A STUDY OF THE PERSONALITY VARIABLES RELATED

TO FEAR OF SUCCESS IN COLLEGE WOMEN

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The paradox of individuals who are capable of achieving a desired goal yet by their behaviors defeat themselves and fail to attain this goal is an area that has received only limited attention from behavioral and social scientists. This phenomenon affects our society academically through underachievement, socially by such individuals promoting and enduring unnecessary mental anguish and suffering, vocationally by individuals not realizing their potential and in the cultural media by curtailing the productive creativity of artists.

Moral masochism was the designation Freud conferred on individuals who manifested self-defeating behaviors. Since then other authors have written about this condition employing a variety of terms such as success neurosis (Schuster, 1955), success phobia (Ovessy, 1962), social masochism (Reik, 1941), and psychic masochism (Bergler, 1942).

The fear of success (FOS) individual is at a distinct disadvantage in our culture since society places a great deal of emphasis on achievement. If investigators can discern the personality factors, psychic dynamics and developmental abnormalities that constitute this condition, clinicians and educators will be able to develop better treatment, educational and prevention procedures.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Theoretical

The literature on the self-defeating individual concerns itself almost exclusively with theoretical considerations. Very little actual experimental research has been undertaken. Freud delineated in his theory the dynamics of moral masochism as the introjection into the superego of the sadism of the individual's early love object--his parents. This superego becomes the internal representative of a sadistic external world. The relation of the sadistic superego to a masochistic ego culminates by the individual experiencing an unconscious sense of guilt. The ego reacts with feelings of anxiety to the perception that it has not fulfilled the demands of the superego.

However, Freud (1924) later modified his view and stated that moral masochism is a classical piece of evidence for the existence of the fusion of instincts, life, and death. Most later psychoanalytic writers tend to reject the death instinct hypothesis and accept with modifications the original dynamic formulation.

A distinction made by Freud (1916) between a regular neurosis and fear of success (FOS) is that, in the latter, the outbreak of the conflict is due to an external alteration in circumstances. Until it becomes apparent to an individual that it is possible to attain success, he may have strong subjective strivings toward success, while

objectively he may be seen to sabotage achievement of the goal, overtly or covertly.

Berliner (1940) states that the death instinct is not the underlying force in the development of moral masochism. Also, he disagrees with Freud in that he feels the origin of this condition predates the Oedipal conflict. Berliner contends that the child is born into conditions that he is powerless to change. The child is traumatized by sibling hostility or hating parents who disguise their hostility in oversolicitude and possessive demands which burden the child with obligations and guilt feelings. And, the more the child refrains from the expression of these feelings the more severe his superego becomes. The inevitable solution for such an individual is to identify with the love object, introject him, falsify reality and turn the hatred of the love object upon himself and suffer mental anguish and punishment.

Berliner (1947) feels that the moral masochist loses his identity because of his permanent wish to make himself as unlovable as he feels his parents desire him to be. Such an individual is characterized by feelings of rejection and flaunts this in his bid for affection.

Menaker (1956) believes that moral masochism is a survival mechanism on the part of the ego. She defines a prerequisite for its appearance as a social situation in which one individual is dependent upon another--the mother-child relationship. Menaker dates the origin of moral masochism to the prelanguage phase of the mother-child relationship when the child is dependent upon the mother for both physical and psychological nurturance. She disagrees with Berliner in that she believes the origin of the moral masochist's feelings of worthlessness

occur at a more archaic level of ego development than the identification and superego formation level.

The fascinating portion of Menaker's theory is her analogy of moral masochism to the innate signal behaviors of lower animals. The purpose of these behaviors is survival. She describes Lorenz's observation of two wolves engaged in fierce combat. At the point where one is clearly the victor, the loser assumes a submissive posture and exposes its jugular vein to the other. This behavior acts to inhibit the aggressive attack of the winner so that he cannot consummate his victory and the loser can survive.

Menaker suggests that the mother fails to affirm the growing ego functions. The demands of this ego become associated with pain and become a source of deprivation rather than of fulfillment and gratification. These demands are ultimately hated and lead to a poor self image. Thus, the masochistic individual gives up the independent assertive position of the ego in order to achieve passive oral gratification and to retain the illusion of superiority of the person to whom he submits and from whom he receives gratification.

Lowenstein (1957) adds a new dimension to the theory of moral masochism by suggesting that violent aggression may be desired from the love object in order to diminish one's own aggressive feelings against the same object. Guilt feelings appear only after the child has learned to bend his aggression inward.

Demonchy (1950) champions the view that some moral masochistic impulses are normal and essential for individuals to make a satisfactory social adjustment and to feel content with themselves. He feels that sublimated forms of masochism should be regarded as normal. He

illustrates his point by citing the examples of individuals who want to feel useful or needed by another person, or by an individual's wholehearted devotion to a task. Demonchy believes that one's relationship with an organized group is another example. In this latter example he does point out that to some extent this relationship causes one to relinquish some of his personal existence and independence. Demonchy also feels that today's society is more tolerant of women being morally masochistic and that women have a better opportunity of acting out their masochism in procreative functions.

Schuster (1955) reports that the moral masochist is inclined to blame external rather than internal factors. He describes this as a resistance in recognizing and accepting responsibility for the individual's own behavior as the determinant of his success or failure. He proposes that fear of success (FOS) is an end product of the Oedipal problem and castration complex. This fear of success can be viewed as a fear of asserting oneself due to the possible consequences delivered by the father to the young child. This lingering feeling of young child in relation to a powerful punishing parent is perpetuated and relived in numerous transference situations. This engenders a passive position on the part of the moral masochist which in some instances is felt to be ego alien. Thus, the emotional life of an individual could be characterized by feelings of inadequacy.

Ovessy (1962) reports on individuals who are unable to tolerate vocational success. He believes that this ailment is more frequent in men because they are more subject to competitive pressures. As children these individuals inhibited their aggressive feelings due to intimidation from their parents or siblings. Aggression to them is

unconsciously equated with murderous violence. Yet, the aggressive feelings remain, and the subsequent desire to destroy the more powerful rivals generates enormous guilt feelings which carry with them the threat of violent retaliation. Competition is identified with the original rivalries of childhood, and vocational success is perceived in terms of murder of the competitors. Thus, in order to protect himself from the threat of violent retaliation the individual must inhibit his aggression and cease competing. This inhibition of aggression is the cause of the poor self image and chronic feelings of inadequacy.

Experimental

Depression and Masochism

Beck (1967) noticed that depressed patients often relate dreams in which the dreamer is frustrated, deprived or injured. This led Beck to postulate a relationship between masochism and depression. Beck assumed that masochism would be expressed in dreams because it reflects specific overt behavior patterns of the dreamer. Also, he assumed that a dream could be classified on the basis of its manifest content and that the theme could be taken literally.

Beck (1967) proceeded to verify the assumption that dream themes reflect overt behavior patterns. He utilized two groups of prisoners-one group convicted for sex-related crimes, the other group had no history of sex-related crimes. A scoring system was devised to identify undisguised sexual elements in dreams. An analysis of the data revealed that the sexual offender group had a significantly high frequency of dreams with both uncamouflaged sexual elements and criminal sexual activity than the control group.

Beck (1961) proceeded to develop scoring criteria for masochistic themes in early memories. He elicited verbal reports of early memories from two groups of patients--one group diagnosed as depressed utilizing the Beck Depression Inventory and the other group diagnosed similarly as non-depressed. The depressed group had significantly more early masochistic memories than the non-depressed group.

Beck (1961) devised a masochism inventory with a Likert-type scale and administered it to patients. He then correlated the results against the Beck Depression Inventory and obtained a Spearman Rank correlation of 0.51 between the two tests.

Beck and Hurvich (1959) and Beck (1967) devised a system to score dream themes as either masochistic or non-masochistic. They developed a number of categories in which unpleasant content reflecting a need to suffer would be scored as masochistic. Beck utilized a random sample of 287 patients to whom he administered the Beck Depression Inventory and then asked them to recall their most recent dream. The dream themes were independently rated by two judges. The results demonstrated that the moderately and severely depressed groups reported significantly more masochistic themes than other patient groups comprising his sample.

Beck interpreted these results to suggest that masochistic dreams are associated with the presence of depression regardless of the intensity. However, the masochistic dream cannot be taken as a pathognomonic sign of depression.

