ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AND SELF-CONCEPT IN COLLEGE WOMEN

By

LINDA KAY FARLOW

Bachelor of Science
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1975

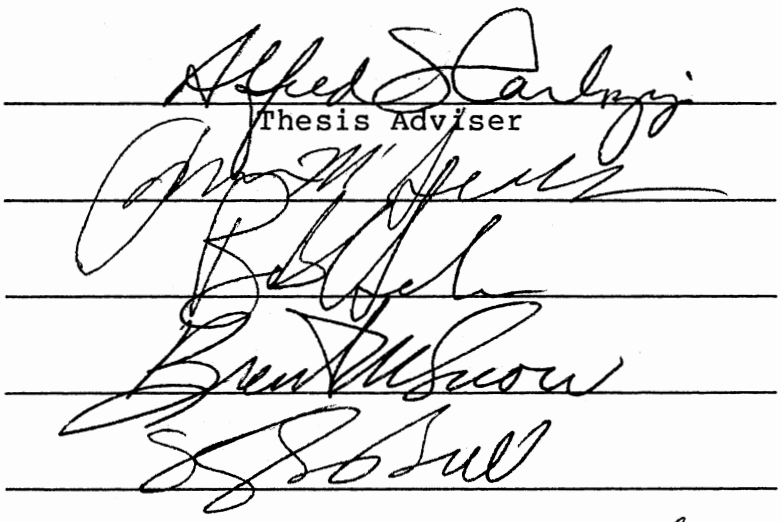
Master of Science
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1977

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
May, 1988

ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AND SELF-CONCEPT

IN COLLEGE WOMEN

Thesis Approved:



Thesis Adviser

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation to my major advisor, Dr. James Seals, for his encouragement and support during the completion of this study. I would also like to thank my dissertation advisor, Dr. Al Carlozzi, for his helpfulness. Dr. Kay Bull has been very helpful with the statistics required in the study and has also been a continuing source of encouragement and support. Dr. Bob Helm has also been very kind, helpful, and resourceful as a member of my committee. I also wish to thank Dr. Brent Snow for his willing helpfulness in serving as a committee member.

In addition, I wish to thank Andy Mauromoustakos for his help as computer consultant in the data analysis. Dr. Margaret White in the College of Business Administration has also been very helpful in an advisory capacity in the collection of the research data. I also wish to thank Gayle Tomerlin for her ongoing help, support and encouragement in the capacity of editorial and word processing consultant.

Finally, I want to extend my most heart-felt thanks to my mother, Mrs. Rosalie Laughlin, for her steadfast understanding, encouragement, and love during this time.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between attitudes toward women and their self-concept has been the subject of extensive study and investigation. It appears that women's attitudes toward their role as women and the development of self-concept have their beginnings in the socialization process.

In her description of the socialization of women's sex-roles, Hoffman (1972) stated that girls, as compared to boys, have less encouragement for independence and more parental protectiveness. They also have less pressure for establishing an identity separate from the mother and less mother-child conflict which highlights this separation. As a result, girls engage in less independent exploration of their environment than boys; and they develop neither adequate skills nor confidence but continue to be dependent upon others. Thus, while boys learn to expand mastery strivings through developing competitiveness and other skills to cope with their environment, girls continue to rely on eliciting the help of others (Hoffman, 1972).

It is suggested by Clasen (1978) that women are often socialized for social effectiveness and are prepared for more social, less competitive roles. Also, by college age,

women show less confidence than men in their ability to perform well on a variety of intellectual tasks (Stein & Bailey, 1976); further, women are more likely to attribute academic success to external factors such as luck or chance while men are more likely to attribute success to their own abilities (Frieze, 1975). In summary, women are more likely to desire to succeed in areas which contemporary western culture has designated as appropriate for them, that is, being skillful in social situations and relationships.

O'Leary (1974) stated achievement striving is apt to be suppressed if women experience conflict between interests in marriage and family and successful competitive achievement. An additional barrier to achievement in nontraditional female roles is what Horner (1972) has termed "fear of success." She found evidence which indicated that when success is likely or possible, young women are threatened by the negative consequences they expect to follow success, they become anxious, and their positive achievement strivings become blocked. When otherwise achievement-motivated young women are faced with a conflict between their feminine image and the expression of their competencies or the development of their abilities and interests in nontraditional areas, they adjust their behaviors to their internalized sex-role stereotype. Traditional feminine sex-role characteristics serve as an internal barrier to achievement motivation in women. Hoffman (1977) found that

women high in fear of success were more likely to become pregnant when on the verge of reaching a higher level of success than the level at which their husbands or boyfriends were functioning.

Attitudes toward women's roles have been found to have a powerful effect on self-concept in women. Nadelson (1974) stated that the white middle-class U.S. culture often reinforces a view of women as helpless, dependent children, thus leading to the development of a self-image which incorporates the prevailing sex-role stereotypes and encouraging behavior in a stereotypical direction. Conflict and guilt regarding deviance from the prevailing sex role are often experienced by women. Also, there are few supports for acceptable growth in other directions. Even the successful professional woman is more likely to doubt her own worth than her successful professional male counterpart. In fact, a woman may doubt her legitimacy in situations in which men take their authority for granted (Nadelson & Eisenberg, 1977).

Self-esteem has also been found to have an impact on the type of vocation an individual chooses to enter. For example, in one theory of vocational choice Super has proposed that individuals attempt to implement their self-concepts by entering a vocation that will allow them this expression. He proposes that people are likely to be better satisfied if they are in an occupation requiring a pattern

of interests and abilities similar to their own (Osipow, 1973). Along this same line of thinking regarding the role of self-esteem in vocational choice, Korman (1966) postulated that individuals will engage in behavioral roles which serve to maximize their sense of cognitive balance or consistency. He defined low self-esteem as being characterized by a sense of personal inadequacy and an inability to achieve need satisfaction in the past; whereas high self-esteem was characterized by a sense of personal adequacy and the ability to achieve need-satisfaction. Korman found evidence to support his hypothesis that individuals with high self-esteem will seek out an occupation in which they can feel personally adequate and where their needs can be met whereas low-self-esteem individuals are likely to seek out situations where they do not feel adequate and their needs are not met.

Korman (1967) conducted research which further supported the hypothesis that individuals who think of themselves as more adequate or competent are more likely to wind up in those situations where they will be adequate and competent. His study showed that the females in the study may have a tendency to choose an occupation which utilizes their low abilities more than their high abilities. Korman in this same study proposed that the low self-esteem individuals will be more accepting of situations where they both feel themselves to be inadequate and where they

actually tend not to be adequate. This will lower self-esteem even further and may lead them even further to choose roles where they do not think they will be adequate. Korman refers to this as a closed-loop situation. However, just the opposite would be true for the high self-esteem person. In summary, if women have low self-esteem, they may choose vocations which call for abilities they are low in, thus serving to further lower their sense of self-esteem. Korman stated that a similar closed-loop situation would present itself in the noncognitive areas leading low-self-esteem individuals into social roles that are non-need-satisfying which would in turn lead to a further lowering of self-esteem.

Another variable which affects attitudes toward women's role is age. The effect of age on attitudes toward women's roles was studied by Slevin and Wingrove (1983) using a three generational sample of 103 college women, 88 of their mothers, and 30 of the maternal grandmothers. This study attempted to document generational differences in the area of sex-role orientations. The authors utilized the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and found that daughters tended to be more liberal than mothers, and mothers tended to be more liberal than grandmothers. Spence, Helmreich, and Gibson (1982) also conducted an intergenerational study utilizing the Attitudes Toward Women Scale to survey 281 male and 241 female college students along with 228 fathers

and 288 mothers of the students in 1972. The 1972 data was compared to AWS scores collected in 1976 for 301 male and 298 females along with 395 fathers and 432 mothers of the students. The bulk of the parents were in their mid-forties. In both 1972 and 1976 parents were significantly more conservative than their offspring ($p < .01$).

Another study in which age, self-concept and attitudes toward women's roles were examined was carried out by Zuckerman (1980). The sample for this study consisted of 884 male and female undergraduates. Only 46 women and 35 men in the study were over age 25. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale was used to assess students' attitudes toward the role of women. It was found that women with relatively traditional plans for homemaking involvement and careers in fields which are predominantly female were as satisfied with themselves as the more career-oriented women. The author suggested that this finding may reflect the fact that home-making and traditional careers are now options rather than requirements for women. Therefore, younger women may hold a different attitude both toward women's roles and their own self-concept in relation to these roles.

The impact of age, education, and marital status on a traditional attitude toward women's roles was investigated by Morgan and Walker (1983) using a national sample of 1,522 women. The traditional role was defined as one in which the wife puts the interest of her husband and children first and

attains her major satisfaction from the family. Sex-role orientation was determined by responses to five statements regarding attitudes toward the life of women today; e.g., "It's more important for a wife to help her husband than to have a career herself." In this study it was found that well-educated females are less supportive of the traditional role. In addition, the older the woman is the more likely she is to be committed to the helpmate or traditional role. Marital status had only a very minor predictive value for attitude toward sex role.

Stafford (1984) found a significant negative correlation between age and scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) indicating older subjects had lower, more traditional scores; and younger subjects had higher, more egalitarian scores. Marital status had no significant effect on either AWS scores or self-esteem. The sample was composed of 446 women who were alumnae from the classes of 1950 to 1980 from a small co-educational liberal arts college. Fifty percent were between the ages of 26 and 35, and 64% of the women were currently married. The level of education was high with 7% having attended college without graduating, 54% holding a college degree, and 39% holding an advanced degree.

Another study in which age and level of education were discussed in relation to attitude toward feminism was carried out by Roper and Labeff (1977). This study compared

data collected by Kirkpatrick in 1934 concerning feminism and sex roles to data obtained from university students enrolled in sociology classes at Texas Tech University in 1974. Both Kirkpatrick and Roper and Labeff also collected data on the students' parents. Kirkpatrick's sample consisted of 241 male and 312 female students, 152 fathers and 165 mothers. Roper and Labeff's sample consisted of 185 female and 97 male students, 155 mothers and 131 fathers. The instrument used was an 80-item scale developed by Kirkpatrick to equally represent four categories of issues: 1) economic, 2) domestic, 3) political-legal, and 4) conduct-social status. In both samples students tended to score higher on favorable attitudes toward feminism than did their parents except in cases where mothers scored higher than the student males. In most cases females in both generations scored higher on feminism than males in both studies. In both the 1934 and the 1974 parent samples, the higher the level of education, the more favorable were the attitudes toward feminism.

A study which examined the relationship between years of college attendance and changes in attitudes toward women was carried out by Etaugh and Spandikow (1981). In this study the Attitudes Toward Women Scale was administered to 430 university students who had taken the test two years previously. From the first to the second testing both male and female freshmen and sophomores became increasingly

liberal in their attitudes toward women. However, although the sample as a group became more liberal, approximately 25% of the subjects (53 females and 56 males) became more traditional.

In summary, it has been argued that the socialization process for women has a tendency to encourage their dependence on others for mastery of their environment. Women are encouraged to develop effectiveness in social situations and are prone to suppress achievement striving in nontraditional areas if they experience conflict between marriage and family and successful competitive achievement. Women adjust their behavior to conform to their internalized sex-role stereotype. These stereotypes also serve to reinforce society's view of women as helpless and dependent and likely lead to a sense of low self-esteem. Persons low in self-esteem often enter vocations which serve to reinforce their sense of inadequacy whereas individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to enter vocations where they will feel more personally adequate. Age is also a factor in how women see themselves, since the older the woman the more apt she is to be committed to the traditional role. Previous research has indicated that marital status, however, had only a very minor predictive value for attitude toward sex role. Level of education has also been found to be a factor in attitudes toward women in both men and women with the higher the level of education, the more favorable

the attitude toward feminism.

Need for the Study

This study was conducted in order to help clarify the relationship that exists between attitudes toward women and self-concept. Various researchers have reported conflicting results regarding this relationship. For example, Clasen (1978) contended that women who try to achieve outside of the traditional areas for women (social situations and relationships) may report low self-esteem. However, Birnbaum (1975) found that the group of homemakers in her study had a lower sense of self-esteem than did a group of professional women who were either college professors or physicians.

In addition, Bardwick and Douvan (1972) found that society values and rewards masculinity and does not value nor reward femininity. They state that this contributes to low self-esteem in women. However, in a study conducted by Tolor, Kelly and Stebbins (1976) among undergraduate students, the women had higher self-concepts than the men. In another study, Church (1983) found that in a group of college students the women scored significantly higher on a measure of academic achievement, but the men had a significantly higher level of occupational plans. For example, the men listed twice as often as women, owning or managing a business, engineering, and other high-paying positions while

women listed twice as often as men such roles as homemaker, counselor, flight attendant, etc.

Therefore, research studies have yielded conflicting results related to attitudes toward women and self-concept. This study is needed in order to help clarify the relationship between these two concepts.

Operational Definitions

The following definitions are offered to provide clarification of major terms used throughout this study:

Attitudes Toward Women's Roles

These attitudes will be those delineated on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (see Appendix A) which contains statements about the rights and roles of women in such areas as vocational, educational, and intellectual activities; dating behavior and etiquette; sexual behavior; and marital relationships. These attitudes will be measured by the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and are divided into two categories by the scale: traditional and contemporary, pro-feminist. Factor analytic studies by Spence and Helmreich (1972) have verified the existence of a traditional or conventional attitude toward women and a second factor which deals with equal ability and equal treatment of men and women in vocational and educational endeavors.

