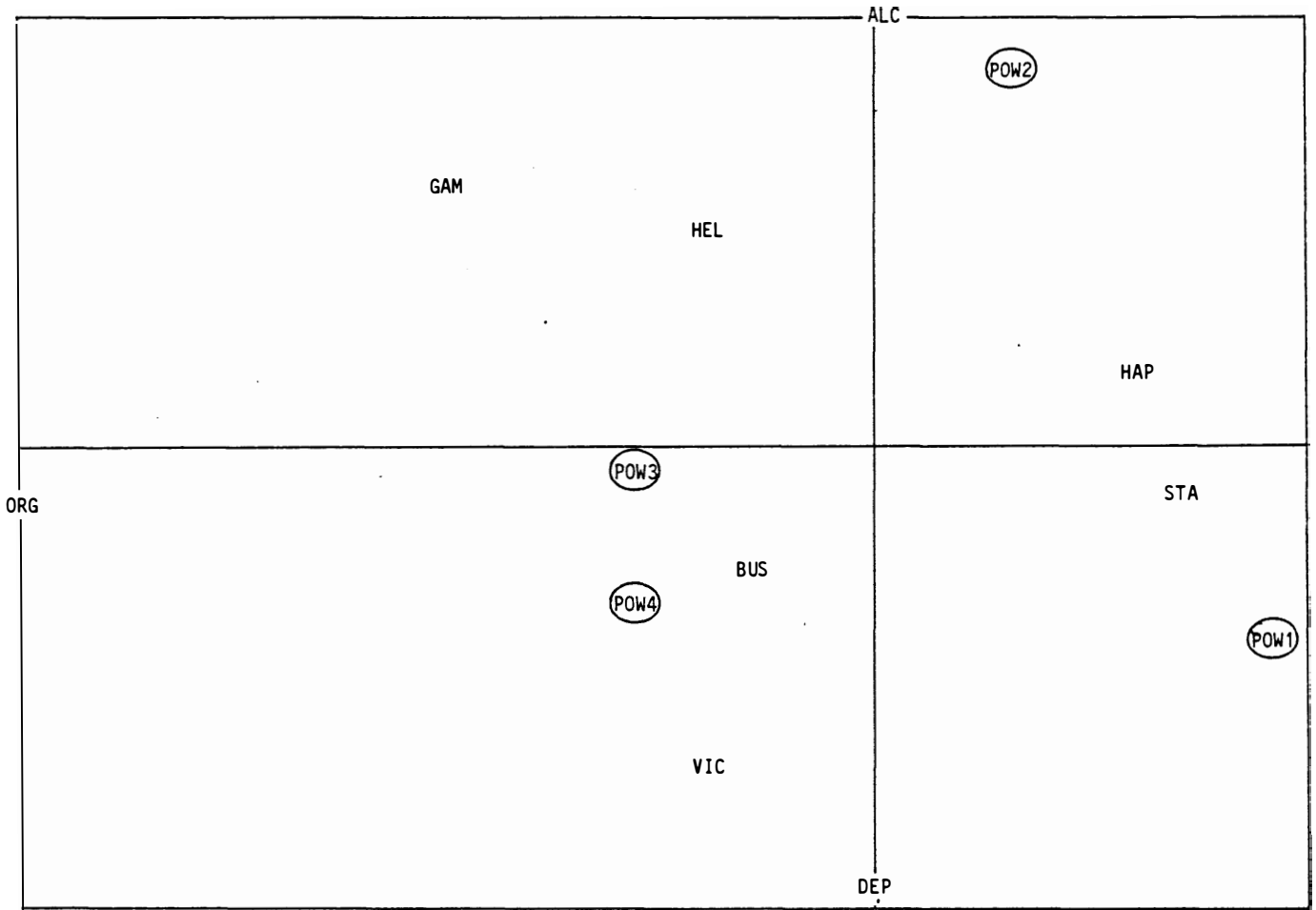
Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5
 FIGURE 8
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER: DEGREE AND DIPLOMA SUBJECTS



Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

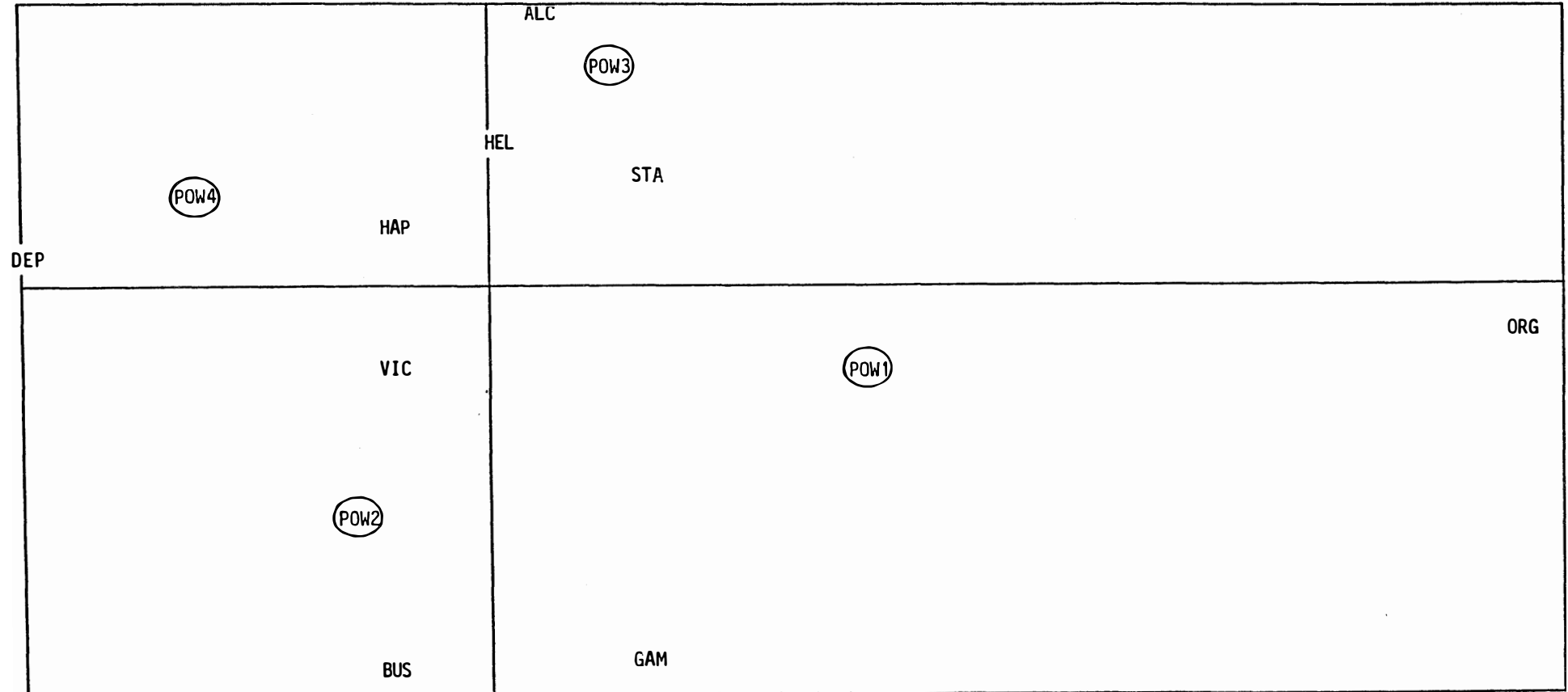
Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 5

FIGURE 9

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS AND NEED FOR POWER : NON-MATRICULATED SUBJECTS



Behaviour patterns

- ALC alcohol consumption
- BUS too busy with husband's and children's needs to have time for oneself
- DEP dependency on husband
- GAM gambling
- HAP happy marriage
- HEL helping behaviour
- ORG participating in organizations
- STA concern with status and prestige symbols
- VIC vicarious identification with husband and children