Achievement Motivation and Fear of Success

Other research relevant to the FOS individual is derived from

studies in achievement motivation. The majority of these experimental articles and studies have appeared in obscure journals, or as unpublished unavailable manuscripts, or in an overly simplified and unsophisticated form in popular magazines and newspapers. Thus, the inaccessibility or unavailability of these studies makes it difficult to compare, contrast, scrutinize and criticize the methodology and statistical analysis employed in each study. Similarly, it is important to bear in mind that these studies may not have defined or measured fear of success in a comparable manner and this places doubt upon the validity and generalizability of these studies' conclusions.

Horner (1968, 1969; Gornick, 1970, 1973) investigated FOS in an attempt to clarify the sex differences that had been confounding achievement motivation studies. Specifically, one of these problems was the failure of women to exhibit the expected increase in need for achievement imagery when exposed to experimental conditions stressing intelligence and leadership. Also, while achievement motivation can predict the performance on intellectual tasks for males, it fails to predict the performance for females. Horner cites Atkinson as saying that sex differences in achievement motivation are perhaps the most persistent and unresolved problem.

Horner postulates a tendency to avoid success that operates in females and acts as a potent negative motivational determinant when females are engaged in competition, especially competition against males. She developed a projective instrument to measure motive to avoid success. By employing this measure she found that college women manifest significantly more FOS imagery than college men. Also, women high in FOS imagery tend to be the more able and motivated students as

defined by their honor roll status. Horner reported that the high fear of success women (HFOS) perform better in verbal problem solving tasks in non-competitive situations than in competitive situations. Finally, the HFOS women reported that it was less important to do well in competitive situations than non-competitive situations. These results suggest that intellectual prowess, aggressiveness, and leadership are all desirable but not congruent with the feminine stereotype. This conclusion tends to be supported by the Broverman et al. (1970) study which found that young men and women behave and evaluate themselves in a manner dictated by the dominant stereotype. They found that competition, independence, competence, intellectual achievement and leadership reflect positively on mental health and masculinity, but are incongruent or in conflict with the feminine stereotype. Also, Maccoby (cited in Horner, 1972) states that a women who seeks intellectual mastery defies the convention of sex-appropriate behavior and consequently arouses anxiety in herself.

The factors that determine the arousal and the strength of the motive to avoid success are the expectations and values that the individual places on the likely consequences of his actions. The anxiety that this motive arouses then acts as an inhibitory force. Horner (1972, p. 159) states:

With this in mind, I argued that most women have a motive to avoid success, that is, a disposition to become anxious about achieving success because they expect negative consequences (such as social rejection and/or feelings of being unfeminine) as a result of succeeding. Note that this is not to say that most women 'want to fail' or have a 'motive to approach failure'. The presence of a 'will to fail' would, in accordance with the theory, imply that they anticipate or expect positive consequences from failing. The presence of a motive to avoid success, on the other hand, implies that the expression of the achievementdirected tendencies of most otherwise positively motivated

young women is inhibited by the arousal of a thwarting disposition to become anxious about the negative consequences they expect will follow the desired success.

In 1968, less than 10% of the college men tested manifested FOS imagery as contrasted with 65% of the college women (Horner, 1972). These sex differences have been consistently replicated with the only change being an increase in the number of college men expressing FOS imagery. Prescott (cited by Horner, 1972) reported that 47% of the males tested gave FOS responses. An analysis of the content of the male stories revealed that the responses were not concerned with masculinity, in contrast to the females' concern with femininity, but the males expressed existential concerns about finding a nonmaterialistic happiness and satisfaction in life.

Studies investigating FOS imagery have employed female subjects at differing ages and at differing educational, occupational, and ability levels. The verbal cue (a sentence employed to stimulate the production of stories much like a TAT card) utilized by Horner (1968) to measure FOS imagery was modified to make it meaningful and consistent with the population under study.

Horner and Rhoem (cited by Horner, 1972) reported that the incidence of FOS imagery in junior high school 7th grade girls was 47%. This compares with a figure of 60% for the incidence of FOS manifested by female high school juniors. Eighty-six percent of the women in a law school population responded with FOS imagery. Similarly, 86.6% of high school graduated secretaries gave FOS imagery responses. In female undergraduates, the reported incidence of FOS imagery was 81%.

Berens (cited by Tresemer, 1974) reports that fifth grade children who demonstrated FOS imagery tended to have mothers who gave FOS imagery

responses. Tresemer (1974) reports that studies have also shown that black men and white women tend to have more FOS imagery than black women. This is attributed to (although without any explanation) the culture providing more encouragement and opportunities for black women.

Schwenn (cited by Horner, 1972) studied how career plans and aspirations change in female college students in an eastern women's college during the first three years. By their junior year, a majority of the women have lowered their plans and aspirations in the direction of less ambitious and more traditional female roles. Tangri (cited by Horner, 1972) obtained similar results utilizing a population from a large midwestern university.

Schwenn further studied how the motive to avoid success affects behavior by employing interview and questionnaire techniques. Seventyfive percent of the women studied manifested FOS imagery. From this group, all but one woman had changed their career goals for what they considered more traditional, appropriately feminine and less ambitious goals. Only 25% of the low FOS imagery group followed the same pattern.

The motive to avoid success arouses anxiety in women. The way in which this anxiety is manifested by these women who were doing well in school was by preferring not to divulge their success to a male friend. However, they readily disclosed failures. This pattern was not found in the low fear of success (LFOS) imagery group.

Schwenn postulates that the elements that have the most influence in arousing the motive to avoid success were the attitudes of the women's parents and those of the male peers with whose values these women were concerned. In this study, 78% of the women who demonstrated HFOS imagery came from upper middle to middle class backgrounds.

McClelland's (1961) studies have shown that these families foster high achievement motivation which other studies have shown to be inconsistent with the feminine sex role stereotype. In contrast, the majority of the LFOS imagery women came from lower middle class homes while only 33% of these women came from middle to upper middle class homes.

Schwenn describes the attitude of the male peers toward the role of women as the most important factor in arousing the motive to avoid success. Some of the women in her study verbalized that they altered their career plans because of the attitude of male peers. Socially, the HFOS imagery women were either not dating or were dating men who did not approve of career women. A second group, composed of the LFOS imagery women plus a minority of the HFOS imagery women who had not altered their career plans in a more traditional direction, were either engaged to or dating men who generally encouraged these women to pursue their goals and were not threatened by their success.

One conclusion drawn by Horner (1972) from Schwenn's, Prescott's, Maccoby's, and her own research is that society does not object to higher education for women for the purpose of making them more interesting as a companion, wife, or mother. She summarizes the consequences of the motive to avoid success in the following way (Horner, 1972, p. 171):

As indicated, our data argue that unfortunately femininity and competitive achievement continue in American society, even today, to be viewed as two desirable but mutually exclusive ends. As a result, the recent emphasis on the new freedom for women has not been effective in removing the psychological barrier in many otherwise achievement motivated and able young women that prevents them from actively seeking success or making obvious their abilities and potential. There is mounting evidence in our data suggesting that many achievement-oriented American women, especially those high in the motive to avoid success, when faced with the conflict between their feminine image and

developing their abilities and interests, disguise their ability and abdicate from competition in the outside world-just like Sally in the Peanut's cartoon who at the tender age of five says, 'I never said I wanted to be someone, all I want to do when I grow up is be a good wife and mother. So . . . why should I have to go to kindergarten.' When success is likely or possible, threatened by the negative consequences they expect to follow success, young women become anxious and their positive achievement strivings become thwarted. In this way, their abilities, interests and intellectual potential remain inhibited and unfulfilled.

A subsequent analysis of the data in the initial study (Horner, 1968), together with that of our most recent studies shows however that these processes do not occur without a price, a price paid in feelings of frustration, hostility, aggression, bitterness and confusion which are plainly manifested in the fantasy production of young women.

Criticism of Fear of Success

In reviewing 61 studies (most of which are unobtainable) on FOS imagery, Tresemer (1974) found the proportion of women classified as HFOS imagery women varied between 11% and 88% with a median of 47%. In 36 studies, the percentage of men classified as HFOS imagery men similarly ranged between 14% and 86% with a median of 43%. Tresemer postulated some reasons to account for this large discrepancy between FOS studies. First, he states that there is no scoring manual for Horner's projective technique. Secondly, he believes that there is a great deal of subjectivity in scoring the stories for FOS imagery. Thirdly, Tresemer suggests that investigators have incorrectly employed the technique because they have taken any negative comment in the subjects' stories as indications of FOS imagery. Tresemer reiterates the criteria for classification are that only negative consequences related to the anxiety that approaching success arouses can be classified as FOS stories. Finally, he criticizes Horner for not comparing different groups of aroused and non-aroused subjects in developing her technique.

