

LIBERAL WOMEN'S ESTIMATES OF THE AVERAGE
WOMAN IN RELATION TO OWN SELF - ESTEEM

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ABSTRACT ...

LIBERAL WOMEN'S ESTIMATES OF THE AVERAGE WOMAN IN RELATION TO OWN SELF-ESTEEM

By

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The main goal of this study was to examine "liberal" ("self-oriented" on the IVF) women's self-esteem in relation to their own views of what is an appropriate role for women and to their estimates of the average woman's role on this issue. It intended to determine whether the adoption of an extremely "liberal" role position is related to increase in self-esteem. Perceived ideological distance between women's own and other women's positions was also explored in relation to self-esteem, as well as adjustment indices and degree of "liberal" orientation.

Underlying the purpose was the concern that, in conjunction with rapid changes in respect to women's role, extreme ideological positions may be adopted partially for reasons of their social desirability, though psychological and behavioral incongruence would remain, and gains in self-esteem may not be made. It was also considered that an increased sense of distance between oneself and the average woman might be associated with additional stress and lower self-esteem.

The main purpose was to discover possible relationships that might suggest options to be chosen, or pitfalls to be avoided, in order that the highest level of functioning be reached.

The focus was confined to the self-esteem of those women, whose own position is on the "liberal" end of the continuum, from moderately "liberal" to extremely "liberal."

The particular "liberal" position, as used here, refers to "self-orientation," in contrast to "other-orientation," which represents the traditional end of the continuum (Fand, 1955).

The Inventory of Feminine Values (IVF) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) were administered to 120 female subjects between the ages of 25 and 40, who were all married, had children, and were currently employed. Their educational level was beyond a Bachelor degree, but less than a Ph.D. or its equivalent. Subjects were selected from student lists available from the MSU registrar's office, mostly those enrolled in the education department. Other professional women were also included, many of whom were teachers in the public school system in the Lansing and Detroit areas. Six protocols were excluded because of an "other-oriented" self-rating.

The IVF was rated with three different sets: (1) self-rating, (2) estimate of the average woman's rating, and (3) rating according to what the subject considered to be the "healthy, well-integrated" woman's responses (SD ratings). Twenty additional Ss from the same sample pool gave SD ratings only. IVF and a number of discrepancy measures were correlated with TSCS self-esteem measures (Total P and its subscales), adjustment indices (Total C, Net C, N, GM, Psy) and

social desirability measures contained in that scale (SC, DP). The relationship between a number of biographical variables (Age, Number of Children, Educational Level, Aspiration Level, Own Income and Family Income) with TSCS, IVF, and Discrepancy measures was also examined by means of correlations and partial correlations.

Predictions were based on self-theory, social judgment and cognitive dissonance theories. Results are summarized as follows:

1. Degree of "self-orientation" (as measured by the IVF) is unrelated to self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS).
2. Assumed ideological distance between women's own and other women's role position is unrelated to degree of self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS).
3. With increasing own "self-orientation," the average woman tends to be viewed as being increasingly "other-oriented."
4. A strong positive relationship exists between self-ratings on woman's role and the position considered to be socially desirable.
5. Self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS) is unrelated to the degree of discrepancy between one's own asserted position on woman's role and the position considered to be socially desirable by other women.
6. Degree of Self-Criticism and Positive Defensiveness (as measured on the TSCS) is unrelated to perceived ideological distance between one's own position on woman's role and that of the average woman.
7. Conflict in self-descriptions (Total C on the TSCS) has a weak positive relationship with degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role and one's view of the average woman's role position.
8. Increasing Denial Conflict (Net C on the TSCS) is associated with increasing degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role and one's view of the average woman's role position.
9. Variability in self-description, Neuroticism and General Maladjustment (as measured by the TCS) are unrelated to degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own

position on woman's role, and one's view of the average woman's role position.

10. Psychoticism (as measured by the TSCS) is negatively related to degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role and one's view of the average woman's role position.

Additional findings showed this sample of "self-oriented," well-educated women to be somewhat above average in over-all self-esteem, especially in degree of Self-Satisfaction. However, their self-concept in respect to Physical Self was exceptionately low. Maladjustment indices, except Psychoticism and Conflict were slightly worse than national norms.

Degree of "self-orientation" was negatively related to Age, but Number of Children accounted for this relationship. Women with more children were less "self-oriented." Women with lower Own Incomes, that is, parttime employed, gave the most favorable responses on the TSCS, whereas Educational Level and academic Aspiration had no relationship.

Mean "self-orientation" ratings were much higher than reported by earlier studies, though ratings of the Average Woman were lower.

Suggestions for future research included exploration of (1) possible broad negative connotations attached to the concept of the "average woman" by some subjects, (2) differences in women's interpretation of the supposedly "active-passive" dimension related to woman's role, (3) the origins and internal dynamics of these differences. The polarity between "other-orientation" as passive and "self-orientation" as active was questioned. The importance of further exploration of different life styles and work patterns was stressed.

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CHAPTER I ...

INTRODUCTION

Purpose

This study investigates "liberal" (that is, "self-oriented," as explained below) women's self-esteem in relation to their own view of what is an appropriate role for women and to their estimates of the average woman's view on this issue. It intends to determine whether the adoption of extremely "liberal" role positions is related to increase in self-esteem. Perceived ideological distance between women's own and other women's positions is also explored in relation to self-esteem, as well as adjustment indices and degree of "liberal" orientation.

Underlying Concerns

Underlying the purpose are several main concerns.

The current movement to improve the status of women puts particular emphasis on achievement striving and independence in women (Ginzberg, 1966; Peterson, 1964; Roe, 1960, 1966; Rossi, 1965). However, affectional and nurturance related values may be deemphasized and underrated. Moreover, some women may adopt extreme ideological positions as over-corrections for felt inadequacies, but internal psychological states and behavior remain incongruent, and gains in self-esteem may not be made.

In addition, the adoption of an extreme ideology would increase a sense of distance between oneself and other women. Such distance is likely to represent additional stress, especially for those women who see other women as having values highly discrepant from their own. Acceptance by other women may decrease. These problems are different from the currently popularly accepted ideology, that emphasis on achievement striving and independence will necessarily lead to maximum gains in total personality functioning and self-esteem.

The main purpose is to discover possible relationships that might suggest options to be chosen, or pitfalls to be avoided, in order that the highest level of functioning be reached.

Scope

The focus is confined to the self-esteem of those women whose own positions is on the liberal end of the continuum, from moderately liberal to extremely liberal.

The particular "liberal" position, as used here, refers to "self-orientation" in contrast to "other-orientation," which represents the traditional end of the continuum (Fand, 1955). "Self-orientation" implies self-fulfillment by directly realizing one's own potentialities, while "other-orientation" implies indirect self-realization by fostering the fulfillment of the man and children in their lives. Whereas the positions occur on a continuum, one can arbitrarily divide this at the midpoint with resultant apparant dichotomies. The scope of this study includes only the "self-oriented" range, from

extremely "self-oriented" to the zero (neutral) point on the Inventory of Feminine Values (Fand, 1955).

Main Questions

1. One question seeks to discover whether self-esteem is related to degree of reported "self-orientation." The prediction is that no relationship exists.

2. Another question examines the relationship between self-esteem and degree of assumed discrepancy between one's own reported role position and one's view of the average woman's position. It is predicted that increased discrepancies are negatively related to self-esteem.

3. A third question deals with the possibility that increasing degrees of reported "self-orientation" are associated with increased estimates of the average woman's role position as being extremely "other-oriented." It is predicted that such a relationship exists.

4. Finally, is one's own concept of what is socially desirable related to self-descriptions in respect to women's role? The prediction is that these are positively related. However, it is predicted that degree of discrepancies between one's own reported position and the socially desirable position, as judged by other women, is negatively related to self-esteem.

5. The existence of conflicts within the self-concept, defensive orientations, and other adjustment indices (from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale) will be considered in relation to degree

of assumed discrepancies between one's view of one's own, and one's view of other women's role positions.

Definitions

The particular type of "liberalism" considered in this study is measured by the Fand Inventory of Feminine Values, which defines a continuum from "self-orientation" (liberal) to "other-orientation" (traditional). The range is arbitrarily divided at the mid-point with a resultant apparent dichotomy.

Self-Orientation

A "self-oriented" person (as used here) is defined by the Fand Inventory as having embraced the achievement orientation of our culture and is striving to fulfill herself directly by realizing her own potentialities. Operationally, a "self-oriented" woman emphasizes success rather than affectional ties. She desires to be independent from the help of others, and her decisions do not include the opinions and feelings of others. She readily asserts herself verbally as a group leader, and tends to argue with those giving orders. She carries equal weight in the family as her husband, both in decision making and responsibility. Her supportive value to him is minimized in her eyes. Her children are raised with considerations that go beyond good behavior training, and working is not considered an interference with motherhood. The extremely "self-oriented" woman expresses doubts that the gain in marriage and motherhood is worth the sacrifices, and she does not consider her ambitions to be secondary to the family.

Other-Orientation

An "other-oriented" woman is defined by the Inventory as a person who conceives of herself as the counterpart, the "other" of the man and children in her life and realizes herself indirectly by fostering their fulfillment. She has little interest in work or personal recognition and prefers affectional ties. Interest in outside activities is considered negligible, and she defers to others in her opinions and beliefs, as well as decisions. What others think of her is more important than her own development. Listening predominates over talking and orders are accepted without argument. Her goals in child-raising is for good behavior. While in the marriage her opinion carries less weight, her responsibility for its success is greater. Her encouragement to her husband is considered as being her greatest benefit to him. She expresses no doubts that the gain in marriage and motherhood is greater than the sacrifices and her own wishes are viewed as without conflict with what is expected from her.

Historical Context

The historical position of women continues to make impact today. Women in the past were expected to be useful to men and to focus their identities around them for their benefit (Rousseau, 1792). The parallel psychological role consisted of inhibition of aggressiveness, nurturance to others, and the negation of intellectual qualities (Kagan, 1962).

Freudian theory, which became widely accepted, added to the persistence of the traditional role, as his descriptions of women's

psychological dynamics, being based on his observations of that time, placed her in a secondary role, which she was assumed to be unable to escape. Anatomy was assumed to be destiny.

Not all writers adopted this theory in respect to women. Many psychologists and even psycho-analysts (i.e., Horney, Fromm, Adler, and Clara Thompson) were beginning to lean more and more toward sociology and emphasized the importance of cultural factors in shaping individual personalities. These writers, Clara Thompson in particular, were of the opinion that sexual differences in personality, intelligence, ability, and status were neither innate nor physiologically determined, but rather were the result of cultural stereotypes, cultural pressures, and social conditioning. If women felt inferior to, and envied men, what they envied was their culturally imposed advantages and position of superiority (Thompson, 1949).

In support of a cultural, as opposed to biological, viewpoint, were findings of sociologists and anthropologists which revealed extreme variations in the sex-role behaviors expected of men and women in societies having cultural traditions different from modern western societies (Albert, 1963; Farber and Wilson, 1963; Mead, M. 1935).

The implications are obvious. If each sex is capable of considerably wider range of behaviors and expression than is traditionally permitted, inappropriate restrictions on the female sex need to be removed, so as to maximize her fullest potential.

A number of reality factors have affected important changes for women. The Industrial Revolution reduced home-making responsibilities, and her labor was increasingly needed outside the home

(Ginzberg, 1966). Furthermore, since the measurement of intelligence became possible by the work of Binet in 1900, normative studies have established that intellectual levels of the sexes are essentially similar (Wechsler, 1966). Thirdly, awareness of the dangers of over-population led to the acceptance of birth-control, and more women use options in relation to child-bearing. Thus, women have more time available to be used, according to their own inclination, but with few historical precedents to rely on.

The Current Context

The rapid changes have created problems for women, while new attitudes clash with the old, and present society is not as ready to offer equal opportunities, as is often claimed. Women find themselves pulled in opposite directions, being encouraged to succeed, but not to succeed too much. Internal conflicts also continue, while their self-concepts have not yet incorporated aggressive competitive activities and they lack models after which to pattern themselves (Horner, 1972).

The current woman's movement has provided a powerful thrust toward encouraging women to broaden their self-concepts. Women's organizations have been formed, where women can now gain support from each other, and consciousness raising groups have become established, where women can help each other to remove blind-folds and give support toward new endeavors. Much emphasis is laid on personal achievement and independence, which is the area most neglected in the past (Ginzberg, 1966; Peterson, 1964; Rossi, 1965).

Efforts are also being made to identify and confront barriers in society which continue to infringe on women's rights, or which stereotype and dehumanize them. Often, matters that appear subtle at first, become quite obvious under closer scrutiny. Psychological theories, psychoanalysis in particular, have been examined and found to contain biases against women (Anthony, 1970; Miller, 1970). Therapy has been identified as a process where women are frequently subjected to further acculturation to negative stereotypes (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkvantz, and Vogel, 1970; Rush, 1972). Public media and television programs often are found to embody objectionable female stereotypes (Rock, 1973). Men's interactions with women abound in reminders of the same stereotypes, and in fact, many women themselves continue to support these stereotypes (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, and Vogel, 1972; Goldberg, 1968; McKee and Sheriff, 1959). Thus history, society, men, and even women, all provide barriers to the fullest humanization of women. A united effort and great persistence will be required to reverse these conditions.

However, while achievement and independence strivings are being emphasized, affective values, which have been women's particular domain in the past, may become underemphasized. Throughout the current literature, a widespread tendency exists to equate mental health, self-fulfillment, and self-actualization for women with intellectual pursuits, professional endeavors, and other activities occurring outside the home. In addition, those personality characteristics, previously used to describe the "healthy" adult man,

are becoming viewed as the ideal for the adult woman, and a new role is being prescribed for her: the role of independent, self-assertive, achievement oriented woman whose place is no longer in the home, but in professional pursuits as well (Ohlbaum, 1971). Thus we seem to be plunging ahead quite rapidly, but without full understanding of many possible consequences.