Self-Concept

Self-concept will be defined as an individual's picture or concept of himself or herself. It has an influence on behavior, personality, and state of mental health and contains both positive and negative components. Self-concept will be measured by the Total P Score on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (see Appendix B), which is a measure of the individual's overall level of self-esteem or self-concept.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined the relationships between scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale in a group of female college seniors who were business, psychology and education majors. The effects of age and major were controlled since it was believed that attitudes toward women would affect the type of profession a woman would choose. For example, women with traditional values may choose professions which have been traditionally dominated by women, such as education, whereas women with more contemporary, profeminist values may choose fields which have not been as traditionally dominated by women, such as business or psychology. Furthermore, research has shown that there tends to be a positive correlation between age and attitudes toward women with a larger majority of younger women tending to have more contemporary, profeminist values and a larger majority of older women tending to have

more traditional values.

Hypothesis

It was hypothesized in this study that there would be a significant ($p < .05$) correlation between traditional scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and low self-concept scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Assumptions and Limitations

It was assumed that participants in the study were answering the testing instruments to the best of their ability and were being as truthful as possible with their responses. It was also assumed that subjects were participating on a voluntary basis without any coercion, and that the subjects had the ability to comprehend and understand the questions asked of them on the testing instruments.

Limitations of the study include the fact that the subjects do not represent a random sample. In addition, the subjects were drawn from a very limited population, and this limits the generalizability of the results. Also, since the study is a correlational one, no cause and effect relationship may be inferred. The study was also carried out with a strictly volunteer sample, perhaps eliminating subjects who were experiencing severe role conflict or other stresses and/or problems related to the area under study.

Summary

This study examined the relationship between attitudes toward women's roles and self-concept. These attitudes originate and are kept alive by the socialization process women experience in U.S. culture. Women are socialized for social effectiveness rather than mastery and competitiveness, and there is a great deal of pressure for women to function in accordance with existing stereotypes. Women may doubt their own competence and develop a sense of low-esteem which influences them to remain in non-need-satisfying situations which lowers self-esteem even more in the closed-loop fashion described by Korman (1967).

Attitudes toward women are also affected by age with some studies showing older women as being more traditional (Slevin & Wingrove, 1983, and Spence, Helmreich, & Gibson, 1982). Other studies have shown more educated women as being less traditional (Morgan & Walker, 1983) This study is needed to help clarify the relationship between attitudes toward women and self-concept since contradictory results have been found. For example some studies have shown that traditional women have a low sense of self-esteem (Birnbaum, 1975) while other theorists propose that non-traditional women should have more difficulty with low self-esteem (Clasen, 1978).

For the purpose of this study attitudes toward women will be determined by the Attitudes Toward Women Scale,

i.e., statements about the rights and roles of women in areas such as vocational, educational and intellectual activities, dating behavior, etc. Self-concept was measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The study hypothesized that there would be significant relationships between women's scores on these tests when age and major are controlled. It was assumed in the study that participants responded truthfully on testing instruments and that they understood the content of the instruments. In addition, the study is limited in its generalizability due to a non-random sample. Also, since the study is a correlational one, no cause and effect relationships may be inferred.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on 1) women's socialization 2) the development of self-concept in women, and 3) attitudes toward women's sex roles.

Some effects of the female socialization process will be examined drawing from Goldberg and Lewis's (1972) work in socialization patterns of infants. In addition, both the work of Hoffman (1972) and Bardwick and Douvan (1972) in the area of boys' and girls' socialization models will be discussed. Also, O'Leary's (1976) work on affiliation needs in women and Frieze's (1975) work on the attributional process and its relationship to how women view their own successes will be discussed. The discussion of women's socialization patterns will also include a brief section on the deleterious effect marriage has on a woman's role as a student (Feldman, 1974). This section will be concluded with a discussion of Matina Horner's (1972b) work on fear of success in women as well as Hoffman's (1974) work in replicating one of Horner's studies. Hoffman found that the most common theme related to fear of success in women was affiliative loss.

A second section of the review of the literature will

explore ways in which society's attitudes toward women affect a woman's image of herself, i.e. her self-concept. Nadelson (1974) stated that society has been inclined to see women as weak and helpless, and this has contributed to women seeing themselves in this way. Bardwick and Douvan (1972) stated that women often see themselves as inferior to men. Farmer (1976) discussed the fact that women have lower levels of academic self-confidence than men and are less competitive than men. The work of Clasen (1978), Goldberg (1972) and Korman (1970) will also be discussed as it is related to self concept in women.

Some Effects of the Female Socialization Process

Since early independence in children has been found to be positively related to high need for achievement (McClelland, 1955), some of the socialization patterns of female children have been examined to see how they are related to the need for achievement (n Ach). Goldberg and Lewis (1972) examined the play behavior of year-old infants in relation to early sex differences. They found that girls were more dependent, showed less exploratory behavior, and their play reflected a more quiet style. Boys were more independent, showed more exploratory behavior and were more vigorous in their play. The authors stated that these behavior differences approximated those usually found

between the sexes at later ages. It was hypothesized in this study that in the first year or two the parents reinforce those behaviors they consider sex-role appropriate, and the child learns these sex-role behaviors independent of any internal motive. It was suggested that as the child becomes older (above age 3) the rules for this class of reinforced behavior became clearer, and he or she developed internal guides to follow these earlier reinforced rules. The child also learned appropriate sex-role behaviors through modeling. Therefore, girls very early in life are being reinforced for dependent behavior which is considered to be appropriate for the female sex role in our society and is also consistent with low need for achievement.

Early childhood experiences and women's achievement motives have also been explored by Hoffman (1972) who suggested that girls as compared to boys have less encouragement for independence, have more parental protectiveness, less pressure for establishing an identity separate from the mother, and less mother-child conflict which highlighted this separation. Hoffman also stated that girls engage in less independent exploration of their environment. As a result, they develop neither adequate skills nor confidence but continue to be dependent upon others. Thus, while boys learn to effectively master their environment, girls learn to rely on eliciting the help of others. Therefore, affiliative relationships assumed a great deal of importance to

girls. If achievement threatens affiliation in girls, performance may be sacrificed or anxiety results.

Bardwick and Douvan (1972) stated that dependent behavior which is normal to all young children, is permitted for girls and prohibited for boys. Therefore, girls are not encouraged to give up old techniques for relating to adults and continue to use others to define their identities. They are also not encouraged to learn to manipulate the physical world and to learn to supply their own emotional needs. Girls' self-esteem remains dependent upon other people's acceptance and love; they continue to use the skills of others instead of developing their own.

Bardwick and Douvan (1972) also discussed the fact that boys are pressured by their own sexual and aggressive impulses and by society's demands to give up depending predominantly on the response of others for feelings of self-esteem. In the process of developing a more stable source of self-esteem boys begin, before the age of five, to develop a sense of self and criteria of worth which are relatively independent of others' responses. They turn to achievements in the outer and real world and begin to value themselves for real achievements in terms of objective criteria. The authors have succinctly pointed out the difference in the early socialization of males and females with boys learning to manipulate the physical world and learning to supply their own emotional needs. Girls, on the other

hand, are encouraged to remain dependent upon others' acceptance and love for their self-esteem. They are not encouraged to meet their own emotional needs.

Baucom and Danker-Brown (1984) found that women low on masculinity showed signs of giving up often and giving up quickly after experiencing failure on a task identified to them as being male-stereotyped. Also, Baucom (1983) found that after a failure and loss of control experience, feminine sex-typed women did not chose to put themselves back in control of their environments whereas women high in masculinity did reassert control. The authors noted that the feminine sex-typed women showed dysphoric mood after failing with a tendency to give up on subsequent tasks defined as male appropriate.

Because of girls' dependence on others for developing a sense of self-esteem, it naturally follows that girls' need for affiliation is much higher than the needs of males. The need for affiliation in women has been addressed by O'Leary (1976), who stated that because women have been shown to have higher affiliative needs than men, a conflict between affiliation and achievement will occur more often in women. If a woman anticipates or receives negative feedback concerning achievement-related behavior, she may curtail her achievement strivings, particularly if the sources of the negative feedback are those upon whom she relies for the satisfaction of her affiliative needs. Therefore, females

appear to rely at least partially on external cues for standards of appropriate achievement-related behavior and may curtail this behavior if they anticipate or receive negative feedback.

Another aspect of the socialization of women has been discussed by Frieze (1975) who stated that people who are engaged in achievement behavior have expectations about whether or not they will be successful. Women and girls in our society hold lower expectations of success than do men and boys. The attributional process begins with an achievement behavior which is then interpreted either as a success or a failure, and then the person begins to try to determine the cause of the outcome. Frieze stated that people have well-established patterns for making causal attributions so that extensive information processing may not be carried out. For example, someone who has experienced a great deal of success in an area may more or less automatically attribute the success to his high ability or effort and may not consider the particular circumstances surrounding the behavior. The four frequently cited causes of achievement outcomes are ability, effort, luck, and task ease or difficulty. Therefore, a person may believe he has succeeded because of his ability and/or trying hard as well as because of good luck or due to the fact that the task wasn't really that difficult. Frieze commented that, on the other hand, failure may result from low ability, lack of

effort, bad luck or the difficulty of the task at hand. Ability and effort are causes originating within the individual while task difficulty and luck are causes originating from the environment which are external to the individual.

Frieze (1975) further commented that women, who attribute their success more to luck and less to their own abilities, feel less pride regarding their successes and are less secure about the possibility of continued success since luck originates within the environment. In addition, luck is a very unstable factor and may be highly changeable. These factors are compounded by the generally lower expectancies of success and by lower estimates of their abilities by females of all ages. This may help to explain why more women do not attempt to excel in traditionally defined achievement areas. Furthermore, women often attribute their failures to lack of ability or to some other internal factors. Since ability is a stable characteristic, this could help to explain why some women might not be motivated to attempt again tasks they had previously failed.

Frieze (1975) also commented that high achievement women are different in many ways from more traditional women since achievement itself is not considered to be feminine by society. Also, women who desire to achieve must perform at a high level without many of the environmental supports that many professional men have traditionally had available to

them. These supports include the many services of a wife and general recognition and support for achievement by society.

Feldman (1974) commented on the lack of support common to achieving women since whether or not they have other duties, married women in our society are expected to engage in those tasks associated with their traditional sex role. Since the spouse and student roles are both major ones, the two may conflict. Feldman in his studies found that for women, marriage has a deleterious effect on the role of student, and that the least successful students are those who attempt to combine the student and spouse roles. For men, however, marriage has been found to be complementary to the student role. Married men have someone to care for their needs, and loss of this support has a negative effect on men's performance in graduate school. Marriage may also limit the spatial mobility of women, and this may severely limit the range of job alternatives. However, marriage has no effect on the plans or spatial mobility of men. Therefore, married women who desire to achieve in school must be able to combine the spouse and student role and be prepared to limit their job opportunities due to lack of spatial mobility.

An additional factor to be considered in the socialization patterns of women is "fear of success" as postulated by Horner (1972b) who stated that fear of success

imagery dominated female responses to verbal leads included in the Standard TAT for measuring the achievement motive. The female subjects in the study made statements in response to the verbal leads regarding a successful figure of their own sex which showed conflict about the success, the presence or anticipation of negative consequences because of the success, denial of effort or responsibility for attaining the success, etc. This fear of success imagery was relatively absent in the male responses. Horner hypothesized that women high in the motive to avoid success would be least likely to develop their interests and explore their intellectual potential when competing against others, especially against men. Horner stated that development of achievement potential is viewed as inconsistent with a feminine sex-role stereotype.

Horner (1972b) found that women high in fear of success imagery are likely to disguise their abilities and to refrain from competition in the outside world if they are faced with a conflict between their feminine image and achievement. Horner postulated that the young women in the study anticipated negative results when success was likely or possible, and their achievement strivings dissipated as a result. Their abilities, interests, and intellectual potential remained inhibited; and a price was paid in frustration, hostility, aggression, bitterness, and confusion. Horner summarized her study by stating:

> . . . when the most highly competent and otherwise achievement motivated young women, when faced with a conflict between their feminine image and expressing their competencies or developing their abilities and interests, adjust their behavior to their internalized sex-role stereotypes (p. 173).

Therefore, one of the most difficult aspects of the sex-role stereotype is that it works as an internal barrier to success.

Hoffman (1974) replicated Horner's 1965 study and found that the most common theme related to fear of success in women was affiliative loss. She found, however, that students performed at a high level in spite of their fear of success; and she suggested that fear of success may be greatest in the most capable students since success may be a real possibility for them, and the attitude toward success may assume a more ambivalent quality. Hoffman (1977) also found that women high in fear of success were significantly more likely than those low in fear of success to become pregnant when on the verge of reaching a higher level of success relative to the level at which their husbands or boyfriends were functioning.

In summary, it has been argued that fear of success operates to form an internal barrier to success in women. This fear originates, at least in part, from the prevailing socialization patterns for women. In addition, women often anticipate negative consequences associated with success, seeing success as inconsistent with a feminine sex-role

stereotype. Anticipation of negative consequences associated with success causes many women to abstain from achievement strivings, leaving countless talents and abilities undeveloped. According to Horner (1972b) a price is paid in aggression, hostility, and frustration.