New Methods of Measuring Fear of Success

Pappo (1972) devised an 83 item yes-no questionnaire which identified individuals high in FOS. He defined FOS (Pappo, 1972, p. 87) as:

. . . a psychological state which manifests itself through paralysis, withdrawal, or retraction in the presence of a consciously understood subjective or objective goal which is perceived by the individual in the moment of withdrawal. Individuals high in fear of success often learn to behave in a way so as to avoid success outcomes.

He believed that individuals high in FOS would be characterized by being low in self esteem, having a preoccupation with the evaluative aspects of a situation, having a competitive orientation and a tendency to repudiate their competence. All of these notions were supported in his study. Also, Pappo asserts that as HFOS individuals approach success they attempt to minimize the anxiety producing stimulus by engaging in self-sabotaging behaviors.

In his study, Pappo employed two equivalent reading tests, (Tests I and II) and two feedback conditions (success and non-success). He demonstrated that HFOS subjects exhibited a decrement in their Test II scores after receiving success feedback upon completion of Test I. Also, Pappo's results demonstrated that LFOS subjects in both a success feedback and non-success feedback condition did better on Test II than Test I. This same pattern was also manifested by HFOS subjects in the non-success feedback condition. Finally, Pappo found no difference between the incidence of FOS in males and females.

The majority of the previous studies employed either Horner's original verbal cue or a modified version. Althof (1973) argued that a projective technique based on one verbal cue is unsatisfactory. He proceeded to expand and further modify the instrument to encompass

varied areas of FOS. Five verbal leads from a larger pool were selected to comprise the new projective measure. Also, a modification of the classification of women into high and low FOS imagery groups was adopted. Specifically, Horner scored her leads either present or absent for FOS imagery, thus treating this variable as a discrete variable. Althof maintained that fear of success is not only present or absent but varies in intensity. Therefore, while employing the criteria Horner set forth, FOS was scored on a continuum from zero to seven, thus treating FOS as a continuous variable.

The five verbal leads selected to comprise the new projective measure all correlate well with the total FOS imagery score and only moderately well with each other. This was interpreted to mean that the five leads sample from areas only mildly related to each other but that correlate well with the total score. By employing this new expanded projective technique, a confirmation of Horner's (1968) results that women high in FOS imagery perform better in non-competitive situations than women low in FOS imagery was obtained. Also, as in Horner's investigation, Althof found that women high in FOS imagery had a tendency (p<.10) to have a higher grade point average than women low in FOS imagery.

Summary

Historically, the concept of FOS has its origins in the writings of Freud (1916) who termed this phenomenon moral masochism. More recent experimental clinical studies by Beck (1959, 1961, 1967) attempted to link together and objectively measure depression and masochism. Perhaps the most widely published studies on FOS are Horner's (1968, 1969, 1972).

These investigations had their origins in attempting to understand the sex differences that were confounding achievement motivation studies. Horner pioneered a projective technique that distinguished high and low FOS groups. Many other studies employed this technique to investigate the relationship between FOS and sex, educational, racial, and developmental differences. However, many of these studies were unpublished, unavailable, or presented in diluted fashion in popular magazines. Therefore, it becomes difficult to assess the validity, generalizability, and even the existence of FOS. Tresemer (1974) attributed many of the discrepant results in this area to the lack of a scoring manual, subjective scoring, and errors in scoring. Attempts to ameliorate this problem by employing a yes-no questionnaire (Pappo, 1972) and by measuring FOS by utilization of an extended projective technique that considers FOS on a continuum rather than as a discrete variable (Althof, 1973) were introduced.

The anxiety aroused by the motive to avoid success, the behavior manifested by the women when this motive is aroused and the prevalence of this condition all require that we further investigate the personality variables and psychodynamic features of these women.

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In reviewing the literature on FOS, it becomes apparent that many of the articles and books concern themselves primarily with theoretical considerations, armchair speculation, and generalizations made from a small number of psychoanalytically-oriented case studies. Only since the appearance of Horner's dissertation has experimental research begun to flourish. Yet, much of this work is inaccessible because it is in the form of unpublished manuscripts. Further complicating this area is the appearance of numerous oversimplified and unsophisticated articles of FOS studies that appear in popular magazines and newspapers.

The purpose of this study is to confirm and expand current research in the FOS area. It is an attempt to integrate theoretical clinical considerations with previous experimental research. Also, it is hoped that this study will provide meaningful and stimulating paths for future investigations.

The technique to identify high and low FOS individuals has been expanded and modified. The problem under study employs this projective technique (Althof, 1973) to differentiate the high and low FOS imagery groups. Then a discriminant function analysis will select the six best variables from a larger pool that best differentiate the two groups. This larger pool consists of the 14 Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) scales (Heist, Yonge, McConnell, and Webster, 1968), the 29 Tennessee

Self Concept (TSCS) scales (Fitts, 1965), and 22 items from a biographical-demographical questionnaire.

A consistent theme of the various psychoanalytic writers is that individuals who fear success reveal feelings of inadequacy and display a poor self-image (Ovessy, 1962; Schuster, 1955; and Menaker, 1956). Berliner (1947) states that the moral masochist attempts to make himself unlovable and is characterized by feelings of rejection. Therefore, this study's primary hypothesis is that the HFOS imagery group will have a significantly lower self concept than the LFOS imagery group as measured by the total P scale of the TSCS. The total P scale (Fitts, 1965, p. 2):

. . . reflects an individual's overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to like themselves, feel that they are persons of value and worth, have confidence in themselves and act accordingly. People with low scores are doubtful about their own worth; see themselves as undesirable; often feel anxious, depressed and unhappy; and have little faith or confidence in themselves.

Various other personality factors have been suggested, but never tested, in relation to individuals high in FOS. Schuster (1955) states that individuals who fear success tend to blame external rather than internal factors for their lack of success. Schwenn (cited in Horner, 1972) believes the most important factors that arouse the motive to avoid success are the attitude of the HFOS woman's parents and the attitude of male peers toward the role of women. Thus, these authors suggest that external factors are more important than internal factors in relation to the HFOS individuals. Therefore, a secondary hypothesis of this study is that the HFOS imagery group will be significantly more socially extroverted than the LFOS imagery group as measured by the social extroversion scale (SE) of the OPI.

Another personality factor suggested by Schwenn and Horner (1972) is that the women who comprise the high and low FOS imagery groups will have different attitudes and interests regarding the feminine sex role. An additional hypothesis of this study is that the HFOS imagery group will manifest significantly more feminine interests and attitudes than the LFOS imagery group as measured by the Masculinity-Femininity Scale (MF) of the OPI. Finally, this study will investigate whether other personality factors derived from the OPI TSCS and the biographicaldemographical questionnaire differentiate and predict the high and low FOS groups.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

This study employed 100 female undergraduate students enrolled at Oklahoma State University. From the initial testing pool (which included males as well as females, although the data obtained from males were not analyzed), the 24 highest and 24 lowest females in FOS imagery as measured by the total score on the projective technique were selected to comprise the high and low FOS groups in the subsequent analysis. On the FOS measure all the women in the LFOS imagery group scored 0 while the women in the HFOS imagery group had scores ranging between 4-7 with a mean of 5.04.

Materials

This study employed four instruments: Althof's (1973) modified version of Horner's (1968) projective technique for assessing FOS imagery, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Omnibus Personality Inventory, and a biographical-demographical questionnaire. The Althof projective technique consists of five verbal leads (see Table I) to which the subjects wrote stories that answered the standard Thematic Apperception Test questions (see Table II). Verbal cues allowed the experimenter to test males and females simultaneously and avoided the problem of finding pictures with similar cue stimuli for both sexes.

TA	BI	E	Ι

Cue Number		Cue
	1.	The local town paper runs a story on Jane's promotion to an executive position.
	2.	After three weeks of dieting Barbara loses fifteen pounds.
	3.	Judy finds that she has been elected to a Senate seat over three opponents.
	4.	Julia wins the sportsperson of the year award.
	5.	Betty finally gets that important date with George.

TABLE II

STANDARD TAT QUESTIONS

- 1. What is happening? Who are the persons?
- 2. What has led up to this situation? That is, what has happened in the past?

۰.

- 3. What is being thought? What is wanted? By whom?
- 4. What will happen? What will be done?