Occasional voices are heard from within the movement which question the wisdom of a one-sided emphasis. Bardwick (1973) and Ohlbaum (1971) have placed the current movement in the context of current society's changes, viewing it mainly as reflecting a search for meaning. Bardwick (1973) warned against simplistic solutions and a uni-dimensional frame of reference. She urged that, considering the complexity of the problems, we ought not to decide too quickly on the exact route and goals. She pointed out an inherent danger in outlining the route prematurely, as the many ramifications cannot be immediately foreseen, and complete success might be aborted (Bardwick, 1973; Ohlbaum, 1971).

What does matter is that women retain a core of self through all roles and to be confident enough to approach tasks with openness. This should include the awareness of the particular contributions that women can offer and the important values that they have held, which they need to retain (Bardwick, 1973; Carlson, 1972).

When this is not recognized, some women, for reason of its social desirability, may attempt to adopt the uni-dimensional frame of reference, though finding the application difficult. It might be overlooked that many "feminine" qualities (though stereotypically

perceived in the past), have been valued as much as favorable masculine qualities (Broverman, et al. 1972; McKee and Sheriff, 1959; Rosenkranz, Vogel, Bee, and Broverman, 1968). An imbalance had indeed occurred because there had been fewer characteristics that were highly valued. Yet to devalue these qualities would do further injustice to women.

That careful discriminations have not always been made, was shown by Broverman, et al. (1972) who found that women have tended to incorporate the negative feminine stereotypes (relative incompetence, irrationality, passivity, etc.) as well as the positive (warmth and expressiveness) into their self-concepts. It is possible that the reverse might also occur, and the positive be rejected with the negative, though at considerable cost to the personality.

Inordinate efforts may be exerted to overcorrect for presumed undesirable qualities, or an individual may vacillate between extremes in search for a workable solution. Even what may have seemed obvious before, may now become occluded. Adequate solutions may escape, while many old and tested interpersonal values are not being integrated. While the emphasis is on social and public acceptance, the age-old wisdom--that one's best qualities (men's or women's) often do not enjoy public recognition--may lose flavor and credibility. Gains in personality functioning would be slow, while internal conflict may increase.

In addition, misconceptions may develop in respect to other women with different ideological emphases and different behavior

patterns. Ohlbaum (1971) suggested that, not only might we be creating a new stereotype, but this could result in a similar intolerance for individual differences. Eventually we may hold in low esteem those, who do, in fact, creatively fulfill themselves through homemaking functions.

Some relevant observations have been made by members within the movement itself. One pilot subject interviewed for this study, expressed the concern that so long as women are not equally free to work or not to work, to be family centered or not to be, women still are not free.

Similar criticisms were reported as a result of a membership survey of a NOW (National Organization for Women) group in Detroit, where some members felt that work status was given too much emphasis (to be published).

So far, little direct research seems to be available that explores differences between those women who do operate with an active sense of self-fulfillment, as well as freedom, in the context of traditional functions, with those who find only drudgery there, or who conceive the role as mainly a passive one. Yet a host of studies confirm that many women continue to value commitment to a family-orientation (Empey, 1959; Hower and Neubeck, 1964; Matthews and Tiedeman, 1964; Riordan, 1966; Taylor, 1964).

More specific examinations of women's internal meanings might elucidate questions regarding the presumed passivity versus activity inherent in different roles. In fact, the development of a

conceptually well-integrated model, which describes both passive and active strivings within a variety of roles might be most useful as a guide to women who seek a suitable balance (Carlson, 1972).

Instead, a limited conceptual bias toward woman's role appears to have strongly influenced the methodologies and results of many psychological investigations (Lewis, 1965; Ohlbaum, 1971). The current literature, which is intended to advance women's self-concept, often contains a double message. Much research is being done in relation to achievement, and it usually follows the former stereotypes. In most instances, dichotomies are artificially made along the lines of career versus home-making and interpretations made in the light of such stereotypes. Considerable investment seems to exist in the research in respect to questions about working or not working, achieving or not achieving, and whether this would occur in feminine or masculine fields. Major sources of satisfactions are dichotomized in the same fashion, whether they were expected from career or from family living.

To consider women's role in the light of those questions continues to restrict considerations about women to external roles, those most visible in society today. This would tend to reduce the envisionment of women in a more totally human way, and as going beyond stereotypes.

The Inventory of Feminine Values (Fand, 1955), used in this study, in fact, seems to be based on stereotypic assumptions. The continuum is artificially dichotomized and the independent success-orientation is considered "self-oriented" and described as active,

while the home-centered, affection-oriented range is considered "other-oriented" and described as passive. The "self-oriented" range is described as reflecting direct fulfillment of one's own potentialities, while the "other-oriented" range supposedly reflects a living of oneself "through" the accomplishment of others. Potentiality thus is equated with exertion toward independence, accomplishment, and success, though it is admitted that self-realization could come either "directly" or "indirectly" (Fand, 1955). That active, and intrinsically self-fulfilling components, reside in either orientation seems to be overlooked.

Yet affection, nurturance and even responsive behavior (as compared to reactive behavior), needs to be actively internally generated (Fenichel, 1945). In fact, the value often attached to these behaviors may reside in the active ingredients as much, or more so, than the passive. That passive components are likewise represented in "self-orientation," is obvious, as a success-orientation depends quite heavily on the valuation from others (Borrow, 1966).

It must be kept in mind, therefore, that the IVF does not clarify internal active and passive dynamics, but mainly assesses current ideological preferences in respect to behaviors. This has not always been made clear. Yet current research approaches and their interpretation tend to color public opinion, as well as to be colored by it.

Some women may then react by accentuating an ideological "self-orientation" due to (1) the social desirability attached to

certain behaviors, (2) a false application of active and passive connotations to these roles, and (3) the increased social desirability of being considered "active," which is also changing for women.* When such polarization occurs to an extreme degree, it may be at the cost of suppressing other inclinations merely because of their association with the traditional role, and because of falsely applied passive connotations to that traditional role.

Moreover, similarly false active-passive connotations may affect one's interpretation of the behavior of others, and would further influence one's estimate of their ideological positions. As a result, such discrepancies may appear very great. A communication gap may occur with other women and even emotional distancing follow (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970). This, in turn, would represent an additional, though perhaps unnecessary, stress situation, because mutual esteem is being reduced. Nor would self-esteem be expected to benefit from such a situation.

The basic concerns of this study deal with the question whether or not degree of "self-orientation" is associated with increase in self-esteem. It is predicted that there may be no differences. However, it is presumed that a high degree of estimated ideological distance would be associated with relatively lower self-esteem.

Theoretical Background

Self-theories view the self-concept as the frame of reference through which the individual interacts with his world, and which

*A subtle example might be that the IVF originally assigned positive values to "other-orientation" and negative value to "self-orientation." The signs are now used in reverse.

influences his behavior as well as his attitudes toward others. Individuals who are "fully functioning persons" (Rogers, 1961) tend to have a favorable self-concept, which is associated with a high level of self-actualization (Maslow, 1954), personality integration (Seeman, 1959), and interpersonal competence (Fitts, 1970). They tend to rely on their own value system and are able to function with a sense of self-direction. The congruence of experience with the concept of self has also been emphasized (Rogers, 1961). That is, the sensory experiences and feelings of a fully functioning person match external events and are consistent with his self-concept.

The source of self-esteem originates from the esteem from others (Maslow, 1954) and can be earned by measuring up to the demands and expectations of others (Fitts, et.al., 1971). Self-esteem also emanates from the self whenever the Behavioral Self engages in self-actualizing behavior (Fitts, 1971).

The way a person feels about himself further affects his expectations from others (Fitts, et al., 1971). If a person likes and values himself, he tends to assume that others perceive him in the same light. If he dislikes himself, he expects similar reactions from others (Clark, 1968; Fitts, 1972C). One's own self-concept, in turn, influences the way one is perceived by others (Duncan, 1966; Seeman, 1966). At the same time, individuals with high self-esteem also tend to maintain an internal locus of control, that is, they recognize that reinforcement can be obtained by their own behavior (Lamb, 1968). Thus a flow occurs from external sources to internal experiences, which in turn affect interpersonal expectancies.

Such a feedback relationship requires a balance between external and internal reinforcement. The optimal proportions would vary between individuals and partially depend on available external resources. The conflict between dependence and independence is one of mankind's dilemmas, and seems to be especially difficult to resolve. Everyone needs to depend on others to some degree and to have others meet needs for him. There is an equally strong need to be free and independent, and to be able to meet one's own needs (Maslow, 1954). While each person seeks his own optimal balance, it is easy to err in either direction (Fitts, 1970).

The degree of complexity that such a balance implies is illustrated by self-concept correlates with the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) test, devised by Schutz (1966). The FIRO-B test assesses three major interpersonal variables (Inclusion, Control, and Affection) on two different dimensions (the amount each behavior is expressed toward others, and the amount wanted from others). Total amounts of expressed and wanted behavior are also measured, as well as the differences between the two.

Correlations of the three FIRO-B variables with the Tennessee Self-concept Scale (TSCS) are linear in some instances, curvilinear in others, and these relationships vary according to level of self-concept examined. Results show that the Expression of Inclusive and Expression of Affective behavior are important factors in self-esteem, and Seeking Inclusion and Seeking Affection are similarly related to self-esteem. A greater amount expressed than wanted of either

Inclusion or Affection seems to be an especially favorable balance. However, zero scores in Seeking Affection were considered suspect and possibly reveal the exact opposite (inordinate desire for affection), which is being denied (Schutz, 1966).

The Control variable (taking charge and directing others) is at least equally important, and Expressing Control has high positive correlation with self-esteem, but Wanting Control from others is negatively related.

Thus it seems quite clear that sheer passivity, which requires and seeks direction from others, does not contribute to self-esteem, but that other seeking behavior often does.

Further complicating findings have been reported in respect to deference behavior. Self-esteem was positively related to deference in an artificially produced obligation situation. The interpretation was offered that a person with a good opinion of himself can afford to defer to someone else (Weinstein, et al. 1967). However, such deference behavior was offered to friends, more so than to strangers, and the balance of control and affection may have been an important factor.

Cognitive functioning represents still another variable in an effectively integrated self-concept. Though degree of intellectual endowment has not been found to have a systematic relationship with the TSCS (Fitts, 1972a), a high degree of personality integration (PI) is associated with effective use of such endowment. Cognition also interrelates with interpersonal perceptions, and high PI subjects

have greater degree of cognitive complexity in their perceptions of others (Thomas and Seeman, 1971).

The nature of social perception, however, seems to be more important than its accuracy. Assumed similarity between oneself and others has been shown to have a positive correlation with self-esteem (Fitts, 1954). Individuals with high self-regard tend to assume others to be relatively like themselves and to have similarly favorable self-concepts. Those with low self-regard, on the other hand, tend to assume they are very different from others.

Even common stereotypes, such as ratings of the supposed self-esteem of the "generalized other," usually correlate significantly with self-concept measures (Fitts, 1954; Fitts and Bell, 1969). However, the same relationship does not hold when negative stereotypes ("neurotic," alcoholic") are being considered. In that case, individuals with positive self-concepts tend to describe negatively valued roles as much lower than they describe their own. On the other hand, those with low self-esteem may be even more negative toward an unfavorable stereotype, or they may perceive it as more positive than they view themselves (Fitts and Bell, unpublished).

Evidence based on this line of thinking has not always been conclusive, however. For example, Claye's (1958) investigation of seventh, ninth, and twelfth graders' attitudes toward Negroes in Arkansas, showed no significant correlation with self-esteem. The question was raised whether the highly charged emotional climate in that environment at that time represented a valid situation. Possibly

a turmoiled environment may confound results instead of accentuating them.

Social Judgment Theory (Sherif and Hovland, 1961) deals specifically with attitudes involved in making judgments about social events, though the basic experiments often begin with psychophysical stimuli.

The basic proposition is that man structures situations that are important to him. This structure includes both internal and external factors, which constitute the "frame of reference." However, the central patterning is the major determinant. Such patterning includes degree of stimulus ambiguity, intensity of motive state and the distance of the stimuli from the "anchors," or the major reference points. The greater the stimulus ambiguity and the more intense the motive state, the greater will be the influence of internal factors. External factors have more influence in the judgment of structured stimuli and under less involving conditions.

Although the total frame of reference determines behavior, social judgment theory holds that certain reference points within the total frame of reference are more influential than other parts. These references points serve as anchors in the discrimination and categorization tasks, which involve comparisons between alternatives. These anchors often are one's own internal frame of reference, particularly when objective standards are lacking, and the effects of these anchors depends on the range of the person's experience, degree of ego involvement, his latitude of acceptance and rejection, and an assimilation and contrast effect.

In situations when the anchors are stimuli which lie outside the stimulus range being judged, their effects depend on the remoteness of the anchor. If the anchor is only slightly removed from the series being judged, items tend to be classified even closer to the anchor than is actually the case (assimilation). An item appearing distant from the anchor tends to be viewed as being even more distant (contrast). The effect is that discrepant positions tend to be classified as even more divergent and many items tend to be classed into one category. Emotionally involving conditions tend to accentuate these effects (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970).

The theory further holds that an individual's frame of reference represents his value orientation, even under instructions to disregard his own feelings. Individuals have different latitudes of acceptance and rejection of discrepant positions, and intensive involvement with a certain position also tends to lower the threshold of rejection. The range of items rejected then becomes greater than the range of acceptable items (Hovland and Sherif, 1952; Sherif and Hovland, 1961).