The effect of women's early socialization patterns was studied by Williams and McCullers (1983). They found that women in atypical careers such as law and medicine engaged in more traditionally masculine play patterns and experienced less coercion by parents to fit a traditionally feminine stereotype. The authors also suggested that the women in atypical careers might have resisted being pressured into a traditional role more than other children.

Therefore, the literature reviewed thus far on the socialization patterns of females suggests that according to Goldberg and Lewis (1972) dependent behavior in females is noted as early as one year of age. These authors hypothesized that parents reinforce behaviors they consider sex-role appropriate even during the first year of life, and girls are reinforced for dependent behavior which is considered appropriate for the female sex role in our society. In addition, Hoffman (1972) has suggested that while boys are encouraged to learn to master their environments, the effectiveness of girls remains contingent upon eliciting the help of others through affiliative relationships. Therefore, if achievement threatens affiliative ties, performance

may be sacrificed or anxiety results. Finally, Bardwick and Douvan (1972) stated that boys begin, before the age of five, to develop a sense or worth which is relatively independent of others' responses. They begin to value themselves in terms of real achievements in the outside world. These authors stated that girls, on the other hand, remained dependent on others' love and acceptance for their sense of self-esteem. O'Leary (1974) stated that because girls have a higher need for affiliative relationships on which to build their self-esteem, they may curtail achievement-related activity if it interferes with satisfying affiliative needs.

Another way in which women's socialization interferes with achievement has been studied by Frieze (1975) who found that women have a tendency to attribute success to luck rather than to their ability. Also, women who desire to achieve must do so without some of the supports men have traditionally had available to them such as the services of a wife and general recognition and support for achievement by society. Also, Feldman (1974) found that marriage had a deleterious effect on the role of student for women since married women are expected in our society to engage in those tasks associated with their traditional sex role. Horner (1972b) found that women often anticipate negative consequences associated with success, seeing success as inconsistent with a feminine sex-role stereotype and will refrain

from achievement striving due to this fear.

To summarize the review of the literature presented thus far, according to Goldberg and Lewis (1972) dependent behavior in females was noted as early as one year of age. These authors hypothesized that parents were reinforcing dependent behavior in girls since it is considered appropriate for the female sex role in the American society. In addition, Bardwick and Douvan (1972) have suggested that boys are encouraged to develop a sense of worth independent of the responses of others; they begin to value themselves in terms of achievements in the outside world. The authors stated that girls, on the other hand, remained dependent on others' love and acceptance for their sense of self-esteem.

Therefore, girls' socialization may steer them away from developing a need to achieve in favor of relying on affiliative ties with others to meet their needs. While boys come to evaluate their performance in terms of achievement in the real world and develop a sense of self worth which is relatively independent of the responses of others, girls remain dependent on others' love and acceptance for their sense of self-esteem. Also, women have been found to have a tendency to attribute success to luck rather than to their own skills; they also may have fewer supports in achieving such as the lack of services of a wife or societal recognition for achievement. In addition, achieving women may anticipate negative consequences

associated with success.

Self-Concept in Women

The effect of society's attitudes toward women on their self-concepts is discussed by Nadelson (1974) as she stated:

> When a woman has grown up in a world which sees her as second class, she will incorporate that image into her own self-image and bear the additional psychological burden of having to prove herself first class or being defeated because she believes that she is indeed second class. (p. 24)

Nadelson further stated that in order to establish an identity and find a role in society, a child relies on models of successful people with whom he or she can identify. However, finding "successful" female role models may be difficult due to the fact that women may have difficulty developing a positive self-image and self-esteem due to the reinforcement of the fact that they are considered less important or adequate. Many women who do enter careers do so with negative feelings about themselves in spite of their obvious academic successes.

Furthermore, according to Joesting and Joesting (cited in Nadelson, 1974) even in Terman's long-term study of gifted children the brightest woman in the study with an IQ of over 160 was identified as a "happy housewife" with eight children. The males in the study, in contrast, showed a significant number of achievements and successes compared with significantly poor results for women with the same

intellectual qualifications. The authors suggested that female geniuses probably did not develop their potential because 1) it was not encouraged and 2) it would probably be maladaptive in this culture. It has been shown that females do significantly more poorly than males as they advance in educational level.

As previously mentioned, Nadelson (1974) concluded that women were seen more as children in our culture and that cultural reinforcements of this view of women as helpless, dependent children contributed to the development of this self-image and encouraged behavior in that direction. Conflict and guilt regarding deviance from the prevailing sex role are reinforced, and few supports for growth in other directions are accepted. Nadelson suggested that a woman therapist may serve as a nontraditional role model to both men and women, and that women's support groups might also serve to help change traditional sex-role stereotypes. In summary then, society reinforces a stereotypic view of women as helpless and dependent and often views them as less important or adequate, and this contributes to a negative self-concept in women.

A further factor contributing to the development of low self-esteem in women is discussed by Bardwick and Douvan (1972) who stated that the contributions most women make in the enhancement and stabilization of relationships, their competence and self-discipline, and their creation of life

are less esteemed by men and women alike. Women often perceive their responsibilities, goals, and their very capacities as inferior to males. These authors stated that society values masculinity; when it is achieved, it is rewarded. Society, on the other hand, does not value femininity as highly; and when it is achieved, it is not as highly rewarded. Therefore, a further contributing factor to low self-esteem in women is the fact that society values and rewards masculinity and does not value and does not reward femininity. Also, women may see themselves as inferior to men.

Another contributing factor in the development of low self-esteem in women is related to the fact that over the years psychologists and psychiatrists have shown that both sexes consistently value men more highly than women (Goldberg, 1972). Also, masculine characteristics are usually held in higher esteem than female characteristics. These values affect people's perception of women and lead to low expectations of women in general. In Goldberg's research study he assigned a female name to one professional article and then a male name to the same professional article. He next asked female college students to rate the worthwhileness of the article. The women consistently rated the articles with the men's names as being more worthwhile, even when the articles with the men's names were written by women in fields traditionally reserved for women such as

nursing and dietetics. Goldberg stated that clearly there was a tendency among the women to downgrade the work of professionals of their own sex, even in fields in which women are traditionally dominant. Since the articles were exactly the same except for either a female or a male name for the author, the perception that the men's articles were superior was a distortion due to the subject's apparent sensitivity to the sex of the author. This apparently biased their judgments. No statistical tests were listed in this research study; and, therefore, it is not known if the ratings assigned to the men's and women's articles were significantly different. It seemed instead that only a comparison of the composite rating scores for the articles was used. These research results are in keeping, however, with the general trend noted in the review of the literature which has shown that men and women alike often value masculine skills and characteristics more highly than feminine ones.

Somewhat similar results were found by Tawil and Costello (1983) who studied 60 women between the ages of 35 and 50 and 70 women between the ages of 18 and 25. 70 were in traditional fields--homemaking, nursing, etc., and 60 were in nontraditional fields such as mathematics and chemistry. All were asked to rate applications to graduate school. The older women in traditional occupational roles rated females significantly lower than males. However, both

younger and older women in nontraditional roles showed no such difference. One seemingly contradictory finding was that women in the younger group enrolled in traditionally female fields of study rated females higher than males. The authors concluded that there tends to be a strong relationship between an individual's self-perception and the perceptions and attitudes one holds toward a group with which they identify.

Clasen (1978) stated that one's self-esteem may be determined by how well one seems to be fulfilling his or her sex role. Girls may report high self-esteem if they perceive themselves successful in affective relationships because this is what they see society values for them. Women are more likely to desire to succeed in those areas which our culture has designated as appropriate for them, which is being skillful in social situations and relations. Clasen stated:

> It is ironic that society might view women as inferior on the basis of 'confidence' and 'achievement motivation' while simultaneously structuring the world so as to create lowered female confidence and achievement motivation levels in the areas of competition, assertiveness, and leadership. (p. 274)

Therefore, women may report high self-esteem if they see themselves as being successful in areas in which society's sex-role stereotypes permit them to be successful--social situations and relations. Conversely, they may report low self-esteem if they try to succeed outside these traditional

areas which have been designated as "proper" for feminine success.

Farmer (1976) discussed the notion that women have lower levels of academic self-confidence and are less competitive compared to men. Also, some identified models of achievement are male-oriented. Alper (1974) found that women with traditional female orientations, attitudes and beliefs scored lower on achievement motivation measures than women with nontraditional female orientations. Many women may choose indirect achievement satisfaction through the successes of important male persons in their lives (father, brother, boyfriend, husband, boss) rather than directly through their own successes (Lipman-Blumen, 1972). Therefore, women are apt to be lower in achievement motivation and have less academic self-confidence than men. In addition, some women may chose a vicarious achievement style through identifying with the successes of important male figures in their lives.

As previously stated, Clasen (1978) has discussed the fact that one's self-esteem may be determined by how well one seems to be fulfilling his or her sex role. Women may report high self-esteem in areas in which society's sex-role stereotypes permit them to be successful. An additional factor along this line of thinking has been proposed by Korman (1970) who stated that individuals will engage in and find satisfying those behavioral roles which will maximize

their sense of cognitive balance or consistency. Korman also hypothesized two derivations from this hypothesis: 1) individuals will be motivated to perform on a task or job in a manner which is consistent with the self-image with which they approach the task or job situation, and 2) individuals will tend to choose and find most satisfying those job and task roles which are consistent with their self-cognitions. Therefore, if a woman approaches an academic achievement situation with lack of confidence and an image of herself as being unable to achieve, she will probably be motivated to perform in a like manner. This could help to explain why some women have difficulty achieving in higher education. Also, if women are motivated to perform on tasks or jobs which are consistent with their self-cognitions, they will probably chose traditionally feminine tasks and jobs such as homemaking, nursing, teaching, or some other role involved in the nurturing of others.

Church (1983) found that in a group of male and female college students in introductory anthropology the women scored significantly higher on a measure of academic achievement, but the men had a significantly higher level of occupational plans. For example, the men listed more often owning or managing a business, engineering, and other high-paying positions while women listed more often such roles as homemaker, social worker, counselor, flight attendant, etc.

Korman (1970) also stated that a part of our self-esteem is a function of the expectations which others have of us. He cited Tannenbaum (1962) who stated that to the extent that others (a) think we are competent and need-satisfying and able, and (b) exhibit such thoughts by their behavior toward us, to that extent our competence as perceived by ourselves concerning the task at hand is increased and so is task performance. Therefore, if women are not seen as competent and need-satisfying and able, and also if they are given feedback to this extent (or no feedback at all), their self-perceived competence will not be developed and task performance will not be improved.

Korman (1970) further stated that a person may develop an image of himself from his interactions with others where these others may offer no specific basis for their evaluations, cite little evidence for their beliefs, but will still yet project a very definite opinion concerning the ability of the individual for the task at hand. It may be that women have a tendency to accept negative evaluations and the evidence (if there is any) on which these evaluations are based. This may be related to women's dependence on others for their sense of self-esteem.

Yanico (1981) found that while women may ascribe to themselves more masculine-instrumental characteristics, their career choices may be more in line with the orientation of their ideal self which could be more feminine. They

would probably experience role strain and would make different choices than someone with a more congruent real and ideal self. The author hypothesized that the attitudes women have developed about appropriate roles and behavior of individuals of their gender might be related more to their ideal self-concept than their real one.

In addition, women at times do not expect to do well in areas requiring more "masculine" skills such as math and science abilities, independent thinking, and decision-making skills (Haring & Beyard-Tyler, 1984). Their self-efficacy for these areas is low since they do not have the expectations that they can produce the behaviors which can lead to a desired outcome, such as success in a vocation. These same authors have carried out studies with school children which showed that their attitudes toward the holders of nontraditional jobs remain quite negative. Students in these studies mentioned the impact of peer pressure against nontraditional choices. They also found that school counselors sometimes discouraged students from making nontraditional choices.

One somewhat contradictory study was found (Tolor, Kelly & Stebbins, 1976) in which 61 male and 73 female undergraduate students were studied revealing the women to have higher self-concepts than men. Also, the women were found to be more assertive. The author suggested that these results might be partially due to a combination of factors

such as the influence of the feminist movement, increasing tolerance toward more diverse forms of human behavior, and the increasing availability of educational and occupational opportunities for women.

To summarize the material presented on self-concept in women, Nadelson (1974) stated that women may have a difficult time in our society developing a sense of positive self-esteem since they are often considered less important or adequate than men. This negative view of women which is perpetuated by society is apt to be incorporated into the woman's image of herself. Nadelson further commented that women are often seen as helpless children, and conflict and guilt are apt to accompany deviance from the traditional sex-role stereotype for women in our culture. Douvan (1979) stated that an additional factor conducive to low self-esteem in women is that the contributions many women make in the way of enhancement of relationships, creation of life, etc. are not valued in our culture by either men or women. Femininity is not rewarded in our society. Clasen (1978) related that women may report higher esteem if they are functioning within acceptable sex-role stereotypes or traditional patterns. In addition, according to Farmer (1976) women have lower levels of academic self-confidence than men.