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

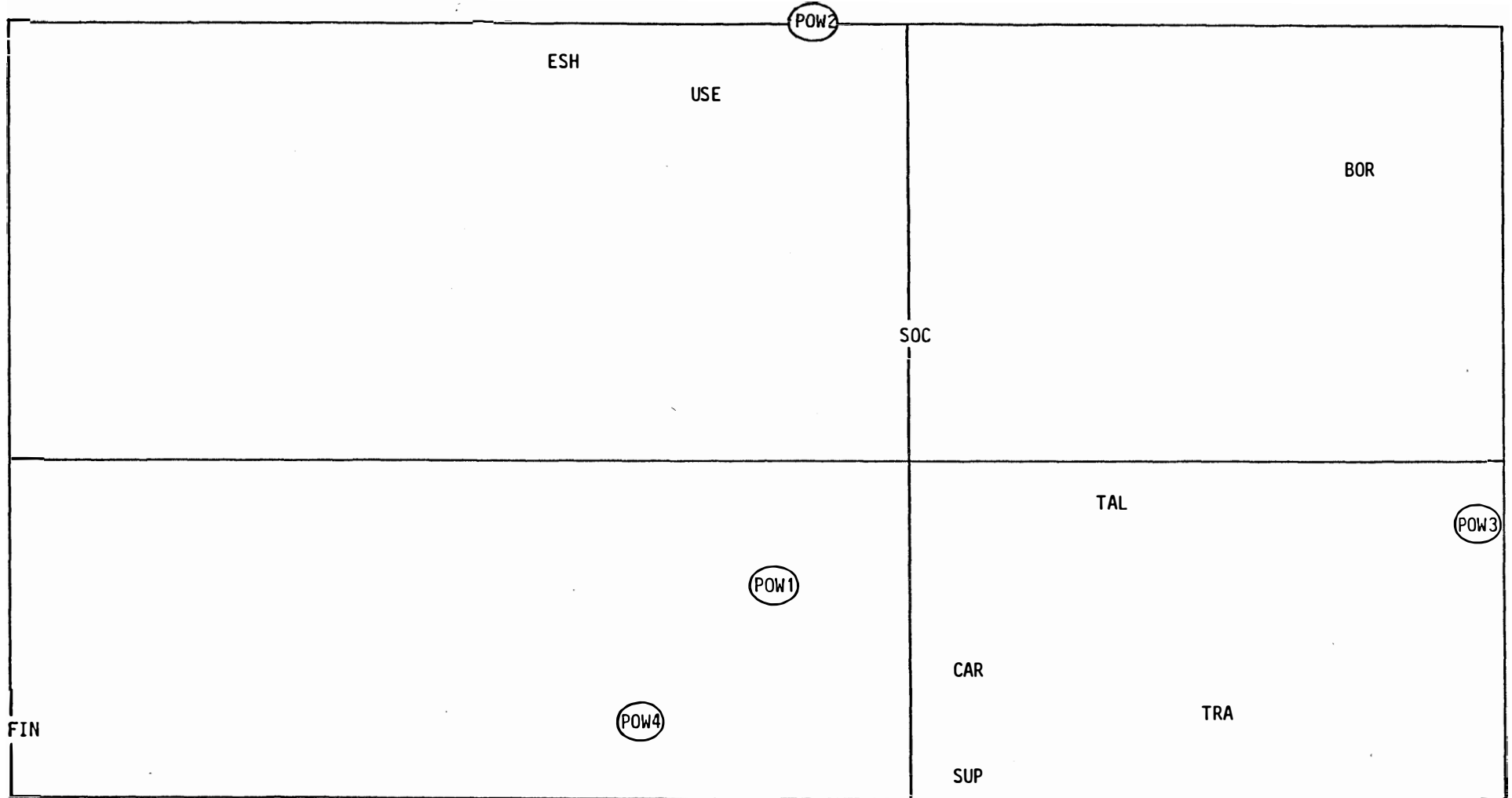
APPENDIX 6

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSES OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND
NEED FOR POWER ACCORDING TO AGE GROUP AND LEVEL OF
EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS.

APPENDIX 6

FIGURE 1

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER : SUBJECTS AGED 33 YEARS AND YOUNGER



Reasons for working

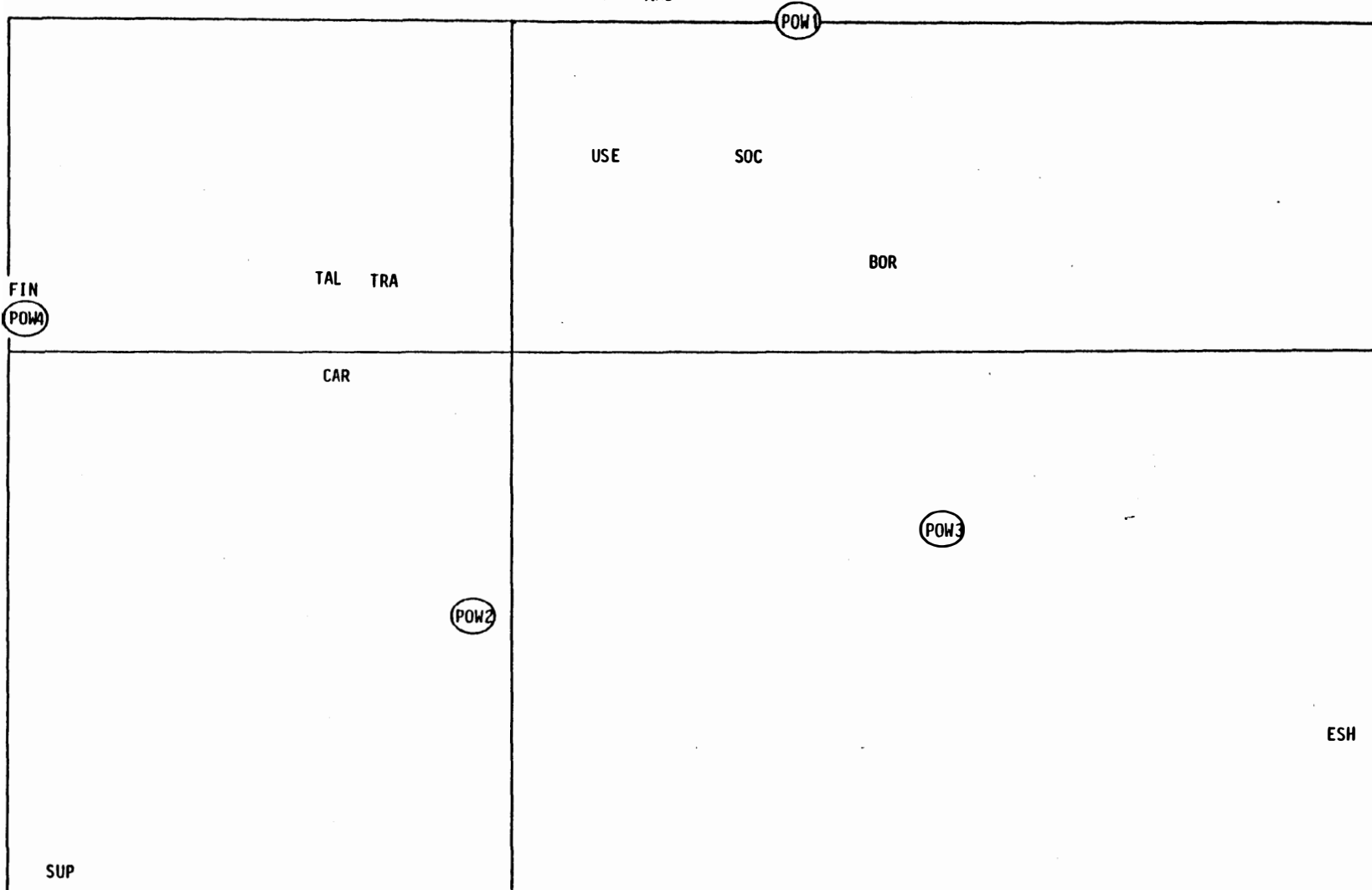
BOR working to avoid boredom
 CAR working to develop a career
 ESH working to escape the role of housewife
 FIN working to support self and family
 SOC working to form social contacts
 SUP working to supplement family income
 TAL working to use talents and abilities