The five verbal leads sampled FOS in a number of different areas: i.e., vocational, political, social, athletic, and physical appearance. The stories were scored by the criteria (see Table III) set forth in Horner (1968). However, she scored the stories employing a present or absent scoring system, thus treating FOS as a discrete variable. This study treated FOS imagery as a continuous variable thereby allowing the scores for each lead to range from zero (no FOS imagery present) to seven (all the categories present). Thus, on the five leads the total could range from 0 to 35. The scoring criteria included a number of categories that describe negative imagery which reflected concern about success. Two independent scorers were trained and employed to score the leads. An interscorer reliability of .91 was obtained by calculating a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient from 20 randomly sampled subjects' FOS scores.

The second measure employed in this study is the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) clinical-research form, which is a wellstandardized, widely applicable, multi-dimensional measure that has been extensively utilized in recent research concerning self theory (Fitts, 1965). It is composed of 100 self descriptive statements to which the subject must respond on a five-point scale ranging from completely true to completely false. The TSCS is applicable for subjects over twelve years who have a sixth grade or better education.

Results of the TSCS are reported in terms of standard scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. A total of 29 scales can be derived. A full listing of these 29 scales can be found in Appendix A. These scales measure a total self concept, internal, and external referents to the self as well as scores which reflect the

TABLE III

SCORING CRITERIA FOR FEAR OF SUCCESS IMAGERY

The stories were scored for fear of success imagery if there was negative imagery expressed which reflected concern about success. For instance:

- a. Negative consequences because of success.
- b. Anticipation of negative consequences because of the success.
- c. Negative affect because of success.
- d. Instrumental activity away from present or future success.
- e. Any direct expression of conflict about success.
- f. Denial of the situation described by the cue.
- g. Bizarre, inappropriate, unrealistic or nonadaptive responses to the situation described by the cue.

rigidity and inconsistencies of these perceptions. Also, some empirical scales that measure psychological defensiveness and disturbance are included.

The standardization group was composed of 626 individuals of varying age, sex, race, intellectual ability, and social class. The validity of the items was determined by a panel of seven psychologists who had to unanimously classify the item by content into one of fifteen possible categories. The test-retest reliability of the 29 scales over a two-week period ranges from .60-.92 (Fitts, 1965).

The TSCS was developed as a research instrument that might contribute to the difficult criterion problem in mental health (Fitts, 1965). The author suggests that the TSCS be employed to distinguish among groups that differ on a certain psychological dimension utilizing a discriminant function analysis. Fitt's suggestion is congruent with the planned statistical design of this study.

The third measure employed in this study was the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI), Form F (Heist, Yonge, McConnel, and Webster, 1968). This instrument consists of 385 statements to which the subject must respond either true or false. Each item belongs to one or more of the 14 scales (see Appendix B) that assess intellectual interests and values, individual modes of thinking, authoritarian and religious attitudes, masculinity-femininity, and components of social-emotional maturity and mental health. Scores for the 14 scales are expressed as standard scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. The theoretical bases of the OPI encompassed the developmental nature of man and the social context in which current behavior occurs and growth and development take place (Heist and Yonge, 1968).

This instrument is ideal for the population under study since it was normed on and developed for utilization with college students. Also, this measure was devised to provide a basis for differentiating among student types and groups.

The normative sample was composed of over 7,000 freshmen attending 37 public and private colleges and universities in 14 states. Extensive validity studies have been undertaken primarily employing correlations with other measures such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, California Personality Inventory, and the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values. The testretest reliability is estimated at greater than .85. Internal consistency calculations for the total standardization sample employing the Kuder-Richardson 21 formula over a three to four week time interval range from .67-.89 (Heist and Yonge, 1968).

The fourth measure employed in this study was a biographicaldemographical questionnaire (personal communication with Cowan, 1974). It is composed of 19 items that when computerized total to 35 separate variables (see Table IV). It includes items related to family background and relationships, scholastic achievement, and interests and the more usual personal data such as age, marital status, etc. Many of these questions have been shown to differentiate between sex role acceptors and sex role rejectors (personal communication with Cowan, 1974). Sex role acceptors are women who assume a more traditional feminine role and belong to organizations such as mother's clubs. Sex role rejectors do not accept the traditional feminine role and belong to such organizations as the National Organization of Women.

Also, some of the questions were included because prior research in

TABLE IV

BIOGRAPHICAL - DEMOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

1.	My age is
2.	My current marital status is a. single b. married c. divorced d. divorced and remarried e. widowed.
3.	The duration of my current marriage is years.
4.	"I tend to prefer" a. male children b. female children c. do not particularly like children d. does not matter as to whether the child is male or female.
5.	My religious preference is a. Protestant b. Jewish c. Catholic d. None
6.	I am in my year at Oklahoma State University.
7.	My overall grade point average is
8.	I have changed my major times while enrolled in college.
9.	I am the child in my family. a. first born b. second born c. third born d. fourth born e. if greater than fourth born list number
10.	I have brothers in my family.
11.	I have sisters in my family.
12.	Were you your mother's favorite child? a. Yes b. No c. No difference
13.	Were you your father's favorite child? a. Yes b. No c. No difference
14.	Indicate on the continuums below the closeness you felt toward your parents when you were a child.
	very closevery distant
	very closevery distant

TABLE IV (Continued)

.

15.	My father's occupation is
16.	The highest grade my father completed in school was
17.	My mother's occupation is
18.	The highest grade my mother completed in school was
19.	I was raised in a. a large city (pop. over 50,000) b. city (pop. between 10,000 and 50,000), c. town (pop. between 5,000 and 10,000) d. rural area (pop. less than 5,000) e. very rural area (pop. less than 300)

.

the FOS areas has shown relationships between these items and high or low FOS imagery groups. Examples of these questions are the ones dealing with family income and change of college major.

Procedure

As the students entered the testing session, the proctor directed the male and female subjects to opposite sides of the room where the sex-coded test booklets were distributed. The composition of the test booklets (verbal leads, biographical-demographical questionnaire, TSCS) varied from one testing session to another because the order in which the tests were given consisted of all possible permutations to control for order or sequence effects. However, due to time limitations the OPI was completed by each subject at home as part of the class requirement and for which she received extra credit.

The instructions for the TSCS and the OPI are self-explanatory and were contained within the test booklet. There was no time limit for either of these tests. However, the proctor read the instructions aloud to the class for the projective technique and supplied appropriate time cues to the students while they were completing this measure. A copy of the instructions for the projective technique can be found in Appendix C.

Statistical Analysis

One stepwise linear discriminant function analysis was computed to examine the differences between the high and low FOS imagery groups. The predictor variables in this analysis included the 29 scales from the TSCS, the 14 scales from the OPI and the 35 variables from the

biographical-demographical questionnaire. A complete list of the 78 variables employed in this study may be found in Appendix D.

The analysis provided a discriminant function for each group based on a weighting system which maximized the variance between groups while it minimized the variance within groups (Cooley and Lohnes, 1962). The statistical analysis assumed that the misclassification costs are equal and that the prior probabilities of each population are equal.

The stepwise discriminant function analysis also demonstrated the order in which the variables were selected in discriminating between the two groups. For example, the variable that contributes the most to the prediction system already containing the best single predictor was chosen as the second predictor. Also, an \underline{F} test with g-1 and n-g-p degrees of freedom was employed at each stage to determine whether the predictor contributed to accounting for the remaining variance in the system.

The second phase of the study consisted of delineating those variables that met certain specifications. Specifically, the criteria by which the final predictors were chosen were:

- Since shrinkage will occur in this type of analysis, the number of final predictors will be limited to the first six variables selected. This ceiling limit provides a subject-to-predictor ratio of 8:1.
- 2. Final predictor variables will be selected so that the number of misclassifications will be at a minimum.
- 3. Every variable in the final prediction system must be significant at the .25 level.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Four approaches will be employed in reporting and examining the results of this study. First, a general portrait of the high and low FOS groups will be sketched. This is followed by an evaluation of the primary and secondary hypotheses of this study utilizing the <u>F</u> values at Step 0 of the discriminant function analysis. Third, the <u>F</u> values at Step 0 of the variables that significantly differentiate the high and low FOS groups will be presented. Fourth, the six best predictor variables from the discriminant function analysis will be reported. In this presentation, three questions are being examined. What differentiates the women in the high and low FOS groups? Can these differences predict group membership? What is the accuracy of the predictor system?

General Characteristics of the High

and Low FOS Groups

A description of the high and low FOS groups was compiled by utilizing the central tendency statistics. Table V contains the specific means and standard deviations for both groups.