In addition, individuals will choose tasks and jobs which maximize their sense of cognitive balance or

consistency; and they will perform on a job in a manner consistent with the image of themselves with which they approach the job (Korman, 1970). Therefore, if women are only able to develop a positive image of themselves in roles which are prescribed by traditional sex-role stereotypes, they will probably have difficulty feeling a sense of competence in roles outside the limits of the stereotypes. If women approach a role with a sense of low self-confidence such as that reported in academic achievement, then they are apt to perform in accordance with the low self-image with which they approach the situation.

To summarize the literature reviewed thus far on female socialization patterns and the development of self-concept in women, according to Goldberg and Lewis (1972) parents reinforced more dependent behavior in one-year-old infant girls than in boys of the same age since in our culture it is more acceptable for the female to remain dependent upon others. Bardwick and Douvan (1972) suggested that while boys learned to evaluate their behavior in terms of an objective reality in the real world, girls evaluate themselves in terms of their acceptance by others.

Since girls have a higher need for affiliative relationships on which to build their self-esteem, they may curtail achievement-related activities if they interfere with affiliative needs (O'Leary, 1976). In addition, girls (and women) may attribute success to luck rather than to

their own abilities; and women also do not have societal supports for achieving success, i.e. the services of a wife and recognition from society (Frieze, 1975). Futhermore, women may anticipate negative consequences associated with success (Horner, 1972b).

In addition, according to Nadelson (1974) a woman may have a difficult time developing a sense of positive self-esteem since women are often considered less important or less adequate than men. Clasen (1978) stated that women may report higher levels of self-esteem if they are functioning within acceptable sex-role stereotypes. However, Douvan (1979) stated that the contributions women make in the way of relationship enhancement, etc., are not valued in our culture by either men or women.

Further, Korman (1970) stated that people will perform on a job in a manner consistent with the image of themselves with which they approach a job. Therefore, if women are only able to develop a positive image of themselves within stereotypically feminine roles, they will approach roles outside the stereotype with a sense of low self-confidence and will perform accordingly.

Finally, one contradictory study was done by Tolor, Kelly & Stebbins (1976) in which they found women had highr self-concepts than men. This was attributed to the effects of the feminist movement and the increasing educational and occupational opportunities open to women.

Measurement of Self-Concept

According to Wells and Marwell (1976) self-esteem is most frequently described in terms of attitudes. It may also be described as a personality trait since it is thought to be a relatively stable feature of the individual. The most common approach to the measurement of self-esteem has been the self-report or self-description in which the individual responds to a set of verbal stimuli indicating agreement, approval, or some sort of inclination toward some or all of the stimuli. According to Wells and Marwell in self-concept instruments, the stimuli are a set of verbal evaluations or descriptions; and the person indicates their perceived applicability to himself. He either states which descriptions are appropriate to him or how much each applies to him. The set of descriptive stimuli are standard for all subjects and are presented in a standard format. These types of instruments depend on the verbal ability of the subject as well as the honesty with which the subject replies to the stimuli.

According to Wylie (1974) the Adjective Check List (ACL), although not purported to be mainly a self-concept measure, is being used as such by a number of investigators. In the most recent versions of the ACL, 300 adjectives are presented in an alphabetized list; and subjects are directed to check those which apply to them.

Another measure of self-concept is the Interpersonal

Check List (ICL). Wylie (1974) stated that this measure is used to obtain a) a self-description, b) an ideal-self description, and c) a measure of self acceptance in terms of discrepancies between self and ideal-self descriptions.

Another measure of self-esteem is the semantic-differential technique of Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (Wylie, 1974). On this instrument the subject is asked to rate each of several concepts on each of a number of bipolar adjective scales. According to Wylie, more than 80 studies have reportedly employed the semantic-differential method of measuring self-referent constructs such as me, self, or ideal self. However, many of the research studies used the method in an inappropriate manner; and the author maintained that the technique does not adequately measure in its present form the construct of self.

Another instrument used to measure self-concept discussed by Wylie (1974) is the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). The self-regard items included on this instrument were drawn from a vaguely specified pool of three unpublished sources plus written self-descriptions of patients and nonpatients, according to Fitts (cited in Wylie, 1974). No explicit definitions of the constructs which guided item choice are offered. Items are phrased half positively and half negatively to control acquiescence response sets. The subject marks each item on a five-step scale ranging from "completely true" to "completely false."

Wylie (1974) stated that one notable improvement in research on the self-concept is the increasingly widespread verbal recognition of the need for a) the use of instruments with acceptable levels of reliability and construct validity, b) doing more construct-validation work, and c) qualifying one's conclusions in the light of limitations of the measuring instrument used. Wylie further stated that most studies are still carried out with instruments which have been used only once or a few times and have not been sufficiently validated. Wylie thinks that this practice may reflect the fact that theoretical statements have not been clear enough to lead researchers to agree on any particular operational definition or class of operations for a given construct.

Wylie (1974) also stated that many researchers, rather than trying to develop a program of research for measuring the construct, proceed with their study and offer a disclaimer and a warning "let the reader beware."

In summary, a number of instruments have been developed which purport to measure self-concept; however, the reliability and validity of some of these measures have been poorly established. One of the difficulties in developing a self-concept measure is the lack of a widely accepted operational definition of the construct. In addition, it is important to the clarifying of the construct that the limitations of the measure used be adequately specified.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale will be used in this study in an attempt to clarify its construct validity. More specifically, it is hoped that this study will show whether or not there is a correlation between the Total Positive Score, which is an overall measure of the individual's self-esteem and scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale.

Attitudes Toward Women's Sex Roles

According to Williams (1977) the traditional role for women in American society has typically included that of wife and mother which women were expected to enter through the event of marriage. When a woman married, she was expected to leave childhood behind and to take up the role of an adult woman, often with no particular training. The tasks of the adult woman traditionally included homemaking skills. These skills were valued in the past; however, with the dramatic increase in the number of labor-saving devices used in housework and with the accompanying increasing availability of work away from home, the role of homemaker has become less and less valued. In addition, current economic inflationary conditions have forced many women to enter the work force. However, the promotion of the wife-homemaker role as the most important and rewarding one for women continued into the 70's. The role has often involved total dependence on the woman's husband and complete dedication to her family, sometimes at the expense of her

own interests.

Williams (1977) also commented that the woman who works, on the other hand, has a paycheck to show as tangible evidence of her skills. For many women, discovering that someone will pay for the use of their skills has significantly enhanced their self-esteem. In addition, the feminist movement has deplored the economic dependence of women and has supported the development of women who are strong and independent and who have the freedom to develop themselves to their highest potential. Also, since the failure rate of marriages has become quite high, parents encourage their daughters to acquire an education in case they may someday have to support themselves and perhaps their children. Therefore, although more women now are working, their role as wife and homemaker is still sometimes seen as the traditional one for them.

Birnbaum (1975) studied the self-esteem of traditional homemakers and married and single professional women by selecting a sample who were all graduates "with distinction" from a large, prestigious university. They were studied some fifteen to twenty years after graduation. The homemakers were identified as married women with children with no further education beyond the bachelor's degree and no work experience since their first child. The professional sample consisted of faculty women who had graduated from the same university with either M.D.'s or Ph.D.'s or the rank of

at least assistant professor. Birnbaum found that of the three groups, the homemakers were the ones with the lowest self-esteem and the lowest sense of personal competence, even including the care of children and social skills. The homemakers also "felt least attractive, expressed most concern over self-identity issues and most often indicated feelings of loneliness" (pp. 398-400). The two groups of professional women (married and single) said what they missed most was time, whereas the homemakers stated what they missed most was a sense of challenge and creative involvement. The homemakers appeared to think less of themselves as individuals.

Birnbaum (1975) also found that the homemaker had

> ...no occupational outlet for her achievement strivings and thus must rely heavily on aggression-denying self-sacrifice in childrearing as a measure of her success. (p. 407)

The homemaker was also found to be very dependent on her relationship with her family for her self-esteem and was very fearful of alienating them in any way. The group of homemakers who were in their middle adult years were as a group experiencing "considerable psychic turmoil, a depressed sense of emotional well-being, and low self-esteem" (p. 408). She felt useless and left behind as her children relied on her less and less.

In contrast, the typical married professional woman in Birnbaum's research group was most pleased with herself and

her circumstances at this midpoint in her life. Her self-esteem was high, and she felt personally competent and worthwhile. She knew who she was and what she wanted and felt that this was important. She experienced a sense of pleasure in combining her role as wife and mother with that of worker.

Also, the typical single professional woman in Birnbaum's study chose to capitalize on her school achievement and to make her own way without depending on a man. Her social mobility depended on her own accomplishments within her chosen career field. She had strong needs for achievement and was very task-oriented and used a rational approach both in work and in personal relationships. She had adopted a counter-dependent life-style and linked her future happiness to maintaining good health and achieving financial independence and academic recognition. She viewed marriage as demanding self-sacrifice and imposing limits on her freedom; but she also saw marriage as providing security, companionship and fulfillment. The single professional, however, seemed comfortable with her life-style and did not see marriage as vital to happiness. Her self-esteem was high; and she felt competent, productive, and worthwhile.

In summary, Birnbaum (1975) found that the self-esteem of both married and single professional women was much higher than that of the homemakers who did not work outside

the home. The homemakers seemed to lack a sense of challenge and creative involvement and also indicated concerns over loneliness and self-identity. The homemakers appeared to be quite dependent on their families as their source of self-esteem. In contrast, both the married and single professional women felt competent and worthwhile; and their self-esteem was high. Perhaps, as Williams (1977) stated, being paid for one's skills enhances one's self-esteem and provides tangible evidence that one's skills are worthwhile. In addition, the professional women can achieve in her profession and is not so dependent on her family or friends for meeting her self-esteem needs.

Dowling (1981) stated that women often chose a dependent life style even when a more independent way of living is within their grasp because they are afraid of freedom. They have not learned or been taught skills whereby they can live independently. They often look to others to make their decisions for them rather than using their own judgment. They wait for someone to rescue them and bring a more satisfying way of life to them rather than going after what it is that they want. Dowling called this "the Cinderella Complex." She stated that women who have never lived alone and learned to manage for themselves sometimes become quite dependent upon establishing a relationship with a man. The woman abdicates her responsibility for her own life and turns this responsibility over to the man in her life who is

supposed to save her from the anxiety involved in living her own life. Dowling stated that this wish to be saved is a myth which women have believed for centuries. Therefore, women's unconscious dependency needs conflict with their desire to achieve. Women may yearn to be free but at the same time want to be cared for; this conflict saps the energy they could use for achievement-oriented activity.

Dowling (1981) also believed that women often don't achieve in work because of their unwillingness to assume a long-term professional commitment. She believed this to be a more salient factor than sex-discrimination. Also, women often choose female-predominated fields which are poorly paid. This idea evolves from the notion that women should be taken care of and leads to a false sense of security. Dowling pointed out that old women in our society are not taken care of by men due to the fact that women often outlive their "protectors." Once their husbands die, they are left alone to fend for themselves. Women often cling to the myth that they will always be taken care of when indeed death or divorce may quickly dispel these fantasies of eternal protection.

Dowling (1981) also suggested that women may leave the home for jobs but still feel the need to maintain their roles as chief provider at home, leading to utter exhaustion in many cases. Often men are not willing to assume an equal share of the work at home, and women feel guilty if they get

too far away from the nurturing role and must face the frightening prospect of a more independent life style. Fatigue and exhaustion keep women from having to deal with the anxiety associated in growing toward freedom and independence. Also, staying in conflict between being free and being protected has a secondary gain--it allows women to stay exactly where they are. This conflict drains away creative energy.

In summary, new roles are opening up for women but women must develop new coping strategies for dealing with anxiety associated with functioning in these new roles. Women have traditionally been socialized to expect to be rescued from having to deal with many of life's stresses, i.e. the Cinderella complex, and have often failed to face the reality of perhaps needing to fend for themselves due to divorce or death of their "Prince Charming." This learned helplessness will often lead to insecurity and frustration and may be a leading cause of low self-esteem and depression among women. Dowling suggested that women must learn to assume responsibility for their own emotional well-being. They must come to believe in themselves and move toward the things they want and away from the things they don't want--they must become nontraditional.

To summarize the literature reviewed thus far on female socialization patterns, the development of self-concept in women, and attitudes toward women's sex roles, Goldberg and

Lewis (1972) found that parents reinforced more dependent behavior in one-year-old infant girls than in boys of the same age since in our culture it is more acceptable for the female to remain dependent upon others. In addition, Bardwick and Douvan (1972) suggested that while boys learned to evaluate their behavior in terms of an objective reality in the real world, girls evaluate themselves in terms of their acceptance by others. Since girls have a higher need for affiliative relationships on which to build their self-esteem, they may curtail achievement-related activities if they interfere with affiliative needs (O'Leary, 1976). In addition, girls and women may attribute success to luck rather than to their own abilities; and women also do not have societal supports for achieving success, i.e. the services of a wife and recognition from society (Frieze, 1975). Furthermore, women may anticipate negative consequences associated with success (Horner, 1972b).

Also, according to Nadelson (1974) a woman may have a difficult time developing a sense of positive self-esteem since women are often considered less important or less adequate than men. Clasen (1978) stated that women may report higher levels of self-esteem if they are functioning within acceptable sex-role stereotypes. However, Douvan (1979) stated that the contributions women make in the way of relationship enhancement, etc. are not valued in our culture by either men or women. In addition, Dowling (1981)

stated that women have traditionally been socialized to expect to be rescued from having to deal with many of life's stresses, i.e. the "Cinderella Complex." This form of learned helplessness often leads to insecurity and frustration and may be a leading cause of low self-esteem and depression among women. Dowling suggests that women must assume responsibility for their own emotional well-being.