TRA working to use training
 USE working to feel useful

Need for power

POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
 POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
 POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
 POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 6
 FIGURE 2
 REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER: SUBJECTS AGED 34 TO 40 YEARS



Reasons for working

- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income

- TAL working to use talents and abilities
- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

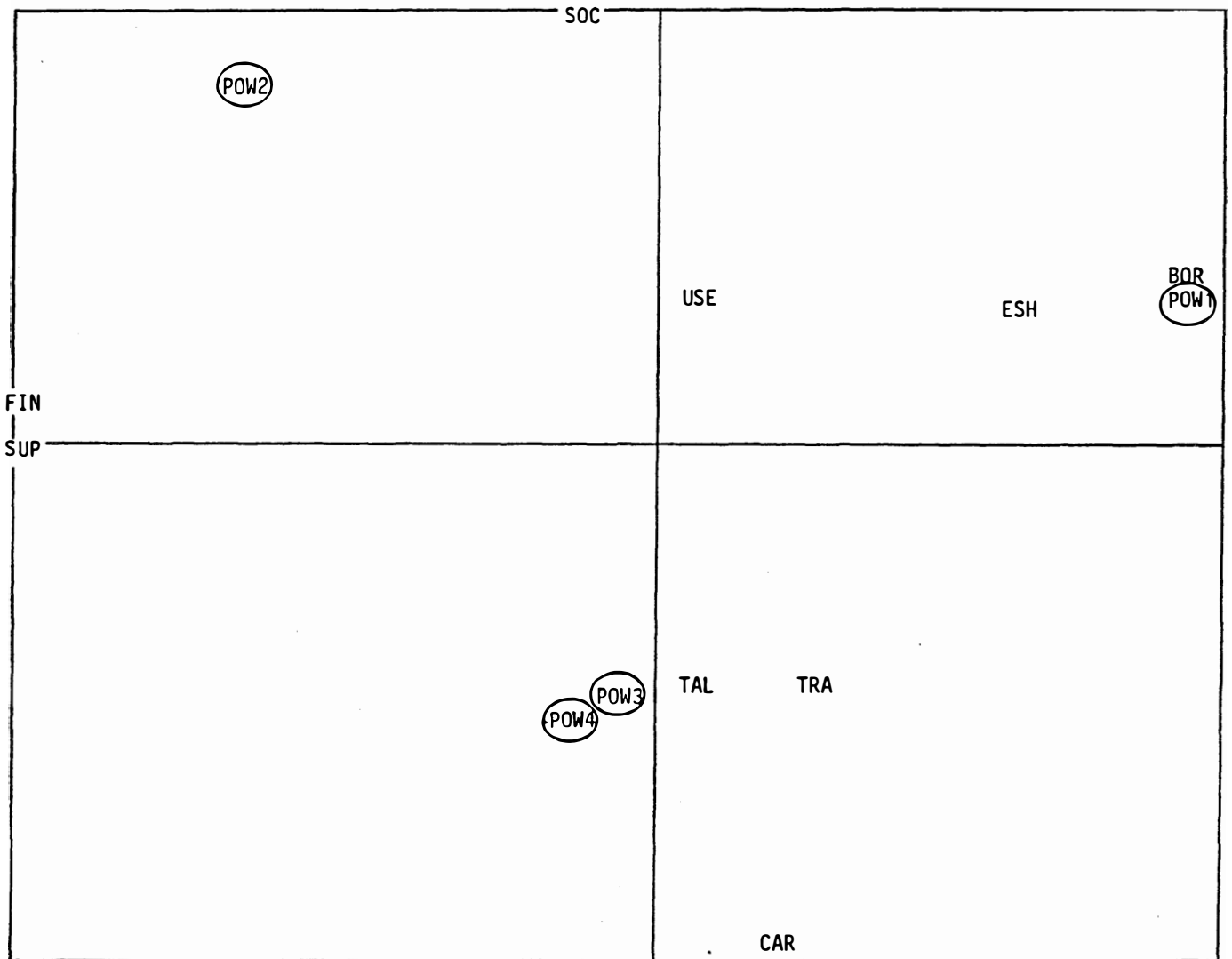
Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 6