A portrait of the low FOS woman in this study would depict her as 19 years of age and probably single. She is as likely to have grown up in a large city as in a rural area. She is the second born child in a family constellation consisting of one other brother and sister. She is

TABLE V

	L	FOS	HFOS		
Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
TI	43.04	9.26	42.58	8.46	
ТО	42.04	8.11	40.36	9.47	
Es	48.88	8.79	49.38	7.88	
Co	47.63	8.70	47.38	6.18	
Au	47.75	7.58	52.25	6.90	
RO	46.58	6.79	47.67	7.77	
SE	51.08	9•54	49.92	9.78	
IE	50.71	10.57	53.50	9.04	
PI	53.30	9.20	51.21	11.02	
AL	50.83	6.96	46.46	9.78	
AM	48.71	12.50	49.83	12.55	
PO	55.46	7.48	51.67	5•55	
MF	47.08	5.52	43.12	7.58	
RB	47.04	9.02	42.79	8.32	
Age	19.20	1.17	19.04	0.80	
Single	0.83	0.38	1.0Õ	0.00	
Married	0.08	0.28	0.00	0.00	
Divorced	0.08	0.28	0.00	0.00	
Duration of Marriage	0.75	2.54	0.00	0.00	
Prefer Male Child	0.17	0.38	0.21	0.41	
Prefer Female Child	0.04	0.20	0.00	0.00	
Not Like Children	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.44	
No Preference	0.79	0.41	0.54	0.50	
Protestant	0.95	0.20	0.75	0.44	
Catholic	0.04	0.20	0.12	0.34	
No religious Pref	0.00	0.00	0.12	0.33	
Year in School at OSU	1.50	0.72	1.50	0.83	
Grade Point Average	2.91	0.63	2.94	0.53	
# Times major changed	0.67	1.10	0.42	0.83	
Ordinal Position	2.08	1.91	2.41	1.14	
# brothers	1.37	1.34	1.42	1.18	
# sisters	1.04	1.08	1.17	1.20	
Mothers Fav. Yes	0.54	0.72	0.17	0.38	
Mothers Fav. No	0.50	0.51	0.54	0.50	
No Diff. mother	0.08	0.28	0.29	0.46	
Fathers Fay. Yes	0.50	0.51	0.29	0.46	
Fathers Fav. No	0.41	0.50	0.50	0.51	
No Diff. Father	0.08	0.28	0.20	0.41	
Closeness to Father	32,54	25.67	31-42	24.47	
Closeness to Mother	21, 12	18-91	20-92	18,21	
Fathers Occ. Ievel	5,29	4-25	3.79	3,31	
Fathers Highest Ed.	13.04	4.10	14.17	3,18	

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE HIGH AND LOW FEAR OF SUCCESS IMAGERY GROUPS

TABLE V	(Continued)
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	I	FOS	HFOS		
Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Mothers Occ. Level	5.08	4.23	8.33	4.09	
Mothers Ed.	13.25	3.61	13.17	1.46	
Large City	0.29	0.46	0.29	0.46	
City	0.29	0.46	0.29	0.46	
Town	0.20	0.41	0.25	0.44	
Rural Area	0.17	0.38	0.17	0.38	
Very Rural Area	0.04	0.20	0.00	0.00	
SC	35.71	5.05	36.75	4.65	
Total Conflict	28.62	8.08	28.08	7.55	
Total P	341.96	22.45	337.67	31.46	
Row 1	125.00	7.49	124.33	11.03	
Row 2	104.62	10.37	105.04	14.27	
Row 3	112.33	8.05	108.29	10.72	
Column A	68.17	6.20	66.58	8.79	
Column B	69.08	5.44	71.30	7.35	
Column C	65.92	5.52	63.92	6.96	
Column D	69.79	7•59	68.67	7•74	
Column E	69.00	6.16	67.21	7.61	
Total V	45.50	12.55	43.83	13.50	
Column Total V	27.67	7•73	26.50	9.28	
Row Total V	17.83	6.32	17.33	5.87	
Distribution D	106.17	23.65	104.25	27.53	
Dist. 5	13.33	9.51	14.50	10.18	
Dist. 4	29.12	9.97	28.17	7.29	
Dist. 3	23.29	9.05	24.83	11.77	
Dist. 2	18.12	7.96	17.92	8.17	
Dist. 1	16.12	8.43	14.58	9.58	
GM	94.83	7.28	93.33	8.68	
PSYCH.	48.12	5.46	48.92	7.13	
PD	73.04	6.75	73.92	9.29	
Ν	84.00	8.09	81.00	9.34	
PI	11.83	4.05	10.50	3.55	
T/F	1.15	0.30	1.24	0.39	
Net Conflict	-0.29	13.01	3.33	15.39	
DP	53.67	8.41	51.12	9•97	
NDS	8.83	6.12	13.75	11.61	

certain not to deny her religious affiliation and is probably of the Protestant faith. This woman would report feeling closer to her father than to her mother. Her parents work at jobs on the same occupational level and they both graduated from high school. Presently, she is either a freshman or sophomore with a 2.91 grade point average.

A portrait of the high FOS woman in this study would depict her as 19 years of age and single. She is as likely to have grown up in a large town as in a rural area. She is the second born child in a family constellation consisting of one other brother and sister. She is probably of the Protestant faith. This woman would report feeling closer to her father than to her mother. Her father works at a higher occupational level than her mother and both parents would be high school graduates. Presently she is either a freshman or sophomore with a 2.94 grade point average.

Evaluation of the Primary and Secondary Hypotheses

The primary hypothesis of this study, that the HFOS imagery group would have a significantly lower self concept than the LFOS group as measured by the total P scale of the TSCS, was not borne out ($\underline{F} = 0.30$, $\underline{df} = 1,46$). Similarly, the secondary hypothesis that the HFOS imagery groups would be significantly more socially extroverted than the LFOS imagery group as measured by the social extroversion scale of the OPI was also insignificant ($\underline{F} = 0.18$, $\underline{df} = 1,46$). The hypothesis that the HFOS imagery group would manifest significantly more feminine interests and attitudes than the LFOS imagery group as measured by the Masculinity-Femininity scale (MF) of the OPI was significant ($\underline{F} = 4.27$,

Significant Variables Differentiating the High and Low FOS Groups at Step O

Six other variables in addition to the MF scale from the OPI, from a total of 78 variables, significantly differentiated the high and low FOS groups at step 0 of the discriminant function analysis. The variables, means, and \underline{F} values are located in Table VI. These seven variables come from the OPI and the biographical-demographical questionnaire. Table VII contains a correlation matrix of these seven variables while Table VIII contains all the significant correlations of these seven variables with other variables employed in the study.

An analysis of the significant variables from the OPI reveals that the HFOS group scored significantly higher on the Autonomy scale $(\underline{F} = 4.62, \underline{df} = 1, 46, p < .05)$ than the LFOS group. In analyzing the results from the biographical-demographical questionnaire, it was found that all of the HFOS group were single compared with 83% of the LFOS group $(\underline{F} = 4.6, \underline{df} = 1, 46, p < .05)$, and the HFOS group endorsed not particularly liking children more times than the LFOS group $(\underline{F} = 7.67, \underline{df} = 1, 46, \underline{p} < .01)$. Furthermore, the LFOS group had more Protestant members $(\underline{F} = 4.39, \underline{df} = 1, 46, \underline{p} < .05)$, had mothers who held higher occupational job levels $(\underline{F} = 5.0, \underline{df} = 1, 46, \underline{p} < .05)$, and had more members who felt that they were their mother's favorite child $(\underline{F} = 5.08, \underline{df} = 1, 46, \underline{p} < .05)$ than the HFOS group.

TABLE VI

Variable	Mean LFOS	Mean HFOS	F	df	р
Au	47•75	52.25	4.62	1,46	•05
MF	47.08	43.13	4.27	1,46	•05
Single	0.83	1.0	4.60	1,46	•05
Don't Like Children	0.00	0.25	7.67	1,46	•01
Protestant	0.96	0.75	4.39	1,46	•05
Mother's Favorite - Yes	0.54	0.17	5.08	1,46	•05
Mother's Occupation	5.08	8.33	7•31	1,46	.01

F TABLE FOR THE SEVEN VARIABLES DISTINGUISHING THE HIGH AND LOW FEAR OF SUCCESS GROUPS AT STEP O

TABLE VII

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR THE SEVEN VARIABLES DISTINGUISHING THE HIGH AND LOW FEAR OF SUCCESS GROUPS AT STEP O

.