Measurement of Attitudes Toward Women's Sex Roles

One instrument used to measure traditional versus non-traditional sex-role characteristics is the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973). This is a Likert-type scale containing statements about the rights and roles of women in such areas as vocational, educational, and intellectual activities; dating behavior and etiquette; sexual behavior; and marital relationships. The AWS consists of 55 items, each of which has four response alternatives, ranging from "agree strongly" to disagree strongly." Each item is given a score from 0 to 3, with 0 representing the most traditional and 3 the most contemporary, non-traditional response. An attempt has been made to include statements which described roles and behaviors in all major areas of activity in which normative expectations could be in principle, the same for men and women.

Another instrument designed to measure women's

attitudes about sex-roles is the Fand Inventory. Fand (cited in Gump, 1975) reasoned that one dimension upon which women's attitudes about sex-roles might be assessed would be that of a self- or other-orientation. Women who were other-oriented were labeled by Fand as being traditional in outlook. These women would find personal fulfillment through fostering the fulfillment of others, primarily a husband and children. The self-oriented woman was conceptualized as having adopted the achieving orientation of the American culture and sought fulfillment through the maximization of her own potential. Gump (1975) used a revised version of the Fand Inventory to test senior college women and found that other-oriented factors were more often rejected than accepted, and self-oriented factors were more frequently endorsed than rejected. Gump suggested that responses suggested that subjects were more accepting of a progressive than a traditional sex-role definition.

Another measure of attitudes toward sex roles is the Sex-Role Questionnaire developed by Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson and Rosenkrantz (1975). Approximately 100 men and women enrolled in three undergraduate psychology classes were asked to list all the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors on which they thought men and women differed. From these listings, all of the items which occurred at least twice (N = 122) were selected for inclusion in the questionnaire. These items spanned a wide

range of content, i.e. interpersonal sensitivity, emotionality, aggressiveness, dependence-independence, maturity, intelligence, activity level, gregariousness. Since the concept of sex-role implies extensive agreement among people as to the characteristic differences between men and women, only those items on which at least 75% agreement existed among S's of each sex as to which pole was more descriptive of the average man than the average woman, or vice versa, were termed "stereotypic." Forty-one items met this criterion. Some of the items included were:

Feminine	Masculine
Not at all aggressive	Very aggressive
Not at all independent	Very independent
Very emotional	Not at all emotional
Very submissive	Very dominant

Spence and Helmreich (1978) developed their Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) from the items contained in the previously discussed Sex-Role Questionnaire. However, instead of considering masculinity and femininity as polar opposites as did Broverman and associates (1975), Spence and Helmreich saw masculinity and femininity as separate principles which may coexist to some degree in every individual. They adopted a dualistic approach to masculinity and femininity, conceiving of them as separate aspects of the personality that may vary more or less independently

(Spence & Helmreich, 1978). These same authors administered the items for the Sex-Role Questionnaire to groups of introductory psychology students, asking them to rate on each item the typical adult male and the typical adult female, the typical college student of each sex, and the ideal individual of each sex. Following these ratings, the students were asked to rate themselves on each item. The fifty-five items selected for the PAQ were drawn from among those for which both sexes exhibited a consistent stereotype about sex differences. On these items the mean ratings of the typical member of each sex given by female and by male respondents differed significantly, whether the typical adult or the typical student was being rated. Comparison of the mean self-ratings of the women and men indicated that, on all fifty-five items, the sexes also turned out to differ significantly in the direction of the stereotype in their self-report. Therefore, the PAQ is composed of items describing characteristics that are not only commonly believed to differentiate the sexes but on which men and women tend to report themselves as differing.

Another measure which treats masculinity/femininity as overlapping constructs is the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1976). In addition, on this inventory both masculinity and femininity each represent positive domains of behavior, rather than feminity being defined as the absence of masculinity and vice-versa, i.e. the "not at all

aggressive" feminine response on the Sex-Role Questionnaire and the "very aggressive" masculine response on this same questionnaire. The BSRI contains 20 personality characteristics for the masculine scale and 20 items for the feminine scale. The characteristics themselves were all judged to be significantly more desirable in American society for one sex than for the other.

When taking the BSRI a person is asked to indicate on a 7-point scale how well each of the 20 masculine and 20 feminine personality characteristics described himself or herself. The degree of sex-role stereotyping in the person's self-concept is then defined as the student's *t* rating for the difference between his or her mean scores on the masculine and feminine attributes, respectively. Thus, if a person's Masculinity score is significantly higher than his or her Femininity score, that person is said to have a masculine sex role; and if a person's Femininity score is significantly higher than his or her Masculinity score, that person is said to have a feminine sex role. In contrast, if a person's Masculinity and Femininity scores are approximately equal, this person is said to have an androgynous sex role. According to this definition, an androgynous individual is one who does not distinguish between masculinity and femininity in his or her self-description. Androgyny can, therefore, be seen as representing the sexual endorsement of both masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1977).

In summary, attitudes toward women's roles may be measured by a variety of instruments. The Attitudes Towards Women Scale examines the rights and roles of women in the areas of vocation, education, intellectual activities, dating behavior, sexual behavior and marital relationships. The Fand Inventory classifies women into self-versus other-orientation, based on the hypothesis that other-oriented women possess a more traditional outlook. Another measure of women's attitudes toward sex roles is the Sex-Role Questionnaire which examines interpersonal sensitivity, emotionality, aggressiveness, and a number of other areas using a "forced choice" format and yielding "masculine" and "feminine" sex role orientation scores. Later measures of sex-role attitudes such as the Personal Attributes Questionnaire and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory present masculinity and femininity as orthogonal constructs rather than as polar opposites. Bem also added a measure of the construct of androgyny.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Introduction

The subjects and method of sample selection will be discussed in this chapter. The instruments to be used will also be examined along with the research design and methods used to analyze the data.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were 198 female seniors enrolled in business, psychology, and education programs at a large state university in the Southwest. Information was gathered on the demographic portion of answer sheet for the the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (see Appendix C) regarding the age and major of each subject.

Subjects were selected from classes containing senior women in the College of Business Administration, College of Education, and the Department of Psychology. Permission was obtained from instructors for the researcher to come into the classroom and to make a brief announcement regarding the study (see Appendix D). Only volunteer subjects were used.

Folders containing an instruction sheet (see Appendix

E), the consent form (see Appendix F), the answer sheet for the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Appendix C), the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Appendix B), and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (see Appendix A) were handed out to students who indicated that they would participate. If the instructor consented to using class time for subjects to complete the instruments, this was done. However, if instructors did not think they could spare the class time, students were asked to take the folders home and bring then back at the next class meeting.

Information regarding the ages and majors of subjects was as follows:

Business Majors					
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Mean Age
20	1	1.5	1	1.5	23
21	28	41.2	29	42.6	
22	17	25.0	46	67.6	
23	9	13.2	55	80.9	
24	3	4.4	58	85.3	
25	1	1.5	59	86.8	
26	1	1.5	60	88.2	
27	1	1.5	61	89.7	
28	1	1.5	62	91.2	
29	1	1.5	63	92.6	
32	1	1.5	64	94.1	
34	1	1.5	65	95.6	
38	1	1.5	66	97.1	
40	2	2.9	68	100.0	

Education Majors

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Mean Age
20	5	6.5	5	6.5	23
21	33	42.9	38	49.4	
22	17	22.1	55	71.4	
23	7	9.1	62	80.5	
24	4	5.2	66	85.7	
25	3	3.9	69	89.6	
26	1	1.3	70	90.9	
28	1	1.3	71	92.2	
30	1	1.3	72	93.5	
33	1	1.3	73	94.8	
34	1	1.3	74	96.1	
35	1	1.3	75	97.4	
41	1	1.3	76	98.7	
42	1	1.3	77	100.0	

Psychology Majors

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Mean Age
20	4	7.5	4	7.5	24
21	19	35.8	23	43.4	
22	13	24.5	36	67.9	
23	4	7.5	40	75.5	
24	1	1.9	41	77.4	
25	2	3.8	43	81.1	
26	1	1.9	44	83.0	
29	1	1.9	45	84.9	
30	1	1.9	46	86.8	
32	1	1.9	47	88.7	
34	1	1.9	48	90.6	
35	1	1.9	49	92.5	
38	1	1.9	50	94.3	
42	1	1.9	51	96.2	
43	1	1.9	52	98.1	
45	1	1.9	53	100.0	

Instrumentation

The Attitudes Toward Women Scales (AWS) and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS), are discussed in this

section, including a description of the instruments along with reliability and validity information.

Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS)

The short form of the AWS was used in this study. This scale contains 15 items which are statements describing the rights, roles, and privileges women ought to have or should be permitted. It requires respondents to indicate their agreement with each statement on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "disagree strongly." Items are scored 0 to 3 with 0 representing the most traditional and 3 the most contemporary non-traditional responses. Possible total scores after summing all items range from 0 to 45 (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973). The 15-item short form of the AWS described in Spence and Helmreich (1978) has been found to have a correlation of .91 with the original fifty-five item AWS in a sample of college students. (See Appendix 1.)

Validity. Evidence of the AWS's ability to distinguish between subgroups was provided by Spence and Helmreich (1972), who administered the AWS to 420 male and 529 female college students during the fall semester of 1971, and to 293 male and 239 female college students during the spring semester of 1972. In order to have comparative data from an older group of men and women, the parents of some of the college students were also administered the AWS. As a

result, 292 mothers and 232 fathers returned usable forms. The results of this comparison showed that the scores of the parents tended to be more conservative than those of the students. In both generations the mean score for the women was more liberal than that of the men, but the differences between the sexes was more marked in the student groups. In terms of the generations, the daughters were more liberal in comparison to their mothers, than were the sons in comparison to their fathers.

Evidence of the AWS's ability to distinguish between groups was also found when Spence, Helmreich, and Gibson (1982) used the scale to compare three samples of students enrolled in introductory psychology classes in 1972, 1976, and 1980, respectively. The 1972 sample included 281 males and 241 females; the 1976 sample included 301 males and 298 females; the 1980 sample included 284 males and 369 females. In addition, the students' parents were also asked to participate, resulting in 516 parents participating in 1972 and 827 parents participating in 1976. Females were found to be more liberal in each student group; however, females were significantly less liberal in 1980 than in 1976. The 1976 parent group was more liberal than the 1972 parent group, and mothers were more liberal than fathers at both times. In each instance, parents were significantly more conservative than their offspring ($p < .01$), replicating earlier generational studies (Spence & Helmreich, 1972 and 1978).

The ability of the AWS to distinguish among groups was also demonstrated by Lunneborg (1974) who tested a group of 74 undergraduate students (19 men and 55 women) before and after taking a new sophomore-level class entitled Psychology of Sex Differences at the University of Washington. In addition, the above scores were compared to Spence and Helmreich's 1972 data on students at the University of Texas since it was thought there might be a geographical difference in attitudes toward women with northerners being more profeminist than southerners. As hypothesized, both northern men and women were significantly more liberal than southern men and women. Also, Washington males were significantly less liberal than females before the women's studies course, but after this course the difference disappeared.

Additional validity for the AWS was found by Kilpatrick and Smith (1974) who administered the scale to 13 members of the National Organization of Women (NOW) and compared their scores to the normative data for female college students and their mothers as reported by Spence and Helmreich in 1972. The attitudes of the NOW members were significantly more feministic, suggesting that the scale is a valid measure of such attitudes.

Reliability. No reliability information was available on the AWS.

The AWS has been selected for use in this study due to the fact that it is a contemporary instrument and takes only a short time for a subject to complete. In addition, this study may help to provide additional information regarding the reliability and the construct validity of the AWS and will build on the previously mentioned validity studies.

Tennessee Self Concept Scale - Counseling Form

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) was developed to meet the need for a scale which is simple for the subject, widely applicable, well-standardized, and multidimensional in its self-description of the self-concept (Fitts, 1965). The scale consists of 100 statements which the subject uses to develop a description. The scale utilizes a 3 x 6 multi-dimensional matrix of items using Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior by Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, Social Self, and Self-criticism. The scale is self-administered, either individually or in groups. It is applicable for use with subjects who are of the age of 12 or older and who have at least a sixth grade reading level (Fitts, 1965). (See Appendix 2.)

For each item the respondent chooses one of five response options labeled from "completely true" to "completely false." Completely true receives a numerical score of 5 and completely false receives a numerical score

of 1. The TCSC also give a Total P or positive regard score which reflects the individual's overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to like themselves, feel that they are persons of worth and value, 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. The Total P score is the sum of all the responses given on the scale.

Reliability. Test-retest reliability reported by Fitts (1965) was .92 for the Total Positive Score and .75 for the Self-Criticism Score. These coefficients were based on a sample of 60 college students over a two-week period. Fitts (1965) also stated that further evidence for reliability of the scale was found in the close similarity of profile patterns found on repeated measures of the same individuals over long periods of time. Bentler (1972) noted that no information is presented in the manual pertaining to the internal consistency of the scale.