FIGURE 3

CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER: SUBJECTS AGED 41 TO 50 YEARS



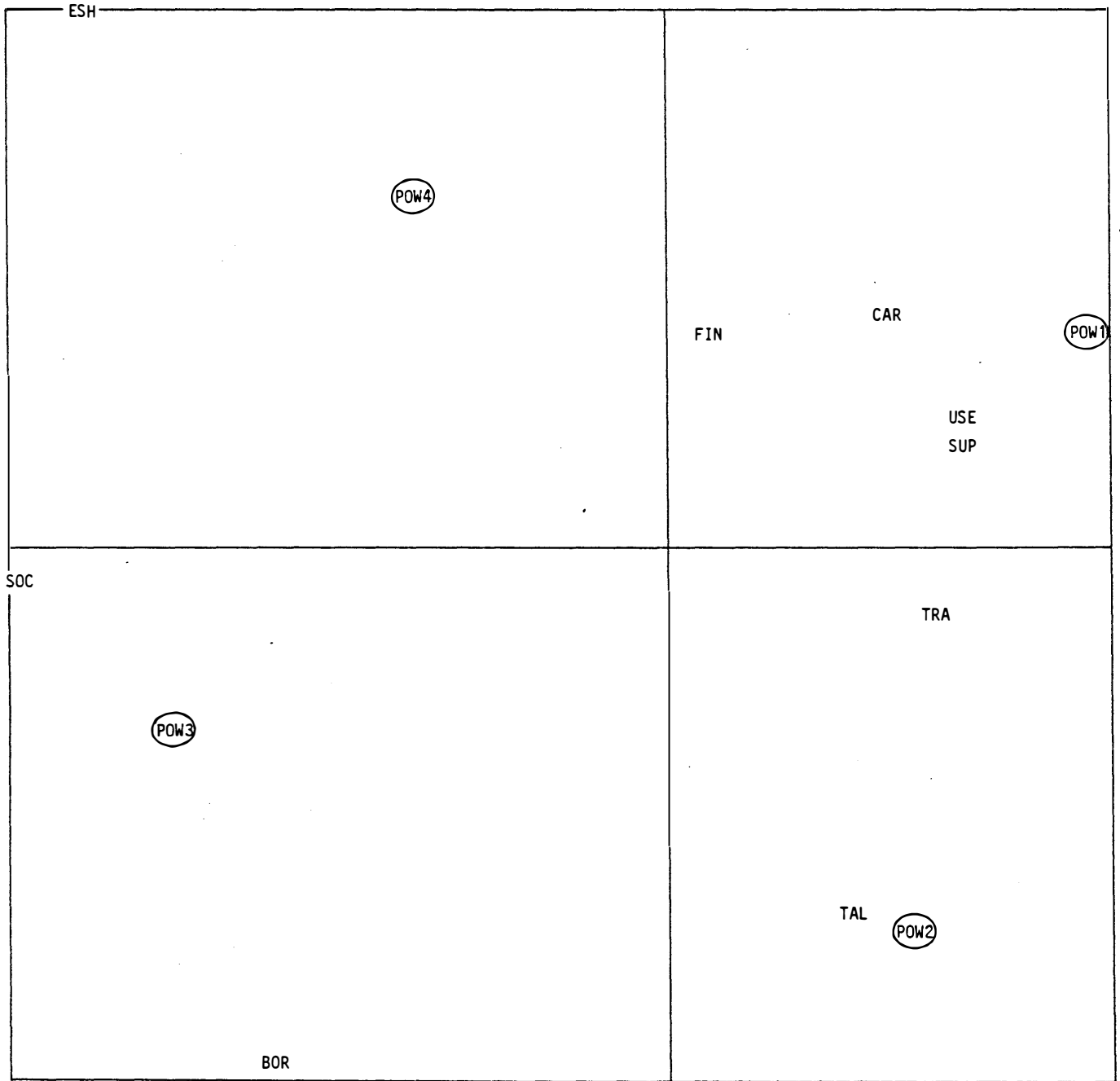
Reasons for working

- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income
- TAL working to use talents and abilities
- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 6
 FIGURE 4
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER: SUBJECTS AGED 51 AND OLDER