Thus, when a communication falls within the latitude of acceptance, it will be judged as "fair," "unbiased," and "probably true," and will be assimilated. On the other hand, if the communication diverges from one's own value orientation beyond the latitude of acceptance, it is judged as "unfair," "biased," and "probably false," and the contrast effect will occur (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970).

When a person judges others on the basis of their similarity to him, his own characteristics represent the standard of judgment (Tagiuri, 1969). Others who are most similar to oneself often are considered to be even more similar than is actually the case (assimilation), and those least similar to oneself tend to be viewed as being still more different (contrast).

Cognitive complexity tends to be associated with more accurate perceptions of others (Bieri, 1955). When differences are subtle, cognitively complex people are more able to detect and integrate differences into a coherent impression.

Cognitive simplicity, resulting in assimilative projection, tends to reflect incomplete differentiation of the boundaries between self and the external world (Bieri, 1955). Individuals using assimilative projection appear to be made anxious about social deviance. On the other hand, individuals who underestimate similarity between themselves and others seem to handle their anxiety about conformity by the use of reaction formations (Donelson, 1973).

Neither extreme tend to be accurate in their assumptions, and each extreme can represent pitfalls. However, assumptions of similarity can be well used, especially in situations when little information about others is available. People are more likely to associate with those who are assumed to be similar to themselves, and their understanding of the behavior of others can be increased by such association (Donelson, 1973).

Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957, 1964) represents another conceptualization within which attitudes may be explained.

Cognitive dissonance refers to the need to defend one's self-perceptions after a choice has been made or a position taken. Presumably, such dissonance can be reduced either by enhancing the chosen alternative or by depreciating the unchosen alternative.

Deutsch, et al. (1962), however, have demonstrated that post-decisional dissonance occurs only when an individual perceives his choice to be inconsistent with the conception of some aspect of himself that he is trying to maintain. It is also influenced by the degree of responsibility a person takes for his choice, the degree to which he feels he cannot retract the consequences, and the degree of inconsistency that choice has with his self-conceptions. The stronger a person's self-conception is, the less likely he will experience "self-dissonance." That is, the less doubt an individual has about his self-conception, the less ambivalent he is about it, the less he will experience "self-dissonance" when he perceives self-discrepant behavior. For example, an individual confident of being a good student, will experience less "self-dissonance" as a result of a poor performance on one test, than someone with less confidence that he is a good student.

Deutsch's et al. (1962) conceptualization of "self-dissonance" seems to differ, at least superficially, from that of Edlow and Kiesler (1966) and Eagly (1967) who have found high self-esteem people to experience more dissonance with (false) negative information and to have a greater need to protect themselves against such information than low self-esteem people. Thus, although Deutsch's et al. (1962)

formulations seem convincing to me, given the other findings, it would not be surprising, if we find the opposite to hold.

According to Deutsch et al., (1962), post-decisional dissonance is minimized when (1) the individual's self-evaluation is secure, (2) the fallibility of a decision can be recognized and acknowledged, (3) the decision or behavior conforms with the individual's self-evaluation, (4) challenge from others is not anticipated in respect to his decision, and (5) little personal responsibility is taken for the decision or behavior.

Other Relevant Research

Fand (1955), who originated the Inventory of Feminine Values (IVF), devised it with the assumption that women who consider themselves adequate individuals, would show a flexible concept of the feminine role by combining both nurturing and achieving elements. On the other hand, she assumed that women whose self-concept is "warped," is likely to be rigid in her interpretations of the feminine role. They may find "solutions" either by losing their individuality by identifying with the man in their lives or live through him, or rebel against any form of dependency and adopt the male values of achievement. Extreme positions on either end of the continuum were assumed to be rigid and compulsive.

Fand's study dealt with undergraduate subjects and used a phenomenological approach, but without objective test data. One of her findings was that subjects on the extreme ends of the continuum tended to rate their family life as less than happy, while the medium

group came from "happy" families. Autobiographical sketches suggested that extremely "self-oriented" girls prided themselves in not needing others, and seemed fearful that they had little to offer besides their capabilities. The moderately "self-oriented" ones seemed to have less "tunnel vision," and used less rigid patterns of relating to people, and were freer from "nagging doubts."

Ohlbaum (1971) also used the IVF with professional and non-professional women. The professional were divided into two groups, one representing "Highly Educated Professional Women" (HEP), and the other "Miscellaneous Professional Women" (MP). The first group consisted of individuals with Ph.D., M.D., or LLB. degrees. The second group consisted of women, who worked in professional capacities, but without any of the above degrees. Their average education was 4.8 years beyond high school. The Spiegel Personality Inventory and Security-Insecurity Inventory were used besides the Inventory of Feminine Values.

Her main findings were that a sense of well-being is related to high achievement, but that the highest achievers were not extreme in their self-ratings on woman's role. While they did not claim a highly "self-oriented" position, as measured on the IVF, they presented themselves on personality measures as comfortably independent, self-reliant, and satisfied with their accomplishments.

The MP women, on the other hand, described themselves as needing and still striving for independence, achievement and self-fulfillment. They also expressed a considerable degree of insecurity and

conflict in the areas of self-fulfillment, and were less "contented" and expressed more tension even than the non-professional women.

Ohlbaum's observations were that they continued to give the impression of being highly influenced by conventional attitudes, and that their extreme "self-orientation" on the IVF represented a struggle for emancipation and identity. Thus, extreme "self-orientation" on the IVF may represent conceptual overcorrection in a struggle for that emancipation, rather than a resolution.

Ohlbaum considered reasons for the differences between the two groups and suggested that the HEP's may have been motivated originally by a greater sense of enthusiasm and commitment to a particular field, rather than preoccupation with self-fulfillment per se. In any case, it appears that those women, who actually do carry out their role emancipation, demonstrating it by achievement, tend to integrate both "other-orientation" and "self-orientation" into their value system.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Inventory of Feminine Values (IVF)

The Inventory of Feminine Values is a research instrument constructed to assess sex role perceptions of women. It was first designed by Alexandria Botwink Fand in 1955 with the basic hypothesis that women's role could be characterized as varying on a continuum. On the one end would be the "other-oriented" woman who sees her own satisfaction as secondary to those of husband and children, and where family responsibilities take precedence over fulfillment of her own potentials. The other end of the continuum is called "self-orientation," where the importance of one's own satisfactions are recognized and the wish exists that one's own abilities and talents be realized directly.

Thirty-four statements compose the total instrument, seventeen of which represent an "other-oriented" or passive, and seventeen a "self-oriented" or active value. The strength of agreement or disagreement is indicated on a five-point scale, ranging from "completely agree" to "completely disagree" with a mid-point of "no opinion." The sets are presented in pairs and scoring done on each set of seventeen. The score of the Inventory represents the differences in the degree of agreement to each of these two separate sets of statements.

A score of zero is obtained by a balanced position, where partial agreement is offered to each of the opposing sets. The strongest possible "self-oriented" position would be reflected by a score of +68, and the strongest "other-oriented" position a score of -68. The Inventory's manual reports self-perceptions to be normally distributed with a slight tendency toward "self-orientation."

As described earlier, scores are arranged on a continuum, but are arbitrarily dichotomized at the midpoint. Positive values are arbitrarily attached to one range, and negative values to the other. (When originally constructed, the signs were used in reverse.)

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS)

The nature of the TSCS is especially well suited to this study. It not only measures overall level of self-esteem, but also contains subscales which reveal some of the patterns by which an individual operates.

Total P Score

This represents the most important single score and reflects the overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to like themselves, feel that they are persons of worth, have confidence in themselves, and act accordingly. Persons with low scores are doubtful about their own worth, see themselves as undesirable, often feel anxious, depressed and unhappy, and have little faith and confidence in themselves. Extremely high scores are deviant as well, and may have been inflated by defensive distortion.

Row 1 P Score (Identity)

This score includes the items by which a person describes his basic identity, what he is as he sees himself.

Row 2 P Score (Self-Satisfaction)

This score comes from those items where the individual describes how he feels about the self he perceives. It reflects self-satisfaction and self-acceptance.

Row 3 P Score (Behavior)

This score measures the individual's perception of his own behavior or the way he functions.

Column A (Physical Self)

Here the individual presents his view of the body, physical appearance, state of health, skills, and sexuality.

Column B (Moral-Ethical Self)

Here feeling of being "good" or "bad" are described, as well as satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.

Column C (Personal Self)

This score reflects feelings of adequacy and evaluation of his personality apart from his body or his relationship to others.

Column D (Family Self)

One's feelings of adequacy and value as a family member is reflected by this score. It refers to self-perceptions in relation to those closest to him.

Column E (Social Self)

This score reflects relationships with people in general.

A number of subscales offer clues regarding the individual's response sets. The self-criticism (SC) score measures deliberate effort to present a favorable picture, but can also detect excessively self-critical attitudes. The Defensive Positive (DP) score represents a more subtle social desirability measure. High DP scores represent excessively positive self-descriptions, stemming from defensive distortion. A significantly low DP score, on the other hand, suggests a deficiency in the usual defenses for maintaining self-esteem.

Measures of Variability (V) and Distribution (D) are also included. The V score provides a simple measure of inconsistency from one area of self-perception to another. While very high scores suggest a lack of integration of compartmentalized areas, extremely low scores may reflect rigidity. The D scores measure the degree of certainty about the way one sees himself. High scores indicate that the individual is very definite about what he says, while low scores occur with people who are being defensive and guarded.

The measure of Conflict is a purely operational one. Net Conflict is a score that measures the extent to which an individual's responses to positively-worded (P) items differ from, or conflict with, his responses to negatively-worded (N) items in the same area of self-perception. Acquiescence conflict occurs when the P scores are greater than the N scores. It means, according to Fitts (1965),

that the subject is over-affirming his positive attributes, as compared to denying his negative ones. Denial conflict is the opposite and means that a subject is over-denying his negative attributes in relation to the way he affirms his positive characteristics. He concentrates on eliminating the negative.

The Total Conflict score ignores the directional trend, but sums the conflict regardless of signs. High scores indicate confusion, contradiction, and general conflict in self-perception. Very low scores suggest an artificial, defensive stereotype rather than a true self-image.

Additional Empirical Scales also reflect tendencies toward maladjustment. The General Maladjustment (GM) Scale is composed of 24 items which differentiate psychiatric patients from non-patients, but do not differentiate one patient group from another. It serves as a general index of adjustment-maladjustment without clues to the nature of the pathology.

The Psychosis (Psy) Scale differentiates psychotic patients from other groups, while the Neurosis (N) Scale reflects similarity to neurotic patients. The Personality Integration (PI) Scale consists of 25 items that differentiate PI groups from other groups.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses are designed to partially sort out which of a number of "self-oriented" positions on women's role are related to the self-concept and to what degree. Is high degree of "self orientation" important? Are smaller discrepancies between one's own role

position and the estimated position of other women related to better self-esteem than otherwise? Are smaller discrepancies between one's own role position and the socially desirable position, as judged by others, related to better self-esteem?

Additional secondary hypotheses deal with internal dynamics, which may elucidate the overall results.

Main Hypotheses

The first hypothesis is concerned with the degree of "self-orientation," within a group of "self-oriented" to neutral-oriented women. (Traditional "other-oriented" women are not included in this study.)

Hypothesis 1: Degree of "self-orientation" (as measured by the IVF) is unrelated to degree of self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS).

No differences are expected, even though some studies have shown moderately "self-oriented" Ss to have the highest level of functioning. But in Ohlbaum's (1971) study, it was the educational differences that represented the main effects, which were measured by different instruments. Fand's study used more subjective criteria in evaluating functioning and was carried out in 1955. At this time, however, extremely "self-oriented" Ss are more likely to be reinforced by some reference group, whose support and regard would enhance self-esteem. Moreover, the feeling of commitment to women's concerns, often currently implied by such a position, would have positive effects.

However, it is considered likely that the degree of "self-orientation" asserted may reflect social desirability as much as actual behavior (see Hypothesis 4). It is also assumed that many individuals arrive at different types of internal balance with similar results.

Hypothesis 2: Self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS) will be negatively related to degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on women's role (as measured by the IVF) and estimates of the average woman's position.

Research regarding assumed similarity between oneself and others concurs with such a prediction (Fitts, 1954; Fitts and Bell, 1969; Richards, Mates and Whitten, 1967).

Social judgment theory concepts would also suggest that highly discrepant positions are less valued, while one's own frame of reference serves as a standard of judgment. In turn, according to Deutsch's et al. (1962) concept of self-dissonance, an individual with relatively weaker self-conceptualization would be more likely to accentuate his own decisions or value by describing the alternatives as less valued than his own.

Hypothesis 3: Degree of women's "self-orientation" (as measured by the IVF) is negatively related to their estimates of the average woman's role preference. The greater the degree of "self-orientation," the more "other-oriented" will be the estimate of the average women's position.

Such a prediction would be consistent with the contrast effect described in social judgment theory (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970).

Hypothesis 4: The position asserted in respect to woman's role (as measured by the IVF) is positively related to the desirability the individual attaches to that position.

According to social judgment theory, in the absence of objective criteria, one's internal frame of reference serves as one's standard of judgment (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970). It is assumed, therefore, that one's own frame of reference will appear most desirable to the person making that judgment.

The prediction also has support from previous studies, which have found consistently high correlations between own positions on the IVF and Ideal Woman ratings by the same person (Fand, 1955; Steinman, 1963).

Hypothesis 5: Self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS) will be negatively related to the degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role (as measured by the IVF) and the socially desirable position as judged by other women.

Individuals who deviate from positions considered socially desirable in the population are often perceived negatively and mistreated (Donelson, 1973). Negative feedback from others tends to put a strain on one's own self-esteem.

Secondary Hypotheses

Hypothesis 6: Degree of Self-Criticism (as measured by the TSCS) is positively related to high degrees of discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman's role positions (as measured by the IVF).