Variable	Au	MF	Single	D.L.C.	Prot.	M.F.Y.	M.O.L.
<u></u>				******			
Au	1.00						
MF	-0.14	1.00					
Single	0.13	-0.17	1.00				
D.L.C.	0.36*	0.17	0.00	1.00	l		
Prot.	-0.17	-0.19	-0.04	-0.30*	1.00		
M.F.Y.	-0.03	0.26	-0.26	0.00	0.06	1.00	
M.O.L.	0.03	0.15	0.00	-0.03	-0.15	-0.42**	1.00

*p < 05 df = 46

**p<.01 df = 46

D.L.C. = Don't Like Children

M.F.Y. = Mother's Favorite - Yes

M.O.L. = Mother's Occupational Level

TABLE VIII

CORRELATIONS OF THE SEVEN VARIABLES DISTINGUISHING THE HIGH AND LOW FEAR OF SUCCESS GROUPS AT STEP O WITH THE NONSIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

Variable	Au	MF	Single	D.L.C.	Prot.	M.F.Y.	M.O.L.
<u></u>	.43**						
ТО	• <u></u> • <u>3</u> 2*						
Es	•31*	55***				·	
Co	• 36*	31*					
RO					31*		
IE		33*					
PI		•31*					
Am	•41**						
PO	63***						36*
Married			67***			•55***	
Divorced			67***				
D.O.M.			67***			•55***	
N.C.P.				49***			
Catholic					73***		
N.R.P.				•36*	59***		
G.P.A.						32*	
Ord. Position					42**		•44**
# Brothers					41**		
# Sisters					38**		
M.F.N.						42**	
M.N.D.		32*					
F.F.Y.						-•33*	
С.Т.М.					40**		
Father's Ed.							31*
Mother's Ed.							-•49***
Self Criticism	•30*						
Row 1				29*	•40**		<u>_</u>
Column B				-•35*	•37*		
Column D				30*			
Total V					•38**		
Column Total V					•36*		
Row Total V	30*				•31*		
Dist. D					•40**		
Dist. 5					•34*		
Dist. 3					38**		
Dist. 1					•32*		
PSY					31*		
PD				31*	•31*		

		• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				
Variable	Au	MF	Single	D.L.C.	Prot.	M.F.Y.

TABLE VIII (Continued)

N T/F Net DP	Conflic ⁻	t	 		 	-•33* -•38** -•40** -•45**	 	
	*p<•0	05	df = df	46				
	**p<•(01	df = d	46				
	***p <• (001	df = 4	46				
	D.L.C.	= Don	't Like	Childre	en			
	M•F•Y•	= Mot	her's Fa	avorite	- Yes			
	M.O.	= Mot	her's O	ccupatio	onal Leve	el		
	D.O.M.	= Dur	ation o	f Marria	age			
	N•C•P•	= No	Child P	referenc	e			
	N.R.P.	= No	Religio	us Prefe	erence			
	G.P.A.	= Gra	de Poin	t Averaç	je .			
	M.F.N.	= Mot	her's Fa	avorite	– No			
	M.N.D.	= Mot	her's F	avorite	- No Di	fferen c e		
	F.F.Y.	= Fat	her's Fa	avorite	- Yes			
	С.Т.М.	= Clo	seness	to Mothe	er			
	PSY	= Psy	chosis					
	PD	= Per	sonalit	y Disord	ler			
	N	= Neu	rosis					
	T/F	= Tru	e/False	Ratio				
	DP	= Def	ensive 1	Posture				

M.O.L.

÷

Predictors at Step 6 of the Discriminant

Function Analysis

An overall <u>F</u> test (<u>F</u> = 7.56, <u>df</u> = 1,41, <u>p</u> < .01) indicates that a discriminant function with six predictor variables, presented in Table IX, significantly differentiates the high and low FOS groups. These six predictor variables come from the OPI, the biographical-demographical questionnaire, and the TSCS. Table X presents a correlation matrix of these six predictor variables. Table XI contains all the significant correlations of other variables with the predictor variables.

Specifically, the best six variables that distinguish the high and low FOS groups are the Theoretical Orientation and Masculinity-Femininity scales from the OPI; endorsement of not particularly liking children, no religious preference and father's occupational level from the biographical-demographical questionnaire; and the moral-ethical self (Column B) scale from the TSCS. The LFOS group scored higher on the TO scale which measures interest in scientific and analytic thinking and more masculine on the MF scale than the HFOS group. However, the HFOS group scored higher on the moral-ethical self scale which measures one's feelings of moral worth and endorsed not liking children and having no religious preference more frequently than the LFOS group. Also, the father's occupational level was higher for the HFOS group.

Tablex X and XI demonstrate that the variable, don't particularly like children, is significantly related to the variables, no religious preference and the moral-ethical self scale. Thus, women who reported that they didn't particularly like children also reported having no religious preference and less feeling of moral worth (scoring lower on

TABLE IX

	Final P	Final Predictors		
Variable	F Step O	F Entered	F Step 6	
Don't Like Children MF Moral-Ethical Self TO No Religious Pref. Father's Occ. Level	7.67** (1,46) 4.27* (1,46) 1.40 (1,46) 0.43 (1,46) 3.29 (1.46) 1.86 (1,46)	7.67** (1,46) 5.56* (1,45) 6.11* (1,44) 6.42* (1,43) 4.22* (1,42) 4.72* (1,41)	13.55***(1,41) 11.50**(1,41) 17.65***(1,41) 8.99**(1,41) 5.66*(1,41) 4.72*(1,41)	

VARIABLES INCLUDED IN THE DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION FOR HIGH FEAR OF SUCCESS VERSUS LOW FEAR OF SUCCESS WOMEN

*p**<.**05

p<•**01

***p**<•**001

TABLE X

CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE SIX PREDICTOR VARIABLES

Variable	D.L.C.	MF	M.E.S.	ТО	N.R.P.	F.O.L.
Don't Like Children	1.00					
MF	0.17	1.00				
Moral-Ethical Self	-0.35*	0.13	1.00			
ТО	0.15	-0.27	0.38**	1.00		
No Religious Pref.	0.36*	0.21	-0.28	0.12	1.00	
Father's Occ. Level	0.13	0.05	0.12	0.03	0.18	1.00

*p**<.**05 df = 46

p<.**01 df = 46

D.L.C. = Don't Like Children

M.E.S. = Moral Ethical Self F.O.L. = Father's Occupational Level

TABLE XI

Variable	D.L.C.	MF	M.E.S.	TO	N.R.P.	F.O.L.
Es		55***		•53***		
Co		31*		•56***		
Au	• 36*			•32*		
RO					•39**	
IE		33*				
PI		• 32*	•46**			
AL		•47***	•37*			
Am				• 30*		
PO				46**		
RB			•41**	•60***		
Married						•35*
D.O.M.					 .	•35*
F.C.P.						•30*
N.C.P.	49***		•29*		32*	
Prot.	30*		•37*		-•59***	
Catholic				30*		
Year at OSU		;		• 39**		
M.N.D.		32*		36*		
Father's Ed.						48***
Mother's Ed.						45**
Citv			•31*			
Total Conflict						•41**
Total P			•78***	•41**		
Row 1	30*	· 	•64***	•36*	30*	
Row 2			•67***	•32*		
Row 3				• 41**		
Column A				•48**		
Column C			•56***			
Column D	30*	'	•44**			
Column E			• 44**	•33*		
Total V	·				35*	
Column Total V					35*	
Dist. D			.63***	4 2**	30*	
Dist. 5			•52***	31*	30*	
Dist. 4			35*	34*		32*
Dist. 3			50***	35*		
Dist. 2			39**		. 33*	
Dist. 1			•64***	•45**		
GM			•61***	• • 45**		
PSY				37*		
PD	- 31*		.86***	.37*		
N N	33*		•66***			
PT ·						34*

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CORRELATIONS OF THE PREDICATOR VARIABLES WITH OTHER VARIABLES

Vari	able	D.L.C.	MF	M.E.S.	ТО	N.R.P.	F.O.L.
T/F Net DP NDS	Conflict	38* 40** 45**	 	 •57***	30* 31* 41**	 	 •32*
	*p <. 05	df = 46					
	**p <. 01	df = 46					
	***p <. 00	1 df = 46					
	$D \cdot L \cdot C \cdot =$	Don't Like Chi	ldren				
	M.E.S. =	Moral-Ethical	Self				
	$N \cdot R \cdot P \cdot =$	No Religious F	referen	ice			
	$F \cdot O \cdot L =$	Father's Occup	ational	Level			
	$D \cdot O \cdot M \cdot =$	Duration of Ma	rriage				
	$F \cdot C \cdot P \cdot =$	Female Child F	referre	ed			
	$N \cdot C \cdot P \cdot =$	No Child Prefe	erence				
	$M \cdot N \cdot D \cdot =$	Mother's Favor	rite - N	lo Differenc	ce		
	GM =	General Malad	iustment	;			
	PSY =	Psychosis					
	N =	Neurosis					
	PI =	Personality Ir	ntegrati	.on			
	T/F =	True/False Rat	cio				
	DP =	Defensive Post	cure				
	NOS =	Number of Devi	ant Sig	jns			

TABLE XI (Continued)

.

the moral-ethical self scale). Furthermore, subjects who reported not particularly liking children were less certain of how they saw themselves (scored low on the identity scale), had less feelings of adequacy, worth and value as a family member (scored lower on the family self scale), were not as well defended (scored lower on the defensive posture scale) and tended to manifest a greater similarity to individuals with personality disorders or neurosis (scored lower on the inverse personality disorder and neurosis scales). Women who reported having no religious preference were also less certain of how they saw themselves (scored lower on the identity scale).