Validity. Evidence to support the TSCS's ability to discriminate between groups was reported by Fitts (1965) when 369 psychiatric patients were compared with 626 non-patients of the norm group. Statistical analysis demonstrated highly significant differences (mostly at the 0.001

level) between patients and non-patients for almost every score. Fitts also collected data from people characterized as high in personality integration and found that their scores differed from the norm group in a direction opposite that of the patient group. Means and standard deviations for these groups are reported in the TSCS manual.

Fitts (1965) cites evidence for the TSCS's concurrent validity by citing a correlation of -0.70 between the Total Positive Score on the TSCS and the Taylor Anxiety Scale. In addition, correlations with various scales of the MMPI are frequently in the 0.50 to 0.60 range. Correlations from 0.50 to 0.70 are common with the Cornell Medical Index. Bentler (1972), in his review of the TSCS in the Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook, stated that the TSCS has sufficient overlap with the above measures to consider it as an alternative in various applied situations.

Bolton (1976) administered the TSCS to 312 rehabilitation clients in which 37% had emotional or mental difficulties. He found that the factorial structure of the examinees' responses to the items was generally not consistent with the design of the instrument. He found some support for the Acceptance subscale but not for the Identity and Behavior subscales. In addition, the Physical Self subscale was clearly validated; but the Moral-Ethical, Personal, Family and Social perceptions of the self were not.

In order to examine the independence of the TSCS's subscales, Pound, Hansen, and Putnam (1977) conducted a factor analytic study using 323 adolescents on whom data were longitudinally collected between 1972 and 1974. The results of the factor analysis revealed that there was one General Factor which accounted for the majority of common variance within the subscales. It was further evident that this General Factor was best represented by the overall level of self-esteem. The score used in this study will be the Total Positive Score which reflects the overall level of self-esteem.

Procedures

Students were approached in the classroom setting and their voluntary participation was solicited. It was explained that the researcher was a graduate student at the University and that this research was in connection with her dissertation. It was also explained that their names would be kept confidential and only their test scores would be used in the research. Participating students signed a consent form indicating that their participation was voluntary and that they gave their permission for their scores to be used in the written report of the research.

In order to avoid a response set, students were not given any further information about the research or the expected findings until after they had completed the testing

instruments. Upon completion of the instruments, students were given a "Student Information Sheet" to give them additional information regarding the study (see Appendix G).

Research Design

This study examined to what extent a relationship existed between scores on the Attitude Toward Women Scale (AWS) and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) for women who were college seniors in education, business and psychology at a large state university in the southwest. The ages and majors of the subjects were obtained from the demographic portion of the answer sheet for the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Analysis of Data

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for each department separately in order to measure the relationship between scores on the Attitude Toward Women Scale and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale for subjects within the departments. These correlations were computed both including and excluding subjects over age 25 from the sample in order to see if age was a factor in the statistical significance of the correlations.

Analysis of variance was used to study the variance both within and between sample averages for each department for scores on both of the testing instruments. The internal

consistency reliability of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was examined by computing Pearson correlation coefficient for the scale's overall measure of self-esteem, the Total Positive Score, and three of the test's subscales, Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior. Internal consistency reliability was computed in this way since the computer program in use did not contain the capability to compute Cronbach's alpha. This was not done for the Attitudes Toward Women Scale because the short form containing only 15 questions was used, and subscale analysis did not seem feasible on an instrument containing such a few items.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter will present a detailed description of the results of the data analysis. The relationship of the data analysis to the research hypothesis will also be discussed.

Results of the Data Analysis

The internal consistency reliability of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) was examined by computing Pearson correlation coefficients for the scale's overall measure of self-esteem, the Total Positive Score, and three of the test's subscales, Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior. These coefficients were as follows:

	Identity	Self-Satisfaction	Behavior	Total Positive
Identity	1.00			
Self-Satisfaction	.58	1.00		
Behavior	.74	.66	1.00	
Total Positive	.85	.88	.89	1.00

Therefore, it was concluded that the test does have internal consistency reliability. Pearson correlation

coefficients were also high when computed in the above manner for each department individually.

Business

	Identity	Self-Satisfaction	Behavior	Total Positive
Identity	1.00			
Self-Satisfaction	.63	1.00		
Behavior	.80	.74	1.00	
Total Positive	.87	.90	.93	1.00

Education

	Identity	Self-Satisfaction	Behavior	Total Positive
Identity	1.00			
Self-Satisfaction	.49	1.00		
Behavior	.63	.58	1.00	
Total Positive	.78	.88	.85	1.00

Psychology

	Identity	Self-Satisfaction	Behavior	Total Positive
Identity	1.00			
Self-Satisfaction	.61	1.00		
Behavior	.80	.67	1.00	
Total Positive	.88	.88	.91	1.00

Univariate analysis of variance was used to determine

the mean for the scores on each instrument. Scores on the TSCS may range from 100 to 500 with higher scores indicating a higher self-concept. The mean for the entire sample of 198 subjects was 388.54. Scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) may range from 0 to 45 with low scores indicating a more traditional orientation and higher scores indicating a more non-traditional, pro-feminist orientation. The mean for the entire sample was 33.86.

For the analysis of data subjects were divided into two groups based on a median split of the subjects' AWS scores. Subjects scoring above the sample median were designated as non-traditional and those scoring on the median or below were designated as traditional. The median score for the sample was 35. The results of this classification were as follows:

Department	Traditional	Non-Traditional
Business (N=68)		
Frequency	33	35
Percent	48.5	51.5
Education (N=77)		
Frequency	44	33
Percent	57.1	42.9
Psychology (N-53)		
Frequency	21	32
Percent	39.6	60.4
Entire Sample(N=198)		
Frequency	98	100
Percent	49.5	50.5

In order to divide subjects into high and low self-concept groups, the mean for the Total Positive Score of the

TSCS for the norm group was used. This was 346. Therefore, if subjects scored above 346, they were considered to have high self-concepts. If they scored 346 or below, they were considered to have low self-concepts. Subjects were compared to the norm group due to the fact that the norm group was overrepresented in the number of college students, white subjects, and persons in the 12 to 30 year age bracket (Fitts, 1965). The results of this classification were as follows:

Department	High Self-Concept	Low Self-Concept
Business (N=68)		
Frequency	60	8
Percent	88.2	11.8
Education (N=77)		
Frequency	75	2
Percent	97.4	2.6
Psychology (N=53)		
Frequency	47	6
Percent	88.7	11.3
Entire Sample (N=198)		
Frequency	182	16
Percent	91.9	8.1

Age was considered an important variable since the predominance of the literature suggested older women would be more traditional. Therefore, age was taken into account in the data analysis. Subjects' ages were as follows:

Business		Education		Psychology	
Age	Frequency	Age	Frequency	Age	Frequency
20	1	20	5	20	4
21	28	21	33	21	19
22	17	22	17	22	13
23	9	23	7	23	4
24	3	24	4	24	1
25	1	25	3	25	2
26	1	26	1	26	1
27	1	28	1	29	1
28	1	30	1	30	1
29	1	33	1	32	1
32	1	34	1	34	1
34	1	35	1	35	1
38	1	41	1	38	1
40	2	42	1	42	1
				43	1
				45	1

Therefore, only 27 out of 198 subjects were over the age of 25. The remainder of the subjects were between 20 and 25.

The range of scores and the mean for each instrument administered, both by department and for the overall sample, are as follows:

Department	TSCS	AWS
Business (N=68)		
Range	304-465	23-45
Mean	385	34
Education (N=77)		
Range	299-442	14-45
Mean	394	32
Psychology (N=53)		
Range	288-438	8-45
Mean	384	35
Entire Sample (N=198)		
Range	288-465	8-45
Mean	388	33

Since it was hypothesized that there would be a significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation between traditional scores on the AWS and low self-concept scores on the TSCS, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed for each department. These were as follows:

Department	Pearson Correlation Coefficient: AWS and TSCS
Business	r = .164
Education	r = .018
Psychology	r = - .005

None of the above correlations were significant. In order to control for the effects of age, the above correlations were computed excluding subjects over age 25. The correlations continued to remain nonsignificant. Correlation coefficients were also computed lumping the entire sample together, and these also remained nonsignificant.

Department	Pearson Correlation Coefficient: AWS and TSCS
Business	r = .112
Education	r = .080
Psychology	r = - .136

In addition, analysis of variance was used to examine the variations among department averages on both the TSCS and the AWS. The results of this analysis was as follows:

Test	Source	dF	SS	MS	F
TSCS	Between Groups	2	3891.785	1945.892	2.04
	Within Groups	195	185667.391	952.140	
	Total	197	189559.176		
AWS	Between Groups	2	314.035	157.017	3.78
	Within Groups	195	8094.550	41.510	
	Total	197	8408.585		

Neither of the above F-ratios were significant.

Therefore, in view of the nonsignificant Pearson correlation coefficients and the insignificant F-ratios on the ANOVA procedures, it was concluded that there is no significant positive correlation between traditional scores on the AWS and low self-concept scores on the TSCS.

Discussion

It is noted that the subjects in this study were almost evenly divided with respect to traditional and non-traditional attitudes toward women's roles (traditional = 98 and non-traditional = 100). However, the majority of the sample fell into the high self-concept group (high self-concept = 182 and low self-concept = 16). Therefore, most of both the traditional and nontraditional women identify themselves as having high self-concepts. This is in accordance with Zuckerman's (1980) study in which he used the Rosenberg scale and found that women with relatively traditional plans for homemaking involvement and careers in fields which are predominately female were as satisfied with

themselves as the more career-oriented women. The author suggested that homemaking and traditional careers are now seen as options rather than requirements for women. The sample for Zuckerman's study consisted of 884 male and female undergraduates with only 46 women and 35 men over age 25. The author concluded that younger women may hold a different attitude both toward women's roles and their own self-concept in relation to these roles.

In addition, the effects of age in this sample were negligible and did not effect the significance of the correlation when the 27 subjects over age 25 were excluded from the study. In the over-25 age category 11 women had non-traditional attitudes and 16 had traditional attitudes.

One contradictory finding involved Morgan and Walker's (1983) study of 1,522 women in which they found that well-educated women are less supportive of the traditional role. In the sample of college seniors under study here, they were almost evenly divided in their traditional versus non-traditional orientation, indicating equal support for traditional and non-traditional roles in a well-educated population.

In addition, Etaugh and Spandikow (1981) found that college students became more liberal in their attitudes toward women as they progressed through school. However, about 25% of the sample became more traditional. Therefore, in this study increasing years of education caused 75% of

the sample to become more liberal and 25% to become more traditional. Increasing years of education may bring about a more traditional or a more liberal orientation to women's roles. This might help to account for the almost even division into traditional and non-traditional groups in the sample under study.

Stafford (1984) found a significant negative correlation between age and scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale with older subjects having more traditional scores and younger subjects having more non-traditional scores. However, as mentioned above, in the sample of college seniors under study here, they were almost equally divided between traditional and non-traditional orientations.

In view of the foregoing, it appeared that the sample under study was different in their attitudes toward women's roles than were many of the samples mentioned in the literature. It also appeared that attitudes toward women did not appear to significantly affect whether or not women chose to enter professions traditionally dominated by women. For example, 33 traditional and 35 non-traditional women chose to enter business which is a field not predominately dominated by women. On the other hand, there were 44 traditional and 33 nontraditional women who chose to enter education. This is slightly more in keeping with the original idea that traditional women would chose to enter

professions dominated by women. In psychology, however, there were 21 traditional and 32 non-traditional women in a field less dominated by men than an area such as business.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, SUGGESTIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter will summarize the purpose of the study and discuss major concepts under study, the hypothesis being tested, subjects for the study, how the testing was done, and data analysis procedures used and the results. In addition, suggestions drawn from the study will be discussed as well as recommendations for future research.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to help clarify the relationship that exists between attitudes toward women's roles and the development of self-concept in women. Many studies have shown that women and men begin to be socialized into their appropriate sex-roles almost at birth. The literature on the socialization of women stresses that women are often socialized to be effective in social relationships and may suppress achievement striving in non-traditional areas if they experience significant role conflict. It has been argued that women adjust their behavior to conform to their internalized sex-role stereotype. These stereotypes may

serve to reinforce society's view of women as helpless and dependent and may lead to a sense of low self-esteem. Persons low in self-esteem often enter vocations which serve to reinforce their sense of inadequacy whereas individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to enter vocations where they will feel personally adequate. Age is also a factor in how women see themselves since the older the woman, the more apt she is to be committed to the traditional role. Level of education has also been found to be a factor in attitudes toward women with the higher the level of education, the more favorable the attitude toward feminism. In addition, Yanico (1981) found that liberal women were in majors and expected to enter occupations that were more male-dominant. The more traditional women were in more female-dominant majors and expected to pursue more female-dominant occupations.

Major concepts under study in this research were attitudes toward women and self-concept. Attitudes toward women were those delineated on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale which contains statements about the rights and roles of women in such areas as vocational, educational, and intellectual activities; dating behavior and etiquette; sexual behavior; and marital relationships. The scale divides attitudes into two categories: traditional and contemporary, pro-feminist, non-traditional. Self-concept was defined as an individual's picture or concept of himself or

herself and was measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

This study examined the relationship between scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. It was hypothesized that when age and major were held constant, there would be a significant ($p < .05$) positive relationship between traditional scores on the Attitudes Toward Women and low self-concept scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale for the population under study.