Hypothesis 7: Degree of Positive Defensiveness (as measured by the TSCS) is negatively related to degree of discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman's role position (as measured by the IVF).

Both the SC and DP measures serve as social desirability corrections for the TSCS. The predictions are partially derived from

the pilot study, which suggested that high discrepancy and high "self-orientation" subjects tend to be lower than average on the social desirability factors on the TSCS, while the comparison groups were higher than average, especially on the DP scale.

Any differences on these scales, if these should occur, will require careful consideration in the interpretation of the Total P scores. Extremely low SC scores or high DP scores would invalidate the Total P scores.

Both scores may also be relevant to the evaluation of personality integration, conflict, or maladjustment. While Personality Integration Ss tend to be slightly more self-critical than the average person, they also tend to have slightly higher DP scores. On the other hand, Ss classed as unstable personalities, have been found to be even more self-critical and much lower on the DP scale. This would be consistent with Deutsch's et al. (1962) conceptualization that greater "self-dissonance" would be related to the degree of responsibility a person takes for his decision or behavior.

Hypothesis 8: Conflict and maladjustment, other than psychosis (Conflict, V. and N scores, as measured by the TSCS) are positively related to degree of discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman in respect to role positions (as measured by the IVF).

This prediction was demonstrated by the pilot study (See Appendix A). Further support is offered by the theory that individuals with less consistent self-conceptualizations would be more likely to experience "self-dissonance," which tends to be associated with increased polarization between alternatives.

Psy scores, on the other hand, are expected to correlate negatively, as was observed in the pilot study. "Self-orientation" is a culturally consistent, realistic manner of dealing with conflict, which a psychotic individual would not be able to utilize, but a neurotic individual could.

Subjects

Both the IVF (Steinman, 1966), and the TSCS (Fitts, 1965) manuals report little or no systematic relationship with demographic variables, except for TSCS differences in subjects under 20 or over 60 years of age. Therefore, control for these variables was considered less than crucial. However, considering that trends may change and differentially affect responses from various subgroups, variability was reduced by selecting subjects who are similar in respect to marital and employment status, presence of children, as well as educational and socioeconomic levels.

Since the design required data from women that give both moderately and extremely "self-oriented" responses to the IVF, subjects with above average educational backgrounds were selected, as these were expected to have had greatest exposure to the current liberalizing trends. It was also presumed that variability in aspiration level would be reduced in an already highly educated population. Therefore, the sample included only women who have obtained Bachelor degrees and completed some graduate courses, but none with degrees beyond the MA.

The age range between 25 and 40 was chosen with the expectation that age variability would have fewer significant effects on the main variables examined in this study. Only married women with children were selected, considering that this would be the most common group within the specified age range.

Finally, only employed women were included, who were working either fulltime or parttime.

Method of Subject Selection

The majority of subjects were selected from two sources, both drawn from information available at the Michigan State University registrar's office. The MSU student directory contains a list of all students currently enrolled at MSU, including information regarding their marital status, educational level, and major of study. Telephone numbers and addresses are also listed, unless withheld by the student. A similar list had been furnished to the Women's Resource Center at the Student Services Building, but this list included only women, aged 30 and over.

It became apparant that the majority of women in graduate school were enrolled in the department of education on a parttime basis, were taking evening courses, and many were employed, either fulltime or parttime. Women enrolled in this field were approached first, arranging appointment times convenient to them, in conjunction with their class schedules. In addition to convenience, it was considered that variability in subjects' characteristics would be further

minimized, if most, or even all, subjects were drawn from the same general field of professional interest.

The list of women, aged 30 and over, however, became exhausted, partly because of unlisted telephone numbers, partly due to the limiting specifications, and also due to the extremely busy schedules implied by work, school, and family demands. Only very few individuals, however, seemed frankly disinterested in participating.

Since the general student directory proved to be relatively inefficient in selecting those with the required qualifications, other methods of selection were also used. Additional subjects were drawn from lists furnished by individuals, who had either participated or were offering assistance in providing names of women with the relevant specifications. In order to avoid biasing the data, only several individuals were approached from any of these lists.

Still another method of selection occurred, as some subjects requested appointments during their free time, or after work hours at their place of work, usually a public school. On a number of occasions, these individuals solicited other women at work to participate. However, even an exhaustive search for suitable subjects rarely resulted in a total of more than one or two additional subjects who qualified. An exhaustive search in these instances seemed desirable, in so far that it reduced the biasing effect of voluntary self-selection. Subjects from East Lansing, Lansing, Okemos, Haslett, Grand Ledge, Howell, Trenton and Flint schools were included in this manner.

Finally, women with different educational majors and in different professional fields from the above lists were also approached.

The additional group of twenty subjects, which was needed to provide separate social desirability ratings were selected in a similar manner. Efforts were made to match the general characteristics of both samples.

The nature of the design required one further method of selection, namely that protocols for the individual's own orientation, on woman's role, fit into the "self-oriented" range. This requirement, of course, did not apply to those rating Form C, the Social Desirability rating. Only six such protocols were eliminated, which would otherwise have been included in the sample of 120.

Method of Approach to Subjects

Initial contact was made by telephone, at which time the experimenter identified herself as a student collecting data for her dissertation and requesting 45 minutes of the individual's time to complete several questionnaires. The subject was told how her name had been obtained, and it was explained that an appointment would be necessary, as the questionnaires were not to be handled by mail, though an interview per se was not required. If the subject appeared willing, several options were suggested in respect to time and place of appointment, and the subject was invited to make other suggestions. The area of research was identified as being related to woman's role and self-concepts. In most instances the subject was told that she would receive \$3 as a token for her time. Occasionally this information

was omitted, either in error, or because it appeared irrelevant, or even inappropriate. After an appointment was arranged, the call was completed.

This approach was later modified in order to include additional screening of subjects' characteristics. The experimenter explained that certain characteristics were specified only for reasons of obtaining similarity in the sample, and stated the qualifications especially sought for. Occasionally subjects, who disqualified themselves, immediately offered names of individuals who had the sought-after characteristics.

Screening efforts were minimized in a work setting, where some women spontaneously offered to participate. In order to avoid any embarrassment in revealing age or emphasizing marital or graduate status in the presence of co-workers, data were obtained and later screened, using the biographical questionnaires included in the data packets.

Method of Data Collection

Though the original plan was to collect data in groups, this was less feasible than arranging individual appointments. Many subjects, who participated, did so only when appointments could be fitted into their own schedules. In many instances, however, it was possible to make overlapping appointments.

Most of the appointments on campus were made in the education building, some in the library. In the education building, the meeting place consisted of a quiet lounge-study area. A name tag identified

the experimenter, and the subject identified herself on arrival. She was then given a data packet and individual instructions.

An introductory letter (See Appendix B) described the general nature of the study, but explained that the specific focus could not be revealed at that time. The subject was invited to leave her name and address on a separate sheet of paper so that a summary of results could be sent to her later. It was also explained that the information was anonymous, as the packets had code numbers and the individual's name was not recorded on any answer sheets.

The packets further included a biographical information sheet, Form A and B of the Inventory of Feminine Values, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (See Appendix C). Form A on the IVF is the standard form for rating of own position on woman's role. Form B contains the same questions in scrambled order and was given with the instructions to answer the questions as the subject believed the average woman would. It also gave the opportunity to record any special frame of reference used in rating this form.

The TSCS was to be completed after these two forms. The subjects were also told that one more questionnaire will be given after these have been completed. She then chose a convenient place in the study area. When the first part was completed, the packet was returned in exchange for Form C of the IVF, which contained the instructions to rate the same questions as the healthy, well-integrated woman would. A check for \$3 was given at this time, which, however, a number of people returned. Most subjects gave their names and addresses before leaving, requesting summaries of results.

The same procedure was followed in different settings. In the school setting, testing was done either in the teacher's own study area or in the lounge. Other professionals were met in their own offices. Finally a number of appointments were made in the individual's home.

Interruptions occurred in all settings, except those made on campus. However, these did not interfere with the subjects' completion of the questionnaires. When children were present in the home, the experimenter entertained them in order to free the subject for her task. Husbands were not present. Spontaneous remarks were common, but the content of the questionnaires was not discussed until completed.

Description of the Sample

The subjects who completed the total protocol (Sample₁) consisted of 120 women from the Lansing, and Detroit area of Michigan. The additional group of women, who provided social desirability ratings only (Sample₂) was drawn from the same sample pool.

The biographical questionnaires requested information regarding age, marital and employment status, number of children, type of employment, educational level attained and aspired to, and a rough estimate of own and family income. The biographical data are summarized in Tables 1 to 6.

Any data obtained from women other than married, those without children, those not employed, or whose age and educational level were outside the specified range were not included in the sample.

TABLE 1.--Means and ranges for Age and Number of Children for Subjects in Samples 1 and 2.

Demographic Variables	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	Range	Mean	Range	Mean
Age	25-40	33.6	25-40	33.5
Number of Children	1-6	2.2	1-6	2.3

However, their data was also scored and analyzed in separate subgroups. The results are listed in Appendix D.

Educational levels were somewhat difficult to identify with complete certainty. The biographical questionnaires had listed number of years of education beyond college, which were to be identified, expecting an MA degree to represent one year beyond college, except for rare MA degrees, which require two years. Many subjects assumed the years to refer to time span, though they usually inquired about this, and corrections were made by them. Since many subjects were taking only one or two courses at once, reference to time would have resulted in a different classification. Judgment was required in some instances to determine level of education. In most such instances, aspiration levels assisted in making this judgment, as these were usually stated in terms of degrees. Subjects, who indicated graduation as MA's in June, were classed into the middle category. Those giving evidence of 100 or more credits beyond their BA, were placed in the top third category.

TABLE 2.--Educational Levels of Subjects from Samples 1 and 2.

Educational Levels	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Some graduate work beyond Bachelor degree	63	52.5	13	65
MA completed or almost completed	45	37.5	5	25
Approximately two years of graduate work	12	10	2	10
	N=120		N=20	

TABLE 3.--Aspiration Levels of Subjects from Sample 1 and 2.

Aspiration Levels	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No further education	11	9.17	3	15
MA	68	56.67	9	45
Education Specialist	13	10.83	0	0
ED.D., Ph.D. or LL.D.	28	23.33	5	25
Continuous courses	0	0	2	10
Not stated	0	0	1	5
	N=120		N=20	

TABLE 4.--Own Income Levels of Subjects from Samples 1 and 2.

Own Income Levels	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
\$ 0 - 5,000	34	28.3	4	20
\$5,000 - 10,000	26	21.7	5	25
\$10,000 - 20,000	59	49.2	10	50
\$20,000 up	1	.8	1	5
	N=120		N=20	

TABLE 5.--Family Income Levels of Subjects from Sample 1 and 2.

Family Income Levels	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
\$ 0 - 5,000	0	0	0	0
\$5,000 - 10,000	3	2.5	1	5
\$10,000 - 20,000	46	38.3	6	30
\$20,000 up	70	58.3	13	65
Not stated	1	.8	0	0
	N=120		N=20	

TABLE 6.--Type of Work Reported by Subjects in Sample 1 and 2.

Type of Work	Number of Ss in Sample 1	Number of Ss in Sample 2
Teaching	67	15
Librarian	5	
Teacher coordinator	1	
Teacher consultant	2	
Counsellor	3	
Reading consultant	3	
School nurse	1	
Instructor of nursing	4	
Social worker	4	
Secretary	3	
Director of church music	1	
Music		1
Occupational therapist	1	
Rehabilitation	2	
Graduate Assistant	6	1
Research	2	
Personnel evaluation	1	
Speech and Language Pathologist		1
Management consultant	1	
Administrator	2	
Own business	1	
Interviewer	1	
Public Affairs specialist	1	
Factory management	1	
Director of student center, Public school	1	
Advertisement layout, newspaper		1
Not stated	6	1
	N=120	N=20

Aspiration level ranged between no further plans, to Educational Specialist, and Ph.D. degrees. In fact, the graduate level represented in this sample probably increased variability in these aspirations. Current enrollment in itself might represent a signal of the existence of such variability, especially as the highest levels would be in closer reach.

Own Income also varied considerably, sometimes as a function of the subjects' graduate status, but more often due to a parttime versus fulltime work pattern. The questionnaires do not completely reflect these considerations, which were verbally expressed by the subjects. Family Income was also lower in a number of instances, due to the husband's graduate status. Thus the income levels reported do not reflect income potential or socioeconomic level so much as differences in work patterns.

Design and Statistical Methods

The data were from 120 subjects who fit the selection criteria. The TSCS was computer scored by National Scanning Laboratories in Columbus, Ohio. IVF protocols were handscored by the experimenter, and recorded by an assistant to establish scoring accuracy. Discrepancy scores were calculated by subtraction, disregarding directional differences. Discrepancy₁ scores represented the differences between self-ratings and Average Woman ratings. Discrepancy₂ scores refer to the deviation between self-ratings from the mean of social desirability (SD) ratings from sample₂.

Two additional IVF discrepancy measures appeared to be of interest, though these were not included in the predictions. Discrepancy₃ refers to the differences between self-ratings and own SD ratings, whereas Discrepancy₄ measures differences between estimates of the average woman's position and own SD ratings.

The product moment coefficient was calculated to test each of the predictions. Variability in biographical backgrounds was identified and their correlation with the variables of interest examined. Partial correlations were calculated in those instances where the main variables had mutual relationships with the biographical data.