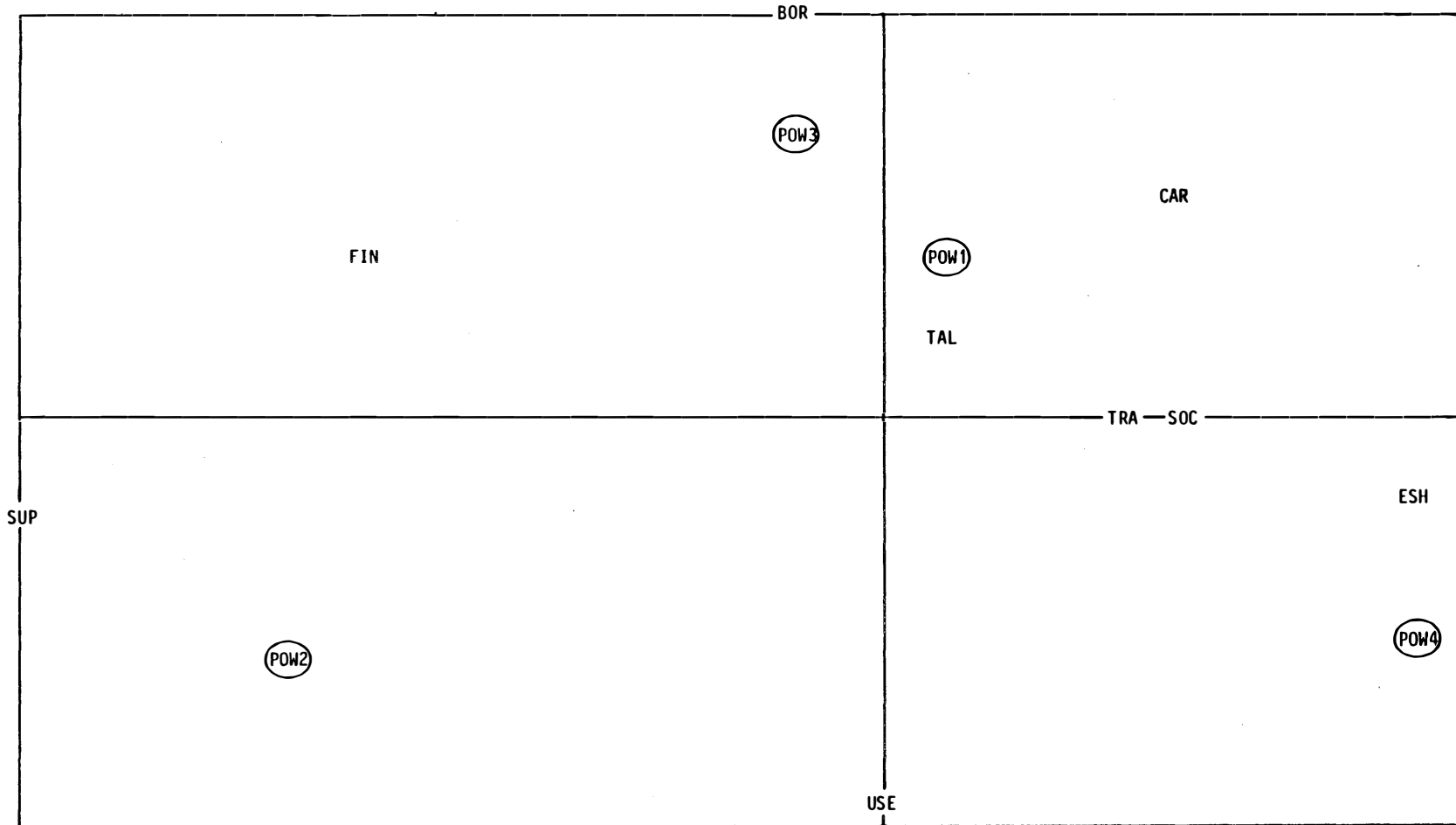
Reasons for working

- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income
- TAL working to use talents and abilities
- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 6
 FIGURE 5
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER: NON MATRICULANTS