The subjects for the study included 198 female college seniors enrolled in business, education, and psychology departments at Oklahoma State University. Students were approached in the classroom setting, and their voluntary participation was solicited. In order to avoid a response set, students were given no information about the expected results of the study until after they had completed the tests.

Data analysis included computation of the Pearson correlation coefficient for each department separately in order to measure the relationship between scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. These correlations were computed both including and excluding subjects over age 25 in order to see if age was a factor in the statistical significance of the correlations. Analysis of variance was used to study the variance within and between sample averages for each department for scores

on both of the testing instruments.

For the analysis of the data, subjects were divided into two groups based on the median split of their AWS scores. Subjects scoring above the sample median were designated as non-traditional. Those scoring on the median or below were designated as traditional. The median score for the sample was 35.

In order to divide subjects into high and low self-concept groups. The mean for the Total Positive Score of the TSCS for the norm group was used. This was 346. Therefore, if subjects scored above 346 they were considered to have a high self-concept; and if they scored on or below 346, they were considered to have low self-concept.

Since it was hypothesized that there would be a significant ($p < .05$) positive correlation between traditional scores on the AWS and low self-concept scores on the TSCS, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed for each department. None of these correlations were significant. In order to control for age, the correlation coefficients were calculated both including and excluding women over 25. The correlations, however, continued to remain nonsignificant. Analysis of variance was used to examine the variations among department averages on both the AWS and the TSCS. No significant F-ratios were found.

Suggestions

In view of the nonsignificant Pearson correlation coefficients and the nonsignificant F-ratios on the ANOVA procedures, it was concluded that there was no significant positive relationship between traditional scores on the AWS and low self-concept scores on the TSCS for the subjects under study.

Subjects were almost evenly divided with respect to traditional and non-traditional attitudes toward women's roles (traditional = 98 and non-traditional = 100). However, the majority of the sample fell into the high self-concept group (high self-concept = 182 and low self-concept = 16). Therefore, most of both the traditional and non-traditional women identify themselves as having high self-concepts. This is contradictory to a number of research studies which found traditional women to have lower self-concepts.

The effects of age appeared negligible for this sample since the removal of the 27 subjects over age 25 did not effect the significance of the correlation coefficient. Eleven of these women had non-traditional attitudes and 16 had traditional attitudes.

Attitudes toward women's roles did not appear to significantly affect professions the women chose to enter. For example, 33 traditional and 35 non-traditional women chose to enter the field of business which is not a field

predominately made up of women. However, there were more traditional women who entered education (44 traditional and 33 non-traditional). In contrast, 21 traditional and 32 non-traditional women chose to enter psychology which is a field considered more traditional for women than is business.

In view of the foregoing, it may be suggested that the sample under study was different in 1) their choice of professions, 2) attitudes toward women's roles and 3) in their self-concept scores from many of the research samples described in the literature.

Recommendations

It is recommended that future research utilizing the TSCS might consider using the mean from a group other than the norm group since another mean might more equitably divide the high and low self-concept groups. In addition, a different procedure other than the median split might more accurately divide traditional and non-traditional women on the AWS.

Future research might also be conducted with a wider range of ages to more adequately represent women over age 25 to see if older women are still indeed more traditional. Another question to be answered is how old do women have to be for age to make a significant impact on their attitudes toward women's roles?

It might be valuable to survey women in other professions to see if sex role orientation still affects the type of fields women chose to enter. It might also be valuable to look more closely at the current socialization process for women to see if this has changed. Perhaps women are receiving less pressure to be become effective solely in social relationships and are experiencing less role conflict if they attempt to achieve in areas previously thought to be non-traditional for them (such as business). Perhaps women's sex-role stereotypes no longer serve as strongly to reinforce society's view of them as weak and helpless which leads to the development of a low sense of self-esteem. Perhaps women are receiving more encouragement to achieve in areas previously thought to be non-traditional for women. Also, women may be becoming socialized more to master their environments rather than depending on eliciting help from others.

In addition, if women are able to develop a higher sense of self-esteem, this may influence the types of careers they choose to enter, since according to Super's theory of occupational choice (Osipow, 1973), individuals attempt to implement their self-concepts by entering a profession that will allow them this expression. In addition, people are likely to be better satisfied if they are in an occupation requiring interests and abilities similar to their own.

Another factor to consider in future research is that as Zuckerman (1980) suggested, relatively traditional plans for homemaking and traditional careers may now be seen as options rather than requirements for women. Therefore, younger women may hold different attitudes toward both women's roles and their own self-concepts in relation to these roles. Future research may also show that in contradiction to Morgan and Walker's (1983) findings, well-educated women are becoming more supportive of roles previously seen as traditional ones for them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alper, T. Achievement motivation in women: Now-you-see-it-now-you-don't. American Psychologist, 1974, 29, 194-203.

Bardwick, J. M., & Douvan, E. Ambivalence: The socialization of women. In J. M. Bardwick (Ed.), Readings on the psychology of women. New York: Harper and Row, 1972.

Baucom, D. H. Sex role identity and the decision to regain control among women: A learned helplessness investigation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44, 334-343.

Baucom, D.H., & Danker-Brown, P. Sex role identity and sex-stereotyped tasks in the development of learned helplessness in women. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1984, Vol. 46, No. 2, 422-430.

Bem, S. L. Probing the promise of androgyny. In A. G. Kaplan & J. P. Bean (Eds.), Beyond sex role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1976.

Bem, S. L. On the utility of alternate procedures for assessing psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, Vol. 45, No. 2, 1977, 196-205.

Bertinetti, J. F., & Fabry, J. An investigation of the construct validity of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Journal of Clinical Psychology, April 1977, Vol. 33, No. 2, 416-418.

Birnbaum, J. A. Life patterns and self-esteem in gifted family-oriented and career-committed women. In M. T. S. Mednick, S. S. Tangri, & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and achievement. New York: John Wiley, 1975, 396-419.

Bolton, B. Factorial validity of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Psychological Reports, 1976, 39, 947-954.

Broverman, I. K., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E., Rosenkrantz, P. S., & Vogel, S. R. Sex-role stereotypes and clinical judgments of mental health. In J. M. Bardwick (Ed.), Readings on the psychology of women. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

Broverman, I. K., Vogel, S. R., Broverman, D. M. Clarkson, F. E., & Rosenkrantz, P. S. Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. In M. T. S. Mednick, S. S. Tangri, & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and achievement: social and motivational analyses. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1975.

Buros, O. K. (Ed.) The seventh mental measurement yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: The Gryphon Press, 1972, 366-367.

Church, A.G. Academic achievement, level of occupational plans, delay of gratification, personal control, and self concepts for males and females in introductory anthropology. Psychology: A Quarterly Journal of Human Behavior, Vol. 20, No. 1, 1983, 21-30.

Clasen, D. R. Sex-role stereotyping: Its implications for gifted women. In Simple Gifts: The education of the gifted, talented, and creative - a book of readings. University of Wisconsin Extension, January 1978.

Deutsch, M. & Gerard, H. A study of normative and informational social influences upon individuals' judgment. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, 51, 629-636.

Douvan, E. The role of models in women's professional development. In J. H. Williams (Ed.), Psychology of women: Selected readings. New York: Norton & Co., 1979.

Dowling, C. The Cinderella Complex: Women's hidden fear of independence. New York: Pocket Books, 1981.

Eisenberg, S. Understanding and building self-esteem. In S. Eisenberg & L. E. Patterson (Eds.), Helping clients with special concerns. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1979.

Etaugh, C., and Spandikow, D. B. Changing attitudes toward women: a longitudinal study of college students. Psychology of Women Quarterly, Vol. 5(4), Summer, 1981, 591-594.

Farmer, H. S. What inhibits achievement and career motivation in women? The Counseling Psychologist, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1976, 12-15.

Feldman, S.D. Escape from the doll's house: Women in graduate and professional school education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1974.

Fitts, W. H. Manual for the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Nashville, Tenn: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1965.

Frieze, I. H. Women's expectations for the causal attributions of success and failure. In M. T. S. Mednick, S. S. Tangri, & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and achievement: social and motivational analyses. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1975.

Gay, L. R. Educational research: competencies for analysis and application. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1976.

Goldberg, P. Are women prejudiced against women? In C. Safilios-Rothschild (Ed.), Toward a sociology of women. Lexington, Mass.: Xerox College Publishing, 1972.

Goldberg, S., Lewis, M. Play behavior in the year-old infant: Early sex differences. In J. M. Bardwick (Ed.), Readings on the psychology of women. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.

Gump, J. P. Sex-role attitudes and psychological well-being. In M. T. S. Mednick, S. S. Tangri, & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and achievement: Social and motivational analyses. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1975.

Haring, M. J., & Beyard-Tyler, K.C. Counseling with women: the challenge of nontraditional careers. The School Counselor, Mar 1984, 301-309.

Helmreich, R. L., Spence, J. T., & Gibson, R. H. Sex-role attitudes: 1972-1980. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Vol. 8, No. 4, Dec 1982, 656-663.

Helmreich, R. L., Spence, J. T., and Wilhelm, J. A. A psychometric analysis of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire. Sex Roles, Vol. 7, No. 11, 1097-1108.

Hoffman, L. W. Early childhood experiences and women's achievement motives. Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 28, No. 2, 1972, 129-155.

Hoffman, L. W. Fear of success in males and females: 1965 and 1971. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, Vol. 42, No. 3, 353-358.

Hoffman, L. W. Fear of success in 1965 and 1974: A follow-up study. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1977, Vol. 45, No. 2, 310-321.

Holcomb, L. A. Sex bias in experimental norm formation by traditional and non-traditional women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1976.

Holdstock, T. L., & Rogers, C. R. Person-centered therapy. In R. J. Corsini (Ed.), Current personality theories. Itasca, Ill.: F. E. Peacock, 1977.

Horner, M. The motive to avoid success and changing aspirations of college women. In J. M. Bardwick (Ed.), Readings on the psychology of women. New York: Harper & Row, 1972. (a)

Horner, M. S. Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts in women. Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 28, No. 2, 1972, 157-175. (b)

Joesting, J., & Joesting, R. Future problems of gifted girls. Gifted Child Quarterly, 14, 1970, 82-90.

Kaslow, F. W., & Schwartz, L. L. The attractive successful female professional: Self-perceptions. Intellect, 1978, 108, 313-315.

Kilpatrick, D. G., & Smith, A. D. Validation of the Spence-Helmreich Attitudes Toward Women Scale. Psychological Reports, 1974, 35, 461-462.

Korman, A. K. Self-esteem variable in vocation choice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, 50, 479-486.

Korman, A. K. Self-esteen as a moderator of the relationships between self-perceived abilities and vocational choice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1967, 51, 65-67.

Korman, A. K. Toward a hypothesis of work behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1970, Vol. 54, No. 1, 31-41.

Lipmen-Blumen, J. How ideology shapes women's lives. Scientific American, 1972, 226, 34-42.

Lunneborg, P. W. Validity of Attitudes Toward Women Scale. Psychological Reports, 1974, 34, 1281-1282.

McClelland, D. C. Measuring motivation in phantasy: The achievement motive. In D. C. McClelland (Ed.), Studies in motivation. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955.

Mehrabian, A. Male and female scales of tendency to achieve. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1968, 28, 493-502.

Morgan, C. S., & Walker, A. J. Predicting sex-role attitudes. Social Psychology Quarterly, 1983, Vol. 46, No. 2, 148-151.

Nadelson, C. M. New approaches to women's mental health. In M. L. McBee and K. A. Blake (Eds.), The American woman: Who will she be? Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1974.

Nadelson, T., & Eisenberg, L. The successful professional woman: On being married to one. American Journal of Psychiatry, 134:10, Oct 1977, 1071-1076.

O'Leary, V. E. Some attitudinal barriers to occupational achievement in women. In A. G. Kaplan & J. P. Bean (Eds.), Beyond sex role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny. Boston: Little, Brown, & Co. 1976.

Osipow, S.H. Theories of career development (2nd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Pound, R. E., Hansen, J. C., & Putnam, B. A. An empirical analysis of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Educational and Psychological Measurement Bulletin, Vol. 37, No. 2, Summer 1977, 545-551.

Roper, B. S., & Labeff, E. Sex-roles and feminism revisited: an intergenerational attitude comparison. Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol. 39, No. 1, Feb 1977, 113-119.

Schwartz, P., & Lever, J. Women in the male world of higher education. In A. S. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), Academic women on the move. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973.

Slevin, K.F., & Wingrove, C.R. Similarities and differences among three generations of women in attitudes toward the female role in contemporary society. Sex Roles, Vol. 9, No. 5, May 1983, 609-624.

Spence, J. T., and Helmreich, R. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale: An objective instrument to measure attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in contemporary society. JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology, 1972, 2, 66.

Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. Masculinity & femininity: Their psychological dimensions, correlates, & antecedents. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1978.

Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., and Stapp, J. A short version of the Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS). Bulletin of Psychon. Soc., 1973, Vol. 2(4), 219-220.

Stafford, I. Relation of attitudes toward women's roles and occupational behavior to women's self-esteem. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1984, Vol. 31, No. 3, 332-338.

Stein, A. H., & Bailey, M. M. The socialization of achievement orientation in females. In A. G. Kaplan & J. P. Bean (Eds.), Beyond sex role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1976.