In addition, the total sample₁ was divided into upper, middle, and lower thirds according to size of discrepancy₁ scores, and the TSCS scores of the three groups were compared using analysis of variance. Though the design originally provided for plotted profiles to be drawn for each of the three groups, this was not done, since no differences between the groups had emerged. Instead, the profile for the total sample was drawn, in order to visually compare with national norms.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Results will be presented in terms of their confirmation or lack of confirmation of specific predictions of Chapter II. After data pertaining to the predictions have been presented, other findings will be summarized. Appendix D contains additional tables which may be useful to the reader in considering trends in different samples. Means for specific items which compose the IVF are presented in Appendix E, Table 26.

Hypothesis 1: Degree of "self-orientation" (as measured by the IVF) is unrelated to degree of self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS).

The data support this prediction, as the correlation between Total P on the TSCS and "self-orientation" scores on the IVF did not reach any acceptable level of statistical significance ($r = .114$). The product moment coefficient would need to reach a size of .150 for a predicted correlation to be significant at the 5 percent level of confidence.

The correlations of biographical variables with these main variables are presented in Table 7. No single biographical variable had a significant relationship with both of the main variables of interest in this prediction. Therefore, they would not affect our finding (or lack of it).

Thus, according to these data, it appears that degree of one's "self-orientation" has little relationship with degree of one's self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2: Self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS) is negatively related to degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role (as measured by the IVF) and estimates of the average woman's position.

This prediction was not supported by the data, as the product moment coefficient between "self-orientation" and Total Positive (Total P) was only .067.

As can be seen in Table 7, only Aspiration Level proved to have any statistically significant relationship with Discrepancy₁ scores and the only biographical variable related to Total P was Own Income. Again, as none of these variables correlates significantly with both Discrepancy₁ and Total P, these could not account for the lack of relationship.

It would then be consistent with these data to assume that one's self-esteem has little or no relationship with discrepancies between one's own position on woman's role and one's estimate of the average woman's position.

Hypothesis 3: Degree of women's "self-orientation" (as measured by the IVF) is negatively related to their estimates of the average woman's role position. The greater the degree of "self-orientation," the more "other-oriented" are estimates of the average woman's role position.

TABLE 7.--Correlations of Biographical Variables with Total P (TSCS), "Self-orientation" (IVF), Discrepancy₁ Scores, and Estimates of the Average Woman.

Biographical Variables	Self-Orientation	Total P	Discrepancy ₁	Average Woman
Age	-.183*	.064	.101	.009
Number of children	-.246**	.059	-.157	.065
Education	.089	-.153	.010	.045
Aspiration level	.227*	-.064	.196*	-.177 ^a
Own income	-.138	-.182*	-.129	.093
Family income	-.227*	-.153	-.141	.027

*p < .05

** < .01

^ap = .06

The data confirm this prediction, as the product moment coefficient between the two main variables was significant well beyond the .01 level of confidence ($r = -.331$). Only a coefficient of .232 would be required to reach that level of significance.

In considering any effects of biographical variables on these results, it is again apparent from Table 7 that none of these variables have significant relationships with both main variables in question, and therefore cannot account for the relationship between the two. However, the possibility exists that Aspiration Level is contributing to the size of this relationship. Subjects with higher Aspiration Levels not only express a higher degree of "self-orientation," but

also give lower average woman ratings, though the latter tendency failed to reach statistical significance. A partial correlation, holding Aspiration Level constant, did reduce the correlation between the main variables of interest somewhat. However, that relationship remained highly significant ($r = -.303$).

Hypothesis 4: The position asserted in respect to woman's role (as measured by the IVF) is positively related to the desirability the individual attaches to that position.

This prediction is strongly supported by the data, with the product moment coefficient between "self-orientation" scores and Social Desirability (SD) scores reaching .651 ($p < .001$). As "self-orientation" and SD scores were found to have mutual relationships with Age, Number of Children, and Family Income (Table 8), partial correlations were computed, holding these biographical variables constant (Table 9). Additional correlations with biographical variables were computed, with "self-orientation" and SD alternatingly being partialled out (Table 8).

As can be seen from Table 8 and 9 on the following page, the size of the relationship between SD and "self-orientation" was minimally affected by the partial correlations. On the other hand, any significant relationships between the main variables in question and Age, Number of Children, and Family Income disappeared as a result of this computation. Only the degree of the relationship between Aspiration Level and "self-orientation" was strengthened, which would be of interest separate from the hypothesis tested. Further focus

TABLE 8.--Correlations and Partial Correlations for Biographical variables vs. "Self-Orientation" and Social Desirability Ratings.

Biographical Variables	Self-Orientation	Self-Orientation (SD constant)	SD	SD (Self-Orientation Constant)
Age	-.183*	-.068	-.204*	-.113
Number of Children	-.246*	-.110	-.253**	-.127
Education	.089		-.111	
Aspiration Level	.227*	.260**	.046	
Own Income	-.138	.060	-.212*	
Family Income	-.227*	-.153	-.258**	-.150

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .001$

TABLE 9.--Correlation Between "Self-Orientation" and Social Desirability, Including Partial Correlations, Holding Biographical Variables Constant.

"Self-Orientation" and Partialled-Out Variables	Social Desirability
Self-Orientation	.651
Age held constant	.638
Number of Children held constant	.624
Family Income held constant	.680
All three variables held constant	.613

will be given to these partial correlations in later sections. In considering Hypothesis 4, the data reflect women's tendency to describe their own role positions in very similar terms as the position they consider to be socially desirable.

Hypothesis 5: Self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS) will be negatively related to the degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role (as measured by the IVF) and the socially desirable position, as judged by other women (Discrepancy₂).

No support for this prediction was evident from the data, as the correlation between Total P and Discrepancy₂ was very low ($r = .049$). Also no significant relationship emerged between any biographical variables and Discrepancy₂, as can be seen in Table 10. Once more, therefore, differences in biographical background could not account for the lack of a relationship between the main variables of interest, none being correlated with both.

Since Total P and Discrepancy₂ were, in fact, unrelated, it appears that women's self-esteem may be little affected by discrepancies between their own role positions and those considered to be socially desirable by other women.

Hypothesis 6: Degree of Self-Criticism (as measured by the TSCS) is positively related to degrees of discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman's role position (as measured by the IVF).

Hypothesis 7: Degree of Positive Defensiveness (as measured on the IVF) is negatively related to degree of discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman's role position (as measured on the IVF).

TABLE 10.--Correlations Between Biographical Variables and Discrepancy₂.

Biographical Variables	Discrepancy ₂
Age	-.040
Number of Children	.004
Education	.059
Aspiration Level	.073
Own Income	-.109
Family Income	-.041

Neither of these predictions were supported by the data. Nor did any biographical variables have significant relationships with either Self-Criticism (SC) or Defensive Positive (DP) responses. The product moment coefficients remained low in all instances (Table 11). Thus it appears that, contrary to results from the pilot study, women who perceive greater similarity between their own position and the average woman's position on woman's role, are no less self-critical, nor more defensive in their self-descriptions than are those, who perceive the differences between themselves and other women to be quite great.

Hypothesis 8: Conflict and Maladjustment other than psychosis (Conflict, V, and N scores, as measured by the TSCS) are positively related to degree of discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman in respect to role positions (as measured by the IVF).

TABLE 11.--Correlations Between Self-Criticism (SC) and Defensive Positive (DP) vs. Discrepancy₁ and Biographical Variables.

Correlated Variables	SC	DP
Discrepancy ₁	.033	-.064
Age	.075	.015
Number of Children	.122	.036
Education	-.032	-.106
Aspiration Level	.009	-.038
Own Income	-.113	-.070
Family Income	-.042	.095

Results lend very little support to the above predictions. As is evident from Table 12, the relationship between Total Conflict (Total C) and Discrepancy₁ (discrepancy between self-ratings and average woman ratings) fell short of the .05 level of statistical significance, but was close to it ($p = .06$), suggesting a weak relationship. The relationship between Net Conflict (Net C) and Discrepancy₁ is a stronger one. However, unless Net C is extremely low, it does not represent a maladjustment measure (Fitts, 1965). No significant relationships emerge between Discrepancy₁ and Total Variability (V), General Maladjustment (GM) or Neuroticism (N). Finally, the correlation between Discrepancy₁ and Psychoticism (Psy) scores was in the expected negative direction ($r = -.161$, $p \leq .05$, one-tailed).

TABLE 12.--Correlations Between Discrepancy₁ Scores and Maladjustment Measures.

Maladjustment Measures	Discrepancy ₁
Total Conflict	.146 ^{*a}
Net Conflict	-.217*
Total Variability	.045
General Maladjustment	-.020
Neuroticism	.071
Psychoticism	-.161*

*p ≤ .05, one-tailed.

^ap = .06, one-tailedTABLE 13.--Correlations Between Biographical Variables vs. Maladjustment Measures and Discrepancy₁.

Bio-graphical Variables	Total C	Net C	Total V	GM	N	Psy	Discrepancy ₁
Age	.005	-.037	-.087	.093	.039	-.027	-.101
Number of Children	-.154	-.048	-.082	.059	.012	-.057	-.157
Education	.178 ^{*a}	.063	.079	-.014	-.042	.151	.010
Aspiration Level	.043	.005	.077	.005	-.016	.036	.196*
Own Income	.109	.053	.053	-.083	-.046	.327**	-.129
Family Income	-.131	.185*	.074	.063	.136	.151	-.141

* p ≤ .05, two-tailed

**p ≤ .01, two-tailed

^ap = .06, two-tailed

Inspection of Table 13 again ascertains that biographical variables do not account for the relationships between the variables under examination. Though Aspiration Level has a significant positive relationship with Discrepancy₁, as had been noted earlier, no significant relationship with any of the maladjustment measures emerged. Own Income, which does have a sizeable positive relationship with Psy scores, however, has no significant relationship with Discrepancy₁.

According to these data then, women with high discrepancies between their own positions on woman's role and their estimates of the average woman's role positions, show only some trends toward greater Total Conflict. They do show some Denial Conflict (Net C), that is, they tend to over-affirm their negative attributes in relation to the way they affirm their positive characteristics (Fitts, 1965). However, no greater General Maladjustment (GM), Neuroticism (N), or Variability (V) is shown by their expressed self-concepts. Instead, such discrepancies tend to be related to giving fewer responses typical of psychotics (Psy).

Group and Normative Comparisons

Even though few correlations between Discrepancy₁ and the predicted variables on the TSCS emerged, the total sample was divided into High Discrepancy (HD), Medium Discrepancy (MD), and Low Discrepancy (LD) groups in order to observe differences in the overall profiles of the TSCS and to compare these with national norms. Discrepancy means and ranges for each group are presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14.--Means and Ranges of Discrepancy₁ scores for HD, MD, and LD groups.

Discrepancy Groups	Discrepancy Mean	Discrepancy Range
High Discrepancy (HD)	50.7	41-82
Medium Discrepancy (MD)	32.5	25-41
Low Discrepancy (LD)	12.3	0-24
TOTAL Sample ₁	31.8	0-82

TSCS differences between the groups were then tested by means of analysis of variance. However, not a single variable emerged that significantly differentiated between the groups. TSCS scores for each group are presented in Appendix E.

Since the groups did not differ on the TSCS, separate profile patterns were not drawn. Instead, the total sample means were plotted in order to visually compare these with national norms (Figure 1).

From this profile it is apparent that the mean for Total Positive (Total P) scores was somewhat above the national norms, as were most of the subscores that contribute to Total P. Only the mean for Identity (Row 1) and Physical Self (Col. A) fell below the national mean, Identity at the 42nd percentile, but Physical Self as low as the 28th percentile. The highest peak reached, was that of Self-Satisfaction (Row 2, 75th percentile).

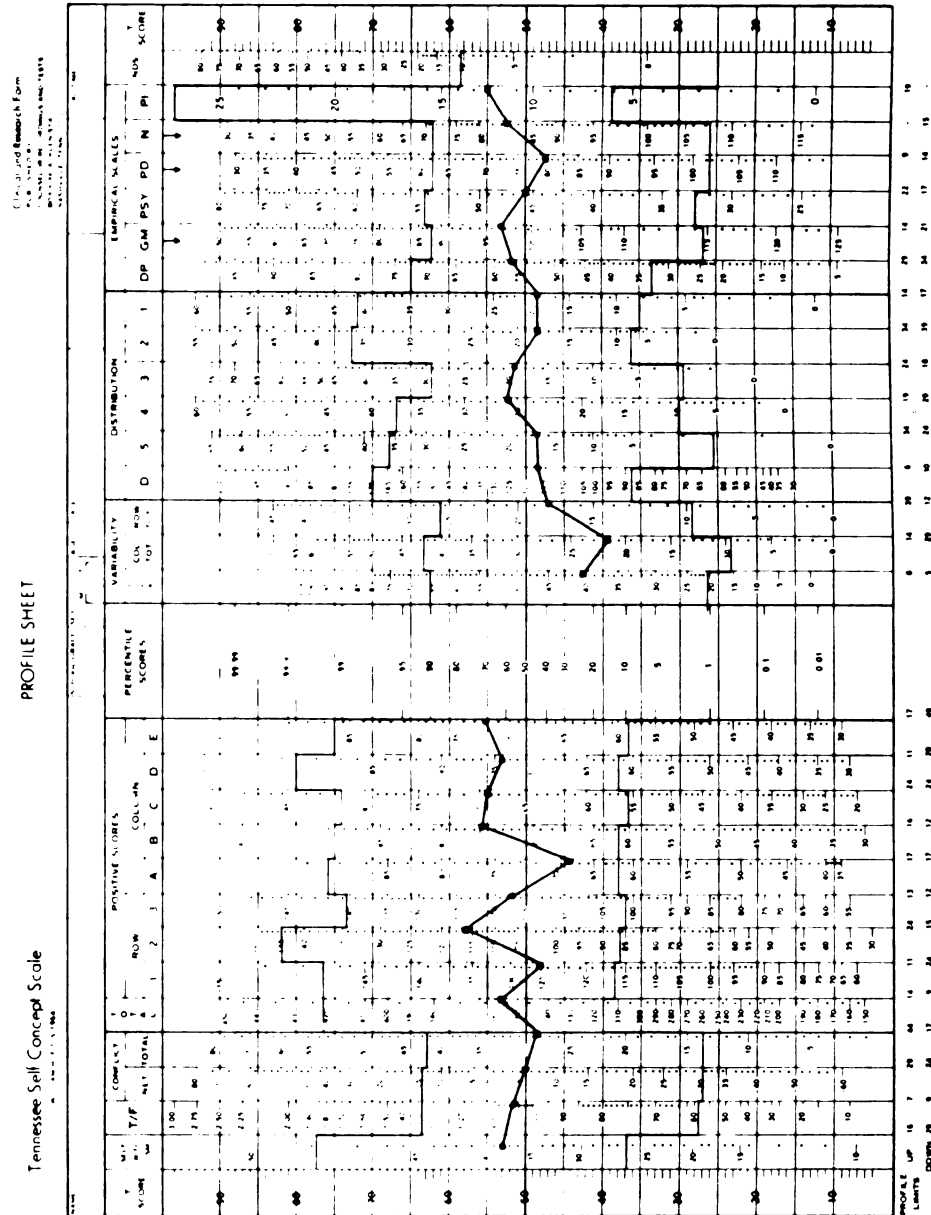


Figure 1.--TSCS Means for Sample 1.