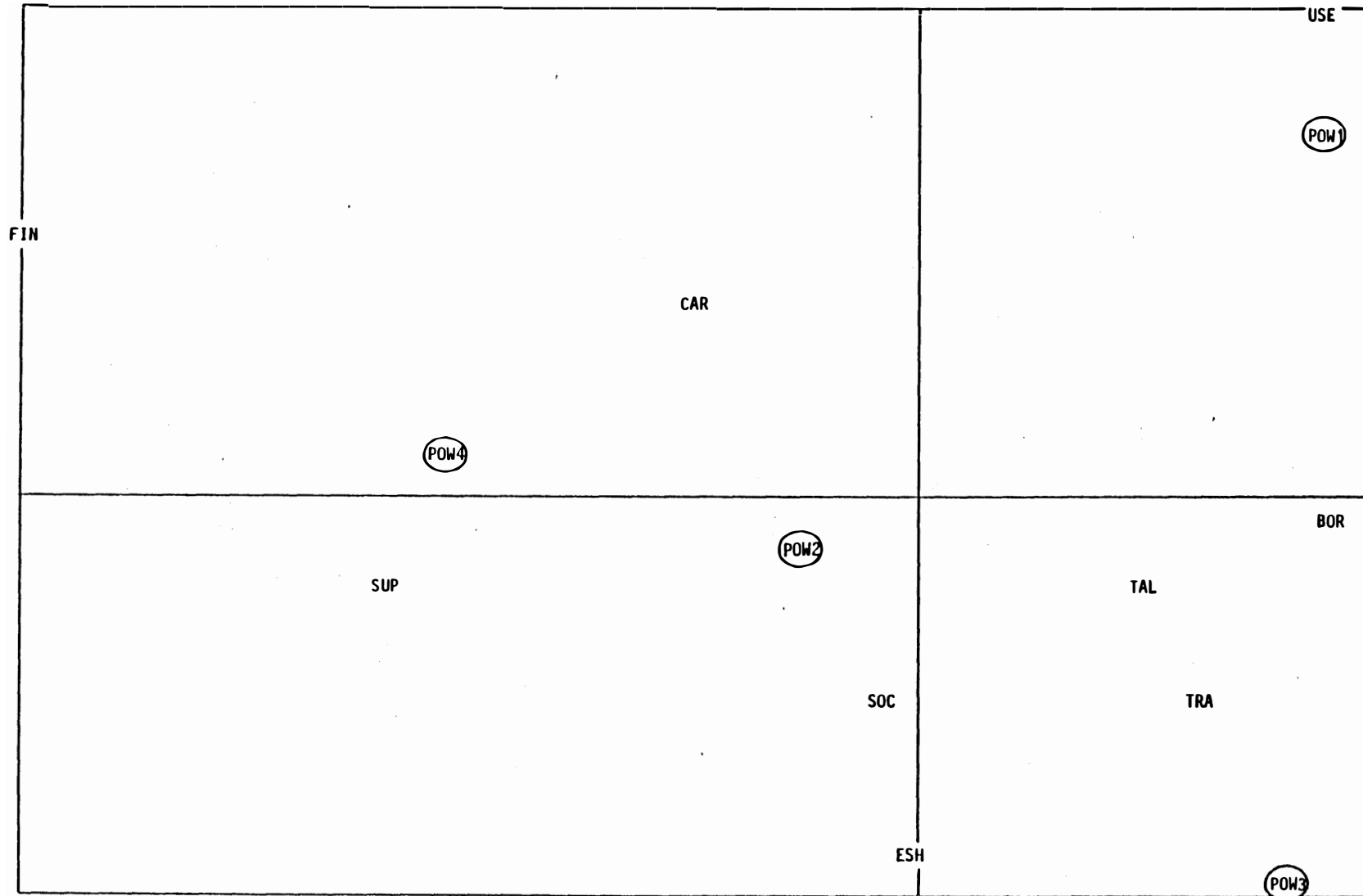
Reasons for working

- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income
- TAL working to use talents and abilities
- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 6
 FIGURE 6
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER: MATRICULANTS