Tannenbaum, A. Control in organizations: Individual adjustment and organizational performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1962, 7, 236-257.

Tawil, L., & Costello, C. The perceived competence of women in traditional and nontraditional fields as a function of sex-role orientation and age. Sex Roles, Vol. 9, No. 12, Dec 1983, 1197-1203.

Tolor, A., Kelly, B. R., & Stebbins, C. A. Assertiveness, sex-role stereotyping, and self concept. The Journal of Psychology, May, 1976, Vol. 93, First Half, 157-164.

Wells, L. E., & Marwell, G. Self-esteem: Its conceptualization and measurement. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1976.

Williams, J. H. Psychology of women: Behavior in a biosocial context. New York: Norton & Co., 1977.

Williams, S. W., & McCullers, J. C. Personal factors related to typicalness of career and success in active professional women. Psychology of Women Quarterly, Vol. 7(4), Summer, 1983, 343-357.

Wylie, R. C. The self concept: A review of methodological considerations and measuring instruments, Vol. 1 (Rev. ed.). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1974.

Yanico, B. J. Sex-role self concept and attitudes related to occupational daydreams and future fantasies of college women. Journal of Vocational Behavior, Vol. 19, No. 3, Dec 1981, 290-301.

Zuckerman, D. M. Self-esteem, self concept, and the life goals and sex-role attitudes of college students. Journal of Personality, Vol. 48, No. 2, June 1980, 149-162.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN SCALE (AWS)

1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

2. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

3. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

4. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

5. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

6. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

7. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

8. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

9. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

10. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

11. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

12. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

13. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

14. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

15. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

A	B	C	D
Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Disagree mildly	Disagree strongly

APPENDIX B

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE (TSCS)

William H. Fitts, Ph.D.

Published by

WPS WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
Publishers and Distributors
12031 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, California 90025

INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes. You will fill in these boxes later. Write only on the answer sheet. Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself *to yourself. Do not omit any item.* Read each statement carefully, then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a *circle* around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an *X* mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked *time started* and record the time. When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked *time finished.*

As you start, be sure that your answer sheet and this booklet are lined up evenly so that the item numbers match each other.

Remember, put a *circle* around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

You will find these response numbers repeated at the top of each page to help you remember them.

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
1.	I have a healthy body	1
3.	I am an attractive person	3
5.	I consider myself a sloppy person	5
19.	I am a decent sort of person	19
21.	I am an honest person	21
23.	I am a bad person	23
37.	I am a cheerful person	37
39.	I am a calm and easygoing person	39
41.	I am a nobody	41
55.	I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble	55
57.	I am a member of a happy family	57
59.	My friends have no confidence in me	59
73.	I am a friendly person	73
75.	I am popular with men	75
77.	I am not interested in what other people do	77
91.	I do not always tell the truth	91
93.	I get angry sometimes	93

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
2.	I like to look nice and neat all the time	2
4.	I am full of aches and pains	4
6.	I am a sick person	6
20.	I am a religious person	20
22.	I am a moral failure	22
24.	I am a morally weak person	24
38.	I have a lot of self-control	38
40.	I am a hateful person	40
42.	I am losing my mind	42
56.	I am an important person to my friends and family	56
58.	I am not loved by my family	58
60.	I feel that my family doesn't trust me	60
74.	I am popular with women	74
76.	I am mad at the whole world	76
78.	I am hard to be friendly with	78
92.	Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about	92
94.	Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross	94

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
7.	I am neither too fat nor too thin	7
9.	I like my looks just the way they are	9
11.	I would like to change some parts of my body	11
25.	I am satisfied with my moral behavior	25
27.	I am satisfied with my relationship to God	27
29.	I ought to go to church more	29
43.	I am satisfied to be just what I am	43
45.	I am just as nice as I should be	45
47.	I despise myself	47
61.	I am satisfied with my family relationships	61
63.	I understand my family as well as I should	63
65.	I should trust my family more	65
79.	I am as sociable as I want to be	79
81.	I try to please others, but don't overdo it	81
83.	I am no good at all from a social standpoint	83
95.	I do not like everyone I know	95
97.	Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke	97

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
8.	I am neither too tall nor too short	8
10.	I don't feel as well as I should	10
12.	I should have more sex appeal	12
26.	I am as religious as I want to be	26
28.	I wish I could be more trustworthy	28
30.	I shouldn't tell so many lies	30
44.	I am as smart as I want to be	44
46.	I am not the person I would like to be	46
48.	I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do	48
62.	I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living)	62
64.	I am too sensitive to things my family says	64
66.	I should love my family more	66
80.	I am satisfied with the way I treat other people	80
82.	I should be more polite to others	82
84.	I ought to get along better with other people	84
96.	I gossip a little at times	96
98.	At times I feel like swearing	98

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
13.	I take good care of myself physically	13
15.	I try to be careful about my appearance	15
17.	I often act like I am "all thumbs"	17
31.	I am true to my religion in my everyday life	31
33.	I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong	33
35.	I sometimes do very bad things	35
49.	I can always take care of myself in any situation	49
51.	I take the blame for things without getting mad	51
53.	I do things without thinking about them first	53
67.	I try to play fair with my friends and family	67
69.	I take a real interest in my family	69
71.	I give in to my parents (Use past tense if parents are not living)	71
85.	I try to understand the other fellow's point of view	85
87.	I get along well with other people	87
89.	I do not forgive others easily	89
99.	I would rather win than lose in a game	99

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
14.	I feel good most of the time	14
16.	I do poorly in sports and games	16
18.	I am a poor sleeper	18
32.	I do what is right most of the time	32
34.	I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead	34
36.	I have trouble doing the things that are right	36
50.	I solve my problems quite easily	50
52.	I change my mind a lot	52
54.	I try to run away from my problems	54
68.	I do my share of work at home	68
70.	I quarrel with my family	70
72.	I do not act like my family thinks I should	72
86.	I see good points in all the people I meet	86
88.	I do not feel at ease with other people	88
90.	I find it hard to talk with strangers	90
100.	Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today	100

APPENDIX C

ANSWER SHEET FOR TSCS

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
Answer Sheet

Form C

ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE
13	1 2 3 4 5	7	1 2 3 4 5	1	1 2 3 4 5
14	1 2 3 4 5	8	1 2 3 4 5	2	1 2 3 4 5
15	1 2 3 4 5	9	1 2 3 4 5	3	1 2 3 4 5
16	1 2 3 4 5	10	1 2 3 4 5	4	1 2 3 4 5
17	1 2 3 4 5	11	1 2 3 4 5	5	1 2 3 4 5
18	1 2 3 4 5	12	1 2 3 4 5	6	1 2 3 4 5
31	1 2 3 4 5	25	1 2 3 4 5	19	1 2 3 4 5
32	1 2 3 4 5	26	1 2 3 4 5	20	1 2 3 4 5
33	1 2 3 4 5	27	1 2 3 4 5	21	1 2 3 4 5
34	1 2 3 4 5	28	1 2 3 4 5	22	1 2 3 4 5
35	1 2 3 4 5	29	1 2 3 4 5	23	1 2 3 4 5
36	1 2 3 4 5	30	1 2 3 4 5	24	1 2 3 4 5
49	1 2 3 4 5	43	1 2 3 4 5	37	1 2 3 4 5
50	1 2 3 4 5	44	1 2 3 4 5	38	1 2 3 4 5
51	1 2 3 4 5	45	1 2 3 4 5	39	1 2 3 4 5
52	1 2 3 4 5	46	1 2 3 4 5	40	1 2 3 4 5
53	1 2 3 4 5	47	1 2 3 4 5	41	1 2 3 4 5
54	1 2 3 4 5	48	1 2 3 4 5	42	1 2 3 4 5
67	1 2 3 4 5	61	1 2 3 4 5	55	1 2 3 4 5
68	1 2 3 4 5	62	1 2 3 4 5	56	1 2 3 4 5
69	1 2 3 4 5	63	1 2 3 4 5	57	1 2 3 4 5
70	1 2 3 4 5	64	1 2 3 4 5	58	1 2 3 4 5
71	1 2 3 4 5	65	1 2 3 4 5	59	1 2 3 4 5
72	1 2 3 4 5	66	1 2 3 4 5	60	1 2 3 4 5
85	1 2 3 4 5	79	1 2 3 4 5	73	1 2 3 4 5
86	1 2 3 4 5	80	1 2 3 4 5	74	1 2 3 4 5
87	1 2 3 4 5	81	1 2 3 4 5	75	1 2 3 4 5
88	1 2 3 4 5	82	1 2 3 4 5	76	1 2 3 4 5
89	1 2 3 4 5	83	1 2 3 4 5	77	1 2 3 4 5
90	1 2 3 4 5	84	1 2 3 4 5	78	1 2 3 4 5
99	1 2 3 4 5	95	1 2 3 4 5	91	1 2 3 4 5
100	1 2 3 4 5	96	1 2 3 4 5	92	1 2 3 4 5
		97	1 2 3 4 5	93	1 2 3 4 5
		98	1 2 3 4 5	94	1 2 3 4 5

Major:

NAME

USUAL OCCUPATION | MARITAL STATUS | AGE | SEX (Circle One) M F | DATE | EDUCATION (Number of Years) | TIME STARTED | TIME FINISHED | TOTAL TIME | ETHNIC BACKGROUND (Optional)

Published by

WPS WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
Publishers and Distributors
12031 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, California 90025

APPENDIX D

CLASSROOM PRESENTATION

CLASSROOM PRESENTATION TO REQUEST STUDENT PARTICIPATION

My name is Linda Farlow, and I'm working on a Ph.D. in counseling psychology. For my dissertation research I'm doing a study on how women feel about themselves and about their roles in society today. I'm testing women college seniors in business, education and psychology.

I would certainly appreciate your assistance. Participation in the study is strictly on a voluntary basis. Your name will be kept strictly confidential, and only your test scores will be used in the study. I am using two questionnaires and most people take anywhere from 15 to 20 minutes to complete both.

To prevent affecting the way you answer the questions on the questionnaires, I won't go into detail about what I expect to find as the results of the study. However, when you return the folder with the tests inside, I'll give you an information sheet which goes into more detail about previous research in this area.

Option 1: In order to avoid using class time, I'll hand the folders out now; and I'll return next class period to pick them up.

Option 2: I'll hand the folders out now. Would you please complete the questionnaires here in class and return them to me when you're finished.

There is an instruction sheet inside the folder. Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX E

INSTRUCTION SHEET

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please sign and date the Consent Form.

2. Please complete the first survey by circling the appropriate response on the test itself indicating whether you (A) agree strongly, (B) agree mildly, (C) disagree mildly, or (D) disagree strongly.

3. Please complete the second questionnaire using the answer sheet provided. In addition, please fill in all the blocks located on the right-hand side of the answer sheet. Your age is especially important to the results of the study. Further instructions are on the front of the test booklet.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY.

APPENDIX F

CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

I give my permission for my test scores to be used in the dissertation research for Linda Farlow, recognizing that my name will be held in the strictest confidence.

I understand that my participation in this research study is strictly on a voluntary basis and that I may choose to withdraw my participation at any time.

_____

NAME

_____

DATE

APPENDIX G

STUDENT INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Student,

The purpose of this research is to examine women's attitudes toward their sex roles and how these attitudes affect self-concept. Previous research has shown that the way in which women are socialized affects how they feel about themselves. Some research has shown that a more traditional view of women's roles is most usually associated with a lower self-concept whereas a more liberal, pro-feminist view is sometimes associated with a more positive self-concept. However, some studies have shown contradictory findings.

In addition, prior research has shown that age and educational level have an effect on how women view their sex roles since women with higher levels of education are more likely to adopt a more liberal, pro-feminist view of their roles. Also, other research studies have shown that older women are more likely to be more traditional in their views.

The purpose of my research is to help clarify the relationship between how women view their sex roles and how they see themselves. Thank you again for your cooperation in the study. Your time and effort are very much appreciated.

Linda Farlow, R.N., M.S.
Doctoral Candidate, Counseling Psychology

VITA

Linda Kay Farlow

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AND SELF-CONCEPT IN COLLEGE WOMEN

Major Field: Applied Behavorial Studies

Specialization: Counseling Psychology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Brownwood, Texas, May 27, 1941, the daughter of John and Rosalie Laughlin.

Education: Graduated from Crooked Oak High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma in May, 1959; received Bachelor of Science degree with a nursing major from the University of Oklahoma in 1975; received Master of Science degree with a nursing major from the University of Oklahoma in 1977; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at O.S.U. in May, 1988.

Professional Experience: Staff nurse working in burn care, pediatrics, and home health care, 1975-1976; nursing instructor, O.S.U. Technical Institute in Oklahoma Ctiy, Oklahoma, 1977-1979; Research Assistant, Department of Applied Behavioral Studies, 1980; Counseling Intern at Will Rogers Elementary School in Edmond, Oklahoma, and Yukon Guidance Center, Yukon, Oklahoma, 1981-1982; Counseling Practicum Supervisor at Central State University, Edmond, Oklahoma, 1982; Advanced Practicum Intern at Oklahoma City Community College, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, 1983; Psychological Intern, Chisholm Trail Mental Health Center, Yukon, Oklahoma, 1984-1985; Psychiatric Nurse, St. Anthony Hospital, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, 1985 to the present.