Means for Variability (V) and Total Conflict (Total C) were below the average for the general population. Total V, in fact, was quite low, the mean being at the 22nd percentile of the national norms, but not low enough to warrant interpretations regarding rigidity (Fitts, 1965). The mean for Total C was at the 42nd percentile. GM and N, however, were slightly higher than the national mean, but did not reach beyond the 60th percentile.

Thus, this sample consisting of rather highly "self-oriented," working women with families seemed to be somewhat higher in self-esteem, as compared to normative populations. Their Self-Satisfaction (Row 2), and self-concepts in respect to Moral-Ethical Self (Col. B), Personal Self (Col C), and Social Self (Col E) is especially high. But they fell below average on Identity Self (Row 1) and Physical Self (Col A). They were somewhat more consistent in their self-descriptions than the general population, but their General Maladjustment was mildly higher.

Additional Findings Regarding Biographical Variables

The following section includes a closer focus on the relationship between biographical variables and several main variables in question. A number of these relationships have already been reported, but additional partial correlations clarify the results still further. Significant relationships between biographical variables and subscales contributing to Total Positive (Total P) will also be presented.

As was evident in Table 8, "self-orientation" had a significant relationship with Age, Number of Children, Aspiration Level, and Family Income, but not with Education and Own Income. However, all of the significant relationships, except Aspiration Level, disappeared when SD was held constant. Thus it is clear that the relationship between "self-orientation" and different biographical characteristics is often mediated by a social desirability factor.

However, the mutual relationship that "self-orientation" and SD ratings have with a certain biographical characteristic may also be mediated by a second biographical variable. For example, it appears that Number of Children represents the key to the negative relationship that both "self-orientation" and SD have with Age. That is, as the number of children increases (with increasing age), a woman's "self-orientation" decreases, and she considers this to be desirable. Thus, the relationship between "self-orientation" and Age disappeared, not only when SD was held constant, but also when Number of Children was held constant (Table 15). Likewise, the relationship between SD and Age disappeared, not only when "self-orientation" was held constant, but also when Number of Children was partialled out. It appears, therefore, that the mutual relationship between "self-orientation," SD, and Age (at least in this age range), is actually a function of the number of children a woman has.

In the case of different Family Income Levels, a more complicated pattern exists, the SD ratings being mediated by Number of Children, but self-ratings not (Table 15). The negative relationship

TABLE 15.--Intercorrelations Between Age and Family Income with "Self-Orientation" and SD, Including Partial Correlations, Holding Self-Ratings, SD, and Number of Children Constant.

Biographical Variables	Self-Orientation	Self-Orientation (SD Constant)	Self-Orientation (Children constant)	SD	SD (Self Constant)	SD (Children Constant)
Age	-.183*	-.068	-.089	-.204*	-.113	-.109
Family Income	-.227*	-.150	-.212*	-.258**	-.150	-.137

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

between Family Income and "self-orientation" remains significant when Number of Children was partialled out, but the relationship between SD ratings and Family Income disappeared. However, when SD was held constant, any relationship between Family Income and "self-orientation" also vanished. Thus, either a more general SD factor, unrelated to family size, seems to affect women's self-ratings in higher income brackets, or the effects of family size are affecting these women only indirectly via the SD factor, e.g., women with more children may tend to view lower "self-orientation" to be more desirable. Their actual orientation is associated with that, rather than the number of children they have.

Similar to Family Income, Own Income also had a negative relationship with SD ratings (Table 8). As higher Own Income, in this sample, generally indicted fulltime employment, this finding would suggest that parttime workers seem to attach more desirability to higher "self-orientation." Thus the parttime workers show more "liberal" strivings on IVF measures as compared to the fulltime workers, though their expressed "self-orientation" is not significantly different.

Own Income also correlated negatively with Total P on the TSCS, especially on Self-Satisfaction, Physical Self, and Moral-Ethical Self (See Appendix E, Table 25) and it had a positive relationship with Psychoticism scores (Table 13). Parttime workers, then, appear to experience still higher self-esteem, and their responses have less similarity with psychotic populations.

In the case of Education Level, a weak positive relationship existed with Total Conflict ($r = .178$, $p = .06$), and a weak negative relationship with PI (Personality Integration, $r = .171$). This suggests that the more highly educated women tended to express more conflict in their self-descriptions and they gave fewer responses that typically differentiate Personality Integration subjects (Fitts, 1965). The same trend existed in relation to Psy scores, but this was not significant.

Additional Findings Related to Discrepancy Measures

Additional correlations with discrepancy measures are presented in Table 16. Two new measures are included here, which were of interest to the experimenter. Discrepancy₃ refers to discrepancy between self-ratings and own SD ratings. A weak negative relationship emerged between Discrepancy₃ and self-ratings, which reflects a trend for subjects with higher "self-orientation" to rate themselves more similar to what they consider to be socially desirable. A scatter diagram in Appendix E illustrates this trend. Women with low self-ratings on the IVF (0 to +10) most often gave SD ratings which were higher than their own, often far higher. However, subjects, whose self-ratings were +30 or more, usually gave SD ratings similar to self-ratings. The middle group was more variable, which probably accounts for a less than statistical significant correlation.

Discrepancy₄ refers to discrepancy between estimates of the average woman and Own SD ratings. A significant negative relationship

emerged between this Discrepancy₄ and Psy (Psychoticism) scores, and this relationship was somewhat stronger even than the hypothesized negative relationship between Discrepancy₁ and Psy scores. It appears, therefore, that the estimate of the average woman as holding a position distant from the position considered to be desirable, has an especially favorable implication for one's own protection against Psychoticism, e.g., one sees oneself as not so bad off by comparison. However, no relationship emerged with Total Positive.

Examination of Table 16 further reveals a positive relationship between Discrepancy₂ (Discrepancy between self-ratings and SD ratings by other women) and Total Conflict. Thus, even though Hypothesis₅ was not confirmed, that is, Discrepancy₂ was unrelated to degree of self-esteem, this Discrepancy₂ was associated with greater conflict in self-descriptions.

TABLE 16.--Correlations Between Discrepancy Measures and Several Main Variables.

Discrepancy Measures	Self-Orientation	SD	Total C	Total P	Psy
Discrepancy ₁	.715***	.496***	.146	.067	-.161* ^c
Discrepancy ₂	-.494***	.333***	.181*	.049	-.027
Discrepancy ₃ ^a	-.160	.168	.059	.056	.070
Discrepancy ₄ ^b	.589***	.741***	.126	.037	-.188*

^aDiscrepancy₃ refers to discrepancy between self-ratings and Own SD ratings.

^bDiscrepancy₄ refers to discrepancy between estimates of the Average Woman and own SD ratings.

*p ≤ .05, two-tailed

**p < .01

*c_p ≤ .05 one-tailed

***p < .001

Additional Findings Related to the IVF

Additional computations in relation to the IVF give a picture of the total sample's position on woman's role, their estimates of the average woman, and the social desirability the subjects attached to these positions. As can be seen in Table 17, the mean for "self-orientation" was quite high for sample₁ (+18.66), whereas the average woman was assumed to be considerably "other-oriented" (-11.39). The socially desirable position, on the average, was considered to be even higher than the group's own "self-orientation" (+21.15). These scores were only slightly modified when the six "other-oriented" protocols (excluded from sample₁) were included in the calculations. The SD ratings from sample₂, however, were somewhat lower (+15.4) than either sample₁ or the total group within the specified biographical characteristics, who had given self-ratings first.

The distribution of scores for each of these variables was satisfactory for correlational purposes, as can be noted from the scatter diagram in Appendix E.

TABLE 17.--Means and Ranges for "Self-Orientation," Estimates of the Average Woman, SD Ratings, and Discrepancy₁ Scores for Sample₁, and for all Ss with Specified Biographical Characteristics (Including "Other-Oriented" Ss).

IVF Scores	All Ss with specified biographical Characteristics		"Self-Oriented" Ss Only		Sample ₂	
	Means	Ranges	Means	Ranges	Means	Range
Self-Orientation	+17.40	-17 to +43	+18.66	0 to +43		
Average Woman	-10.38	-48 to +30	-11.39	-48 to +18		
Social Desirability	+20.62	- 8 to +48	+21.15	- 8 to +48	+15.4	-14 to +33
Discrepancy ₁	31.58	0 to 82	32.27	0 to 82		

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The discussion will first be organized around the hypotheses, which will be related to previous theories and research. Considerations of additional findings and implications for future research will follow.

Self-Orientation and Self-Esteem (Hypothesis 1)

The prediction that self-esteem is unrelated to degree of "self-orientation" was confirmed, which lends support to the assumption that different ideologies or different types of internal balance may be adopted with similar results, and that this includes the stance taken toward woman's role. However, a negative correlation between "self-orientation" and Psychoticism scores ($r = -.264$), suggest that a high degree of "self-orientation" is associated with giving fewer responses on the TSCS, which are typical of psychotics. Since no additional correlations with TSCS subscales emerged (see Appendix E), it appears that self-concept patterns for different degrees of "self-orientation" are similar in most respects.

The prediction that no differences would emerge in self-esteem was based on the assumption that IVF responses reflect cognition, rather than internal dynamics. Concurrently, it was

considered that degree of "self-orientation" may represent verbal adoption of a position considered to be socially desirable by that person, without necessarily reflecting actual behavior. As the relationship between self-ratings and SD ratings was, in fact, quite high (see Hypothesis 4), the above assumption may be a plausible explanation for the lack of self-esteem differences. The findings, of course, do not preclude the possibility that differences in internal dynamics exist, which were not measured by these instruments. In any case, highly "self-oriented" positions, whether remaining mainly on the cognitive level or not, have a favorable relationship with realistic functioning, as shown by Psychoticism (Psy) scores.

The present results appear to contradict Fand's findings in 1955, which suggested that extreme "self-orientation" (as well as extreme "other-orientation") of college women may be associated with less desirable personality patterns and less self-esteem. The different results may be based on methodological differences, as well as the changing social climate in respect to woman's role. Today (as compared to 1955), the adoption of an extremely liberal position would represent an entirely different psychological pattern, especially as the social desirability of that position is drastically changing. In fact, the method of analysis used by Fand (1955), which was a subjective one, would have been subject to bias in the direction of what may have been considered socially desirable at that time.

The Discrepancy Phenomenon and
Self-Esteem (Hypothesis 2)

Results show that, contrary to prediction, self-esteem was unrelated to assumed ideological distance between women's own and estimates of other women's positions. These results are different from those of other studies based on self-theory, where assumed similarity between oneself and others has been shown to have a positive correlation with self-esteem (Fitts, 1954; Fitts and Bell, 1969). Instead, the results concur with Claye's (1958), who found no correlation between the self-esteem of 7th, 9th, and 12th graders in Little Rock, Arkansas, and their attitudes toward Negroes. However, similar questions that were raised in reference to that study may apply here. Claye (1958) considered that the highly charged emotional climate in Little Rock at that time may have confounded the results rather than accentuating them. The current rapid changes in relation to woman's role, which also tend to involve intense emotions, may have had similar effects.

Another explanation would be that this study differed methodologically, in so far as the similarity considered now, dealt with estimates of others' ideology, rather than estimates of self-esteem, as those did. According to self-theory, the predictions would not be expected to hold unless negative evaluation of others occurs. However, negative value judgments do seem to be attached to these estimates, as is suggested by a negative correlation between own SD ratings and estimates of the average woman ($r = -.218$). According to self-theory, then, the predicted negative relationship between

estimates of the average woman and self-esteem would be expected to hold, which it did not.

Other studies within the framework of self-theory, however, suggest how the results of this study may have been confounded. Fitts and Bell (Unpublished) found that in the case of negative stereotypes ("alcoholic," "neurotic"), individuals with positive self-concepts tend to describe those roles as much lower than they described their own. Thus, if the "average woman" holds broad negative connotations for some individuals, but not for others, self-esteem differences logically would not appear, if those holding the broader negative connotations estimate the "average woman" in the undesirable direction and those with a more positive concept of the "average woman" estimate her as more similar to their own position. According to self-theory, both tendencies would be associated with relatively high self-esteem.

Since the mean for the total sample's self-esteem scores, in fact, were somewhat above average, the above explanation might be an appropriate one. Unfortunately, however, it cannot be conclusively established from these data, whether results were confounded in this manner. Additional measures would be needed, perhaps using the semantic differential method, in order to arrive at a conclusive interpretation.