Table XII is a frequency distribution of the accuracy of predicting the group membership of each subject utilizing a discriminant function with these six predictor variables. After Step 6, the proportion of HFOS subjects correctly classified into the HFOS group was 0.92. Similarly, the proportion of LFOS subjects correctly classified into the LFOS group was 0.92.

TABLE XII

Probability	LFOS/LFOS	LFOS/HFOS	HFOS/HFOS	HFOS/LFOS
1.00	0	0	0	0
•95 - •99	8	1	6	0
•90 - •94	4	0	7	0
. 85 - .89	2	0	1	1
. 80 - . 84	3	0	0	1
•75 - •79	1	1	3	0
•70 - •74	2	0	0	0
•65 - •69	1	0	1	0
.6064	0	0	1	0
•55 - •59	1	0	2	0
•50 - •54	0	<u>0</u>	_1	<u>0</u>
Total	22	2	22	2

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE PROBABILITY OF CLASSIFICATION OF HIGH AND LOW FEAR OF SUCCESS GROUPS

 $\rm LFOS/\rm LFOS$ $\rm Low$ fear of success S's statistically classified as low (cor.)

 $\rm LFOS/\rm HFOS$ $\rm Low$ fear of success S's statistically classified as high (incor.)

 $\rm HFOS/\rm HFOS~$ High fear of success S's statistically classified as high (cor.)

 $\rm HFOS/LFOS$ High fear of success S's statistically classified as low (incor.)

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to confirm and expand current research in the area of FOS as well as to integrate theoretical considerations with empirical findings. A projective technique was used to classify women into high and low FOS imagery groups. Then, 78 personality and biographical-demographical variables were examined to see which variables could successfully predict group membership and successfully differentiate the two groups. It should be strongly emphasized that only seven of seventy-eight variables significantly (p < .05)differentiated the high and low FOS groups at Step 0 of the discriminant function analysis. Since this is only slightly greater than the number that would be expected by chance, it lends support to Tresemer's (1974) report of the difficulty encountered in accurately measuring FOS. Furthermore, it casts some doubt as to the existence of the FOS phenomenon. Thus, any interpretations, conclusions, or speculations based on the results of this study should be viewed as tentative and read with caution.

Three exploratory hypotheses had been formulated. The first of these examined whether the HFOS women would have a significantly lower self concept than the LFOS group as measured by the total P scale of the TSCS. This hypothesis was not supported. The total P scale is a composite score of three internal (Row scores) and five external (Column

scores) referents to the self. Thus, it is possible that the total P scale was not specific and sensitive enough to detect differences in particular areas of self concept. Although the subscores (Row and Column scores) of total P did not significantly differentiate the high and low FOS groups, some were significantly related to two variables (not particularly liking children and being Protestant) on which significant differences between the two groups were found (see Table VIII). Not particularly liking children, a characteristic endorsed significantly more often by subjects in the high FOS group, was found to be negatively correlated with Row 1 (a measure of how positively one sees oneself), Column B (a measure of how positive one feels about their moral worth) and Column D (a measure of how adequate one feels as a family member). Being Protestant, a characteristic endorsed significantly more often by subjects in the low FOS group, was found to be positively correlated with Row 1 and Column D. Although these correlations were statistically significant, they were not especially high. Therefore, the writer feels that no firm conclusions can be made at this time concerning the relationship between FOS and the subscores of total Ρ.

Another consideration in attempting to account for the failure to find support for the hypothesis that high FOS subjects would score lower on the total P scale of the TSCS is related to differences between the subject population relative to the present study and the subject population on which the hypothesis was based. The hypothesis was based on the writings of psychoanalytic authors concerned with moral masochism and treating clinical cases, while the present study involved a non-clinical population of female undergraduate students. The mean score on the

Althof (1973) Projective Technique for subjects in the high FOS group was only 5.04, far below the maximum score (35) obtainable, and the possibility exists that college women are a rather homogeneous group with respect to FOS. In the absence of normative data on relevant clinical cases, one can only speculate that the HFOS group used in the present study may not have been, relative to the clinical cases, very high.

The second hypothesis that the HFOS imagery group would be significantly more socially extroverted than the LFOS imagery group as measured by the SE scale of the OPI was also not confirmed. This hypothesis was based on the theoretical notion of Schuster (1955), who felt that individuals who fear success tend to blame external rather than internal factors for their lack of success, and Schwenn (cited in Horner, 1972) who felt that external factors, the attitudes of parents and peers, arouse the motive to avoid success. However, the SE scale is a measure of preferred style of relating to people rather than a measure of attribution of success or failure. In retrospect, it would have been better to employ a separate measure such as Rotter's locus of control scale to investigate this important hypothesis. However, practical considerations regarding the administration of the tests did not permit this.

In the third exploratory hypothesis, it was stated that the high and low FOS imagery groups would mainfest significant differences in attitudes and interests regarding their sexual roles as measured by the MF scale of the OPI. This hypothesis was confirmed and demonstrated that women high in FOS imagery were significantly more femininely oriented in their attitudes and interests than the LFOS imagery group

who manifested less feminine interests and attitudes. This finding supports Horner's (1968), Maccoby's (1963) and Schwenn's (cited in Horner, 1972) theoretical notions that intellectual prowess, aggressiveness and leadership are all desirable qualities but less congruent with the feminine stereotype.

In addition to the MF scale of the OPI, significant differences between the groups were found on six other variables at Step 0 of the discriminant function analysis. Subjects in the HFOS group appear to the more autonomous, are more likely to be single, are more likely to report that they do not particularly like children, and are less likely to belong to the Protestant faith than subjects in the LFOS group. The HFOS subjects also categorized their mothers as being in lower occupational groups than the LFOS subjects, and were more likely to report they were not their mother's favorite child. In attempting to integrate and interpret these results, it becomes apparent that although the HFOS woman manifests more feminine interests and attitudes than the LFOS woman, she also manifests several characteristics that are in direct conflict with the traditional sex role. Being autonomous, being single, and not particularly liking children are not generally regarded as traditional female sex role characteristics. According to Horner (1972), approaching success, a term which she does not clearly define and, thus, is open to multiple interpretations, also conflicts with the traditional female sex role and arouses anxiety. Other writers have stated that this anxiety is defended against by the HFOS woman choosing to deny or avoid (Schwenn, cited in Horner, 1972), or distort or sabotage (Pappo, 1972) her impending success. Supporting evidence was found by Schwenn (cited in Horner, 1972) who reported that a majority of the HFOS women

studied had changed their majors in the direction of a more traditional femine-type major by their junior year.

The fact that the HFOS women in the present study were more likely than LFOS women to report not being their mother's favorite child and were more likely to categorize their mothers as coming from lower occupational groups can readily be interpreted within a psychoanalytic framework (which reflects the writer's preferred theoretical orientation). According to A. Freud (1936), the mother serves as an important role model for traditional feminine values which are acquired through the process of identification. Within this framework, it may be that while rebelling against the traditional feminine values the HFOS woman is simultaneously rebelling against her mother.

The final portion of this study concerned itself with predicting group membership by use of a discriminant function analysis. This type of analysis considers the fact that many of the variables used in this study are intercorrelated. The discriminant function analysis attempts to maximize predictive power with the fewest possible number of variables. As a result, six variables were selected: Don't particularly like children (DLC), Masculinity-Feminity (MF), Moral-Ethical Self (MES), Thinking Orientation (TO), No Religious Preference (NRP), and Father's Occupational Level (FOL). Using these six predictors, 92% correct classification was achieved. The addition of other variables did not increase predictive power. Employing these six predictors, it appears that a HFOS woman, in contrast to a LFOS woman, is less likely to care for children, has more feminine interests, is more satisfied with her moral-ethical values (feelings of being a good or bad person), is less interested in scientific and analytic thinking, is more likely to have

no religious preference and her father is more likely to work in a higher occupational level.