Reasons for working

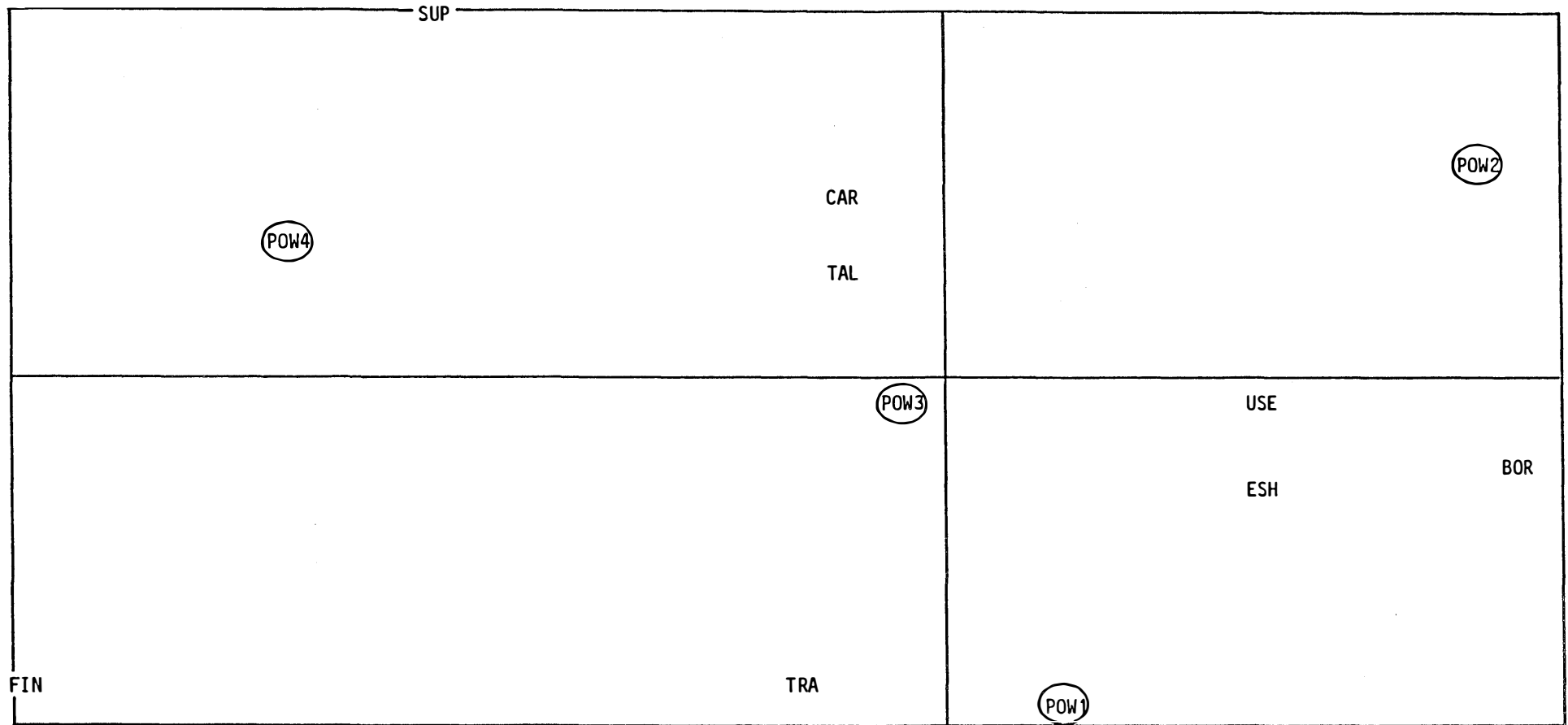
- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income
- TAL working to use talents and abilities

- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

Need for power

- POW1 low \bar{n} power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some \bar{n} power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate \bar{n} power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high \bar{n} power (higher than 75th percentile)

APPENDIX 6
 FIGURE 7
 CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR WORKING AND NEED FOR POWER : GRADUATES



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Reasons for working

- BOR working to avoid boredom
- CAR working to develop a career
- ESH working to escape the role of housewife
- FIN working to support self and family
- SOC working to form social contacts
- SUP working to supplement family income
- TAL working to use talents and abilities
- TRA working to use training
- USE working to feel useful

Need for power

- POW1 low n power (25th percentile and less)
- POW2 some n power (between 26th and 50th percentile)
- POW3 moderate n power (between 51st and 75th percentile)
- POW4 high n power (higher than 75th percentile)

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The HSRC undertakes, promotes, supports and co-ordinates research in the field of the human sciences. It also determines research priorities, disseminates the findings of human sciences research, facilitates and evaluates the implementation of research findings, stimulates the training of researchers, places the full spectrum of human sciences disciplines at the service of the inhabitants of the RSA and promotes science in general.

Institutes

Institute for Communication Research (ICOMM)

Institute for Educational Research (IER)

Institute for Historical Research (IHR)

Institute for Manpower Research (IMAN)

National Institute for Personnel Research (NIPR)

Institute for Psychological and Edumetric Research (IPER)

Institute for Research Development (IRD)

Institute for Research into Language and The Arts (IRLA)

Institute for Sociological and Demographic Research (ISODEM)

Institute for Statistical Research (ISR)

Bureau for Research Support Services (BRSS)

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Funksies van die RGN

Die RGN onderneem, bevorder, ondersteun en koördineer navorsing op die gebied van die geesteswetenskappe, bepaal navorsingsprioriteite, versprei die resultate van geesteswetenskaplike navorsing, vergemaklik en evalueer die implementering van die resultate van navorsing, stimuleer die opleiding van navorsers, stel die volle spektrum van dissiplines in die geesteswetenskappe ten diens van die inwoners van die RSA en bevorder die wetenskap in die breë.

Institute

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Instituut vir Mannekragnavorsing (IMAN)

Instituut vir Navorsingsontwikkeling (INO)

Instituut vir Opvoedkundige Navorsing (ION)

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Instituut vir Psigologiese en Edumetriese Navorsing (IPEN)

Instituut vir Sosiologiese en Demografiese Navorsing (ISODEM)

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ISBN 0 7969 0368 9