"Self-Orientation," Own Social Desirability,
and Average Woman Ratings
(Hypotheses 3 and 4)

Predictions in Hypothesis 3 and 4, which were derived from social judgment theory, were both confirmed. As expected, with

increased "self-orientation," estimates of the average woman's position were increasingly "other-oriented." Moreover, a high correlation existed between self-ratings and own SD scores, the results being similar to previous findings (Fand, 1955; Steinman, 1963). Viewed in combination, these results show that, with increased own "self-orientation," the average woman is viewed as being increasingly distant from the position one considers desirable ($r = .589$). Moreover, there was a trend for the social desirability ratings of the most highly "self-oriented" women to be especially similar to their own self-ratings (negative correlation between "self-orientation" and $\text{Discrepancy}_3 = -.160$, see Table 16). This trend is illustrated by the scatter diagram in Appendix E, which shows rather marked differences in SD rating patterns for women on the extreme ends of the "self-orientation" continuum.

These phenomena concur with social judgment theory, and illustrate the contrast effects and differences in the latitudes and thresholds of rejection which that theory describes. According to this theory, discrepant positions tend to be classified as even more divergent than is actually the case, especially by those having a strong commitment to a certain position. One's own position tends to represent a chosen value orientation, and thus discrepant positions, which are more readily rejected, are less valued. Furthermore, intensive involvement with a certain position tends to lower the threshold of rejection of discrepant positions (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970).

Each of these principles seem to be supported by the findings of this study, where the most "self-oriented" would represent the most

highly committed to the liberal position, and these tend to view the average woman as being most highly "other-oriented." The high degree of congruency between self-ratings and own SD ratings of the extremely "self-oriented" women, would be compatible with a low threshold of rejection for discrepant positions.

The above results are not incompatible with cognitive dissonance theory, which holds that post-decisional dissonance is often handled by enhancing the chosen alternative and depreciating the unchosen alternative. That is, according to this theory, when a position has been chosen over against another position, an individual may experience the need to defend this position, due to continued competition between alternatives, which creates cognitive dissonance. Such dissonance is typically handled by accentuating the value of one's own position and devaluating the alternative, thus emphasizing the discrepancy of values attached to these positions. In the case of positions taken on woman's role, accentuation of one's own position may take the form of adopting an extreme stand in one direction, to define that stand as the desirable one, and to describe the average woman as representing the opposite pole.

As stated earlier, there was a trend for women on the extreme liberal end of the "self-orientation" continuum to rate the socially desirable position to be similarly high, whereas those more moderately "self-oriented" seemed to have less investment in such congruency. Concurrently, the correlation between degree of "self-orientation" and Discrepancy_4 (discrepancy between own SD and estimate of the

average woman) was especially high ($r = .589$). Most likely, such assumed discrepancy would be effective in reducing post-decisional dissonance.

Thus the results are consistent with both social judgment and cognitive dissonance theories. Whereas the phenomena described by social judgment theory are clearly apparent, the possible existence of cognitive dissonance can only be inferred. If the inference is correct, cognitive dissonance theory may conceivably provide a partial explanation for the occurrence of contrast effect and the lowered threshold of rejection described by social judgment theory. The question, whether results are consistent with Deutsch's et al. (1962) interpretation of cognitive dissonance theory, will be dealt with later, in the light of overall results.

Self-Esteem and Deviation from Social
Desirability Ratings of Others
(Hypothesis 5)

The prediction that self-esteem is negatively related to holding a position different from what is considered desirable by other women was not confirmed. Contrary to expectations, holding a deviating position seems to have little effect on self-esteem.

It had been assumed that negative feedback from others would tend to put a strain on one's self-esteem. However, if one considers that the "average woman" may represent a negative referent for some women, as discussed earlier, it will be apparent that the strain of asserting a different position from her would not be great.

Moreover, considering that the social desirability ratings of other women in this study was quite high into the "self-oriented" range (+15.4), neither the extremely "self-oriented" women, nor the barely "self-oriented," were very distant from these SD ratings. One might wonder whether results would have been different, if social desirability ratings of other women had been in the "other-oriented" range. However, since degree of "self-orientation" was unrelated to self-esteem, the degree of deviation would not have had any relationship either.

Considering the actual results, it may be more realistic to wonder what the effects of such deviation are on the "other-oriented" women, whose position would be furthest removed from these SD ratings. Some hint of that is available from analysis of the "other-oriented" protocols that were also obtained. The mean Total P scores of the 6 individuals with similar biographical backgrounds, giving "other-oriented" responses (mean IVF scores = -7.67), was identical to the main sample's. Moreover, these "other-oriented" women assume the average woman to be "self-oriented" (mean for average woman = +8.17), and they consider that to be desirable (mean SD ratings = +9.83). Thus the average woman represents a positive referent to them. In spite of these differences in IVF patterns, self-esteem scores were the same.

The above findings suggest that, though women's role is a subject of vital importance, self-esteem seems to be controlled by other sources than women's own ideologies in this respect, their

assumptions about the most appropriate position, their degree of deviation from that position, or from the position considered to be desirable by other women. However, an existing positive relationship between Discrepancy₂ and Total Conflict (Table 16) does suggest that some adverse effects may exist.

Self-Criticism, Positive Defensiveness, and
the Discrepancy Phenomenon
(Hypothesis 6 and 7)

Questions relevant to self-criticism and defensive positions were considered in Hypotheses 6 and 7. The prediction that women, who perceive greater ideological distance to exist between themselves and the average woman, would be more self-critical and have higher DP scores on the TSCS, was not confirmed. These predictions had been suggested by the pilot study, and it seemed important to include these measures as social desirability corrections for Total Positive scores on the TSCS. Since no relationship emerged between SD and DP scores and any IVF or discrepancy measures, the overall findings can be accepted with confidence.

Adjustment Indices and the Discrepancy
Phenomenon (Hypothesis 8)

Findings lend very little support to the prediction that degree of assumed ideological distance between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman have a positive relationship with a number of maladjustment indices on the TSCS. However, a weak positive relationship between Total Conflict and Discrepancy₁ scores

suggested that women with such assumed ideological distance tend to be somewhat more inconsistent in their self-descriptions. Their responses also include more Denial Conflict, as shown by a negative relationship between Net Conflict and Discrepancy₁ scores. Net C measures the extent to which an individual's responses to positively-worded items differ from, or conflict with, his responses to negatively-worded items in the same area of self-perceptions. Denial conflict means (according to Fitts, 1965) that the subject is over-affirming his negative attributes in relation to the way he affirms his positive characteristics. He concentrates on eliminating the negative. Thus a negative correlation between Discrepancy₁ and Net C scores means that women who perceive a greater ideological distance between themselves and the average woman, describe themselves more by the negative qualities which they do not have, than by their positive qualities. However, unless this tendency is extreme, it is not incompatible with good psychological adjustment. Personality Integration (PI) subjects, in fact, tend to demonstrate some denial conflict (Fitts, 1965). In this study all three groups (HD, MD, and LD) had negative Net C scores, but these increased in the negative direction as discrepancy scores increased.

Finally, the prediction of a negative correlation between Discrepancy₁ and Psychoticism (Psy) scores was confirmed. Since Psy scores differentiate between psychotics and other groups (Fitts, 1965), it supports the expectation derived from the pilot study that highly "self-oriented" subjects are less likely to give responses typical to

psychotic populations. It was also assumed that high "self-orientation" is a culturally consistent, realistic manner of dealing with conflict, which would be reflected by low Psy scores. The results substantiated that assumption, not only for "self-orientation," but also for the discrepancy phenomenon.

The usefulness of a downward comparison with the average woman in maintaining one's own psychological balance seems further supported by a still stronger correlation between Discrepancy₄ (discrepancy between own SD scores and estimates of the average woman), though it had no relationship with Discrepancy₃ (own SD and "self-orientation"), as is shown in Table 16. In other words, self-comparison with one's own ideal position has no relationship to Psychoticism, whereas perceived discrepancy between the average woman and one's own position has favorable implications for one's own functioning. However, it seems to be most favorable to one's functioning, if the average woman is perceived as being quite distant from what one considers to be desirable.

Thus Hypothesis 8 was partially supported, though none of the differences were significant on an analysis of variance between HD, MD, and LD groups. (Discrepancy₃ and Discrepancy₄ were not tested by analysis of variance.)

At this point Deutsch's et al. (1962) interpretation of cognitive dissonance will be considered in the light of the above results. A number of implications may also be derived from this theory.

At first glance, it appears that Deutsch's et al. (1962) interpretation of cognitive dissonance was not confirmed. According to Deutsch, an individual with relatively weaker self-conceptualizations would be more likely to experience cognitive dissonance and therefore also to accentuate his own decisions, or values, by enhancing one's own and devaluating the alternative position. It had been predicted accordingly, that women who assume greater ideological distance to exist between themselves and other women, would have relatively lower self-esteem. This prediction was not confirmed (Hypothesis 2).

Some support does exist from Hypothesis 8. The negative relationship between Total C (inconsistencies in self-perceptions) and Discrepancy₁ scores, would concur with the theory that individuals with weaker self-conceptualizations would be more likely to experience cognitive dissonance, and therefore to increase polarization between competing alternatives. But the relationship between Total C and Discrepancy₁ is only a weak one, and it cannot alone confirm that theory.

It must be remembered, however, that the above hypotheses were only indirectly derived from Deutsch's theoretical framework. Therefore, the nature of the predictions were such that results might support these postulates, but they can hardly disprove them. What the findings do suggest is that generalizations from Deutsch's postulates to overall self-esteem and personality functioning is inappropriate. Nevertheless the theory could be useful in making

interpretations of the discrepancy phenomenon and in considerations of relevant implications.

Let me review Deutsch's et al. (1962) conceptualization of the cognitive dissonance process. He maintained that cognitive dissonance, when it occurs, always involves "self-dissonance," that is, the need to defend one's self-perceptions after a position had been taken. He also postulated that post-decisional dissonance occurs only when an individual perceives his choice to be inconsistent with some conception of himself that he is trying to maintain. However, the stronger the self-perceptions, the less likely the individual will experience "self-dissonance." That is, the less doubts a person has about his self-conceptions (the less ambivalent about it), the less the dissonance he will experience, when he sees self-discrepant behavior.

Application of the above framework would require that it be established whether cognitive dissonance has occurred. If so, one would assume that some uncertainty exists pertaining to one's position on woman's role, as well as self-perceptions regarding it, though self-esteem may not be at stake.

That the existence of cognitive dissonance may be inferred from the results of this study (though not proven), has already been discussed. Assuming that the inference is correct, it then appears likely that those women who assert an extremely "self-oriented" position, but who estimate the average woman to be extremely "other-oriented," may be experiencing some doubts, or some ambivalence, about

their own position. Conceivably their tendencies to be "other-oriented" are quite great, and the competing alternative increases dissonance. They may have had earlier close, but ambivalent, ties with "other-oriented" women, whom they now do not wish to emulate, though self-differentiation may not yet be complete. Therefore, when noting some self-inconsistencies with the chosen "self-oriented" position, they may defensively define that position in even more extreme terms, thereby increasing their self-differentiation. Simultaneously, the traditionalism of other women may be accentuated in memory.

Others, who do not demonstrate the high discrepancy phenomenon, may be more secure in their "self-oriented" self-perceptions, competing alternatives may not appear as threatening to them, and thus, they may not be as prone to over-react, when observing behavioral discrepancies in themselves. However, the possibility that these women may be less defensive and less self-critical in this area, should not be generalized to assumptions about over-all personality functioning, as shown by the lack of correlation between Defensive Positive and Self-Criticism scores on the TSCS.

The reader may rightfully wonder if there is any reason for further concern, since results show that the discrepancy phenomenon is not associated with any less self-esteem, but may represent a successful psychological protective device.

There would be several main concerns. One is that excessive defensive operations rarely represent the most successful route in

reaching one's maximum potential. Secondly, a concern remains for the woman, who in fact is average, who may be viewed by other women as a negative referent to an unnecessary degree. Her maximum potential and sense of well-being may also be more readily attained when appropriate status is offered to her by women as well as by men. Finally, the current cause for the improvement in the status of women would undoubtedly receive maximal benefit under conditions of mutual dialogue between women of differing value orientations, cooperation, and respect for differences, without derogation of these differences.

Therefore, let us consider Deutsch's et al. (1962) suggestions as to how "self-dissonance" can be reduced without the use of defensive operations, or at the cost of one's view of the average woman. He postulated that post-decisional dissonance would be minimized, not only when (1) the individual's self-evaluation is secure, (2) when the decision conforms with the individual's self-evaluation, and (3) little responsibility is taken for the decision or behavior, but also when (4) the fallibility of a decision can be recognized or acknowledged, and (5) challenge from others is not anticipated in respect to his decision.

The latter two points seem to be relevant to conditions of public pressure. Recognition of one's own fallibility (or the acknowledgment that a certain decision was not entirely suitable for oneself), would be more difficult when a person feels obligated to maintain the former position in order to retain esteem in the eyes of others. When such pressure is felt, one's freedom to retract or

change the position is reduced, cognitive dissonance increased, and the defensive cycle would continue.

Finally, defensive positions of either the liberal or the traditional position, may be increased, if continually challenged. Ideally, pressure in either direction should be minimal. Awareness of the possibility that a high degree of self-esteem can exist, no matter which position is adopted, should eventually contribute to the reduction of such pressure.

Normative Comparisons

TSCS results show that this sample of subjects is somewhat above average in self-esteem, as compared to normative populations. Moreover, their sense of Self-Satisfaction is especially high (72nd percentile) and their self-descriptions are considerably more consistent than the average (Variability scores are at the 22nd percentile). Their self-esteem in relation to Moral-Ethical, Personal, Family, and Social Self were also quite high (between 60th and 70th percentiles). In other words, they seem to have a high sense of being "good" people, they have a strong sense of adequacy in evaluating their personalities, and their relationships with people, including those close to them, are perceived as being quite good. A sense of self-acceptance is pervasive.