Only recently have investigators begun to explore and examine the phenomenon of FOS. Many results have not been replicated and different studies tended to employ differing methodologies while overgeneralizing their conclusions and interpretations. This present study also suffers from these criticisms of lack of replication and utilization of a different methodology. And, since only seven of seventy-eight variables significantly differentiated the high and low FOS groups at Step 0 of the discriminant function analysis, it demonstrates the difficulty of measuring FOS as well as casting some doubt on the existence of the phenomenon.

It is recommended that a more sensitive, discriminating and objective means be sought out to measure FOS. Then, a study of the developmental processes that lead an individual to fear success should be investigated. Also, it would be interesting to see if sex differences in the qualitative expression of FOS exist. Finally, more objective clinical study is called for to relate FOS to both psychopathological and normal conditions.

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APPENDIX A

COMPLETE LISTING AND DESCRIPTION OF THE

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALES

COMPLETE LISTING AND DESCRIPTION OF THE

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALES

<u>Scale</u>

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Description

1.	Self Criticism	Measure of defensiveness.
2.	True-False Ratio	Measure of response set or response bias.
3.	Net Conflict	Directional measure of differences in
		response to positive and negative items
		in the same area of perception.
4.	Total Conflict	Total amount of difference in response
		to positive and negative items.
5.	Total P	Measure of overall level of self esteem.
6.	Row 1	Measure of how one sees himself.
7.	Row 2	Measure of how he feels about the self
		he perceives.
8.	Row 3	Measure of the individual's perception
		of his own behavior.
9.	Column A	Measure of one's feelings regarding his
		state of health, physical appearance,
		skills, and sexuality.
10.	Column B	Measure of one's feelings of moral
		worth, relationship to God, feelings of
		being a good or bad person and satis-
		faction with one's religion or lack of
		it.
11.	Column C	Measure of one's feelings of personal
		worth and one's feelings of adequacy
		as a person.
12.	Column D	Measure of one's feelings of worth,
		adequacy as a family member.
13.	Column E	Measure of feelings of self perceived
		in relation to others.
14.	Total Variability	Measure of total variability of entire
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	record.
15.	Column Total Variability	Measure of total variability within
	D D D D D D D D D D	columns.
16.	Row Total Variability	Measure of variation across rows.
17.	Distribution Score	Summary score of the way one distri-
40		butes his answers over five choices.
18.	Distribution 5	Number of answers to choice #5.
19.	Distribution 4	Number of answers to choice #4.
20.	Distribution 3	Number of answers to choice #3.
21.	Distribution 2	Number of answers to choice #2.
22.	Distribution 1	Number of answers to choice #1.
و2∠. مار	Delensive Posture	Subtle measure of adjustment
<u>44</u> .	General Maladjustment	meladiustment
25	Paychosis	maraujustment. Differentiates neveratic nationts from
•رے	I SYCHUSTS	other groups
		omer groups.

Scale

Description

26. Personality Disorder Differentiates personality disorders from other groups. 27. Differentiates neurotics from other Neurosis groups. 28. Personality Integration Differentiates personality integration group from other groups. 29. Number of Deviant Signs

Empirical measure of number of deviant features on all scales.

APPENDIX B

COMPLETE LISTING AND DESCRIPTION OF THE

OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY

COMPLETE LISTING AND DESCRIPTION OF THE

OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY

Scale

1. Thinking Introversion (TI)

2. Thinking Orientation (TO)

3. Estheticism (Es)

4. Complexity (Co)

5. Autonomy (Au)

6. Religious Orientation (RO)

7. Social Extroversion (SE)

8. Impulse Expression (IE)

9. Personal Integration

- 10. Anxiety Level
- 11. Altruism (Am)

12. Practical Outlook (PO)

13. Masculinity-Femininity (MF)

14. Response Bias (RB)

orientation. Interest in problem solving, logical or critical thinking and science. Interest in artistic matters, level of sensitivity to esthetic stimulation. Reflects an experimental or flexible orientation in the area of perceiving and organizing phenomena. Independence from authority as traditionally imposed through social institutions. Skepticism or commitment to Judiac-Christian beliefs. Preferred style of relating to people in a social context. General readiness to express impulses and seek gratification either in conscious or overt action. Measure of personal integration. Measure of anxiety. Orientation to personal gain versus commitment to welfare of fellow man. M asure of utilitarian or practical orientation.

Description

General interest in ideas-scholarly

Measures some of the differences in attitudes and interests between men and women.

Measure of test taking attitude.

APPENDIX C

CUE INTERPRETATION INSTRUCTIONS

CUE INTERPRETATIONS

INSTRUCTIONS

You are going to see a series of verbal leads or cues, and your task is to tell a story that is suggested to you by each cue. Try to imagine what is going on in each. 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 plot and characters.

You will have twenty (20) seconds to look at a verbal cue and then four (4) minutes to write your story about it. Write your first impressions and work rapidly. I will keep time and tell you when it is time to finish your story and to get ready for the next cue.

There are no right or wrong stories or kinds of stories, so you may feel free to write whatever story is suggested to you when you look at a cue. Spelling, punctuation, and grammar are not important. What is important is 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 cue.

Notice that there will be one page for writing each story, following the page on which the verbal cue is given. If you need more space for writing any story, use the reverse side of the previous page--the one on which the cue was presented. Do not turn or go on to the next page until told to do so.

APPENDIX D

A COMPLETE LISTING OF ALL THE VARIABLES

EMPLOYED IN THE DISCRIMINANT

FUNCTION ANALYSIS

A COMPLETE LISTING OF ALL THE VARIABLES

EMPLOYED IN THE DISCRIMINARY

FUNCTION ANALYSIS

<u>Variable Nu</u>	mber	Taken From	Scale
1		OPI	TI
2		OPI	ТО
3		OPI	Es
4		OPI	Со
5		OPI	Au
6		OPI	RO
7		OPI	SE
8		OPI	IE
9		OPI	PI
10		OPI	Al
11		OPT	Am
12		OPT	P0
13		OPT	MF
14		OPT	PB
15		BDO	
15		BDO	Aye Sinalo
10		BDQ	
17			
10		BDQ	Divorced
19		BDQ	Duration of marriage
20		BDQ	Prefer male child
21		BDQ	Prefer female child
22		BDQ	Don't like children
23		BDQ	No preference
24		BDQ	Protestant
25		BDQ	Catholic
26		BDQ	No Religious Pref.
27		BDQ	Year in school
28		BDQ	Grade point average
29 .		BDQ	# times major change
30		BDQ	Ordinal Position
31		BDQ	# Brothers
3 2		BDQ	# Sisters
33		BDQ	Yes - Mothers Favorite
34		BDQ	No - Mothers Favorite
35		BDQ	No difference - Mother
36		BDQ	Yes - Fathers Favorite
37		BDQ	No - Fathers Favorite
38		BDQ	No difference - Father
39		BDQ	Closeness to father
40	· · · ·	BDQ	Closeness to mother
41		BDQ	Fathers occ. level
42		BDQ	Fathers ed. level
43		BDQ	Mothers occ. level
44		BDQ	Mothers ed. level
45		BDQ	large city
- J			gc (v)

Variable Number	Taken From	Scale
46	BDQ	City
47	BDQ	Town
48	BDQ	Rural area
40	BDO	Vory rural area
50	TSC S	sc
51	TSCS	Total Conflict
52	TSCS	
53	TSCS	Pour 1
54		Row 1 Bow 2
55 55	TSCS	
55	TSCS	
57	TSCS	
58	1505	
50		
59		
61		
60		Column Totol V
62		Column Iotal V
61		$D_{i} = D$
65		Dist D
66		$Dist_{\bullet} j$
67		$D_1St_{\bullet} + 2$
68		Dist.
60		Dist = 2
89 70		
70		OM DCV
71		rsi nn
(4 7)		
()		
(4 75	1903	
()	1909	1/F Not Conflict
70	1202	Net Conilict
	TSUS	DP
78	TSUS	NDS

•

- OPI = Omnibus Personality Inventory
- BDQ = Biographical Demongraphical Questionnaire
- TSCS = Tennessee Self Concept Scale

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