In contrast, Identity scores are slightly below the norms. These scores come from items by which a person describes his "basic identity," what he is as he sees himself (Fitts, 1965). Thus it seems

that neither high educational level, nor "self-orientation" per se, are determining factors in the development of a highly positive sense of what one really is.

A striking finding, which also existed with HD subjects on the pilot study, was a low concept of Physical Self, that is, their view of the body, physical appearance, state of health, skills and sexuality. Physical Self was not correlated with any IVF or discrepancy scores, but it did have a negative relationship with Own Income. Perhaps a parttime work status adds to a sense of physical well-being, but the explanation deserves further exploration.

Additional indices suggest that the sample, as a whole, may have a slightly greater tendency toward Neuroticism and General Maladjustment (N, GM) but Psychoticism scores were exactly equal to the national norms. However, internal conflict and inconsistencies are less than average and the sample's SC (Self-Criticism) and DP (Defensive Positive) scores are in the favorable direction. That is, they are somewhat more self-critical than most, and they have adequate, but not excessive, defenses.

Whether these differences from the national mean are statistically significant for this sample size is uncertain. However, it appears that these well-educated, "self-oriented" women, though as a whole not better "adjusted" than the average woman, seem to have somewhat above average over-all self-esteem. A sense of self-satisfaction contributes most highly to this self-esteem.

Biographical Variables

One interesting finding was that negative correlations between age and "self-orientation," as well as between age and SD scores, could be accounted for by the number of children a woman had. Therefore, increased age per se, (at least between the ages of 25 and 40), does not seem to be associated with differences in views on woman's role (as measured by the IVF). Neither did it seem to matter at what age these women were exposed to the currently rapidly changing conditions in respect to women's role. But lower "self-orientation" appears to be due to having more children, which may make high degrees of "self-orientation" less feasible. It is, of course, possible that their attitude toward woman's role influenced the number of children they chose to have, but it cannot be determined in this study, which factor influenced the other.

Somewhat different patterns seem to exist with women in different Family Income brackets. Women with higher Family Incomes had lower "self-orientation" scores, even after Number of Children was partialled out, though the Number of Children controlled differences in their SD scores. Any relationship with "self-orientation," however, disappeared when SD was also held constant. Thus it appears that the degree of "self-orientation" of those women with higher Family Incomes is only indirectly linked to Number of Children, and may be mediated by other SD factors besides family size, e.g., women in higher income brackets, who have more children, consider lower "self-orientation" to be more desirable, but the reasons for this are not clear.

Moreover, since differences in Own Income in this study generally reflected parttime versus fulltime work, and since Own Income contributes to Family Income, it appears that the fulltime workers are among those most subject to these social desirability concerns.

In contrast to Family Income, Own Income was not significantly correlated with "self-orientation," but it did have a significantly relationship with SD. As stated earlier, since Own Income in this study generally reflected parttime versus fulltime employment, it appears that the parttime workers consider highly "liberal" positions to be desirable, to a greater degree than the fulltime workers do. The explanation is not certain. It is possible that their high SD ratings may represent an effort to convey the degree of liberalism, which fulltime work is commonly assumed to represent. The fulltime workers, in turn, may believe they should be more like the moderates. Or their more moderate SD ratings may convey their acceptance of somewhat more traditional positions, regardless of their own work patterns.

The relationship between Aspiration Level, "self-orientation," and SD ratings may contain a similar phenomenon, though the overall pattern of these relationships are still different. Aspiration Level had a positive relationship with "self-orientation," but very little relationship with SD. It appears, then, that, as women's academic strivings increase, degree of "self-orientation" also increased, though this does not affect their judgments about what they consider to be socially desirable. Instead, their own "self-orientation" is

influenced somewhat by the social desirability factor, which has the effect of keeping their position more moderate than would otherwise be the case. The SD factor apparently has a moderating relationship with degree of "self-orientation" in many situations.

In contrast to IVF variables, few biographical variables, except Own Income, had any relationship with the TSCS. Own Income however, had a number of significant correlations with Total Positive and its subscales. In each instance, those with lower income, that is, those working parttime, gave the more favorable responses. Total P, Self-Satisfaction, Physical Self, and Moral-Ethical Self, each had significant negative correlations with Own Income, and similar trends existed with Identity, Family and Behavioral Self. Moreover, a high positive relationship existed between Own Income and Psy scores ($r = .327$). Thus, in this sample, the parttime, as compared to fulltime, workers have distinctly higher self-esteem, and their responses have less in common with psychotic populations.

A possible explanation for these findings might be that the parttime workers have reached a level of financial and personal flexibility that enabled them to successfully accommodate a variety of demands as well as personal inclinations. Their self-satisfaction and sense of identity may have been increased by the comfortable knowledge of making a contribution to family income, as well as by expression of skills outside the home, but without having to exclude other interests and activities. Conceivably they feel that they have the best of both worlds, and not too much of any one thing.

It could also be that the parttime workers, due to a strong sense of identity and self-esteem, are resisting pressures toward higher earnings or to conform to the work ethic. That women from higher Family Income brackets may be more subject to social desirability pressures was considered earlier. In any case, it is evident that the women, who are working parttime, are using a work pattern, which is different from the male's, and that this pattern may be even more ideal. They may exemplify, as Hoffman (1972) suggested, that a "richer life may be available (to women) because they do not single-mindedly pursue academic or professional goals" (p. 150).

The findings further showed that Total P had no relationship with Education and Aspiration Level. Education did correlate positively with Total Conflict, which suggests that with increased education, women become somewhat more inconsistent in their self-descriptions. Such inconsistencies may be due to unresolved difficulties in dealing with the role of an highly educated women in this society. A negative relationship with PI (Personality Integration) scores may have the same meaning.

IVF scores also were not related to Education, but they did correlate with Aspiration Level in the commonly expected direction (higher "self-orientation," greater discrepancy scores).

These results differ from Ohlbaum's (1971) findings, though some parallels may exist. In this study, educational level was correlated with more conflict and lower Personality Integration, whereas Ohlbaum's highly educated women reported an exceptionally

high sense of well-being and less frustration. The differences in these results may be due to the different levels of education compared, and may reflect the fact that relative degree of education is less important than having achieved the highest level, with the particular benefits implied by that level. Nevertheless, Total Conflict in this study was still below the norms.

In Ohlbaum's (1971) study, higher education was related to lower "self-orientation," whereas no such relationship emerged now. A parallel, however, may exist in that the highest "self-oriented" scores in both studies had come from those who are still "striving." Ohlbaum's conclusion in reference to the Miscellaneous Professional woman, with the higher "self-orientation" scores, was that they were still struggling for emancipation and identity. In this study, the more highly "self-oriented" were still striving academically.

Considering results from Ohlbaum's and this study combined, the implication seems to be that achievement of the highest educational level would have beneficial results for one's sense of well-being, though the intermediary stages may incur more conflict. An active sense of upward striving also seems to be combined with high degree of "self-orientation," though such striving may not be related to differences in self-esteem.

IVF Variables

Present results are an indication of the rapidly changing conditions affecting women's role. The IVF mean for all women tested who met the specified biographical criteria (including the

"other-oriented" protocols) was +17.40. The mean for the "self-oriented" sample selected was, of course, still higher (+18.66). The fact that own Social Desirability scores were higher yet (+21.15), is interesting, especially as the mean for SD ratings of sample₂ (other women from the same sample pool) was somewhat lower (+15.4). The differences may be due to the fact that women in sample₁ rated themselves first, which women in sample₂ were not required to do. Having given themselves rather high ratings, but wishing to reflect a relative striving toward still greater "self-orientation," it would have been necessary for these subjects to raise their SD ratings in order to depict that striving. On the other hand, subjects in sample₂ may have been able to respond more directly to the task of giving an objective judgment, without reference to themselves. Nevertheless, their SD mean was also high.

The above results are very much different from those reported only a few years ago. Fand (1955) found IVF means for college women to be -1.58 for self-ratings, -.61 for Ideal Self, and -9.81 for estimates of the Average Woman. Steinman (1966) reported IVF means for a cross-sectional sample of 1094 women to be mildly "self-oriented" ($M = +3.05$), and own Ideal slightly "other-oriented" ($M = -.7$). The higher educational levels represented in this study, may have had some effect, though Steinman (1966) reported no such differences. However, public school teachers, which represent the largest majority in this sample are not known to be exceptionately liberal, as compared to women in different professions. Moreover, self-selection was reduced by the experimenter's active search for suitable

subjects, and the sample hardly represents only those most committed to the current woman's movement. Thus the differences between findings in this study as compared to earlier ones, show that quite a dramatic change has occurred in women's positions.

In contrast, estimates of the average woman have changed little, but are even lower than those reported by Fand (1955). It is obvious, then, that current women's assumptions are in error and it might be helpful if these were revised more realistically.

Implications for Future Research

Several implications for future research have been mentioned earlier. One of these was in reference to possible broad negative connotations that the "average woman" may hold for some women. Further research might untangle the question whether differences in self-esteem would emerge in relation to assumed ideological distance between oneself and the average woman, when subjects' more general evaluation of the average woman is held constant. The method of semantic differential might be useful for that purpose. Possibly Fitts' (1954) method could be employed, which involves rating the TSCS for the average woman as well as for oneself.

Different connotations to behavior considered "active" and "passive" might likewise be explored, as well as the social desirability attached to these concepts. It is possible that different connotations attached to these concepts are affecting one's decisions in respect to woman's role adopted. Therefore, the recognition of

these differences might be important. As a result of further research, the polarity of "other-orientation" as being passive and "self-orientation" as being active, might also come into question.

In addition, the origin of different connotation attached to the "average woman," as well as the "active-passive" dimension would be worth exploring further. Results might elucidate the question whether different internal dynamics are attached to choices made in relation to woman's role, and if so, what these differences are.

The markedly lower self-concepts in respect to Physical Self, observed with subjects in this study, warrants explanation. Is a poorer Physical self-concept typical of more highly educated women, "self-oriented" women, or even women in general? If so, why? Or is fulltime versus parttime work the most relevant factor? If so, why? How could this relationship be modified?

Finally, further exploration of benefits residing in different life styles, as well as different work patterns, may be of crucial importance. It may be well worthwhile to heed Bardwick's (1973) warning against simplistic solutions and a uni-dimensional frame of reference, and not to prematurely outline the exact route that women ought to take.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The main goal of this study was to examine "liberal" ("self-oriented" on the IVF) women's self-esteem in relation to their own views of what is an appropriate role for women and to their estimates of the average woman's role on this issue. It intended to determine whether the adoption of an extremely "liberal" role position is related to increase in self-esteem. Perceived ideological distance between women's own and other women's positions was also explored in relation to self-esteem, as well as adjustment indices and degree of "liberal" orientation.

Underlying the purpose was the concern that, in conjunction with rapid changes in respect to women's role, extreme ideological positions may be adopted partially for reasons of their social desirability, though psychological and behavioral incongruence would remain, and gains in self-esteem may not be made. It was also considered that an increased sense of distance between oneself and the average woman might be associated with additional stress and lower self-esteem.

The main purpose was to discover possible relationships that might suggest options to be chosen, or pitfalls to be avoided, in order that the highest level of functioning be reached.

The focus was confined to the self-esteem of those women, whose own position is on the "liberal" end of the continuum, from moderately "liberal" to extremely "liberal."

The particular "liberal" position, as used here, refers to "self-orientation," in contrast to "other-orientation," which represents the traditional end of the continuum (Fand, 1955).

The Inventory of Feminine Values (IVF) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) were administered to 120 female subjects between the ages of 25 and 40, who were all married, had children, and were currently employed. Their educational level was beyond a Bachelor degree, but less than a Ph.D. or its equivalent. Subjects were selected from student lists available from the MSU registrar's office, mostly those enrolled in the education department. Other professional women were also included, many of whom were teachers in the public school system in the Lansing and Detroit areas. Six protocols were excluded because of an "other-oriented" self-rating.

The IVF was rated with three different sets: (1) self-rating, (2) estimate of the average woman's rating, and (3) rating according to what the subject considered to be the "healthy, well-integrated" woman's responses (SD ratings). Twenty additional Ss from the same sample pool gave SD ratings only. IVF and a number of discrepancy measures were correlated with TSCS self-esteem measures (Total P and its subscales), adjustment indices (Total C, Net C, N, GM, Psy) and social desirability measures contained in that scale (SC, DP). The relationship between a number of biographical variables (Age, Number of Children, Educational Level, Aspiration Level, Own Income and Family

Income) with TSCS, IVF, and discrepancy measures was also examined by means of correlations and partial correlations.

Predictions were based on self-theory, social judgment and cognitive dissonance theories. Results are summarized as follows:

1. Degree of "self-orientation" (as measured by the IVF) is unrelated to self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS).
2. Assumed ideological distance between women's own and other women's role position is unrelated to degree of self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS).
3. With increasing own "self-orientation," the average woman tends to be viewed as being increasingly "other-oriented."
4. A strong positive relationship exists between self-ratings on woman's role and the position considered to be socially desirable.
5. Self-esteem (as measured by the TSCS) is unrelated to the degree of discrepancy between one's own asserted position on woman's role and the position considered to be socially desirable by other women.
6. Degree of Self-Criticism and Positive Defensiveness (as measured on the TSCS) is unrelated to perceived ideological distance between one's own position on woman's role and that of the average woman.
7. Conflict in self-descriptions (Total C on the TSCS) has a weak positive relationship with degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role and one's view of the average woman's role position.
8. Increasing Denial Conflict (Net C on the TSCS) is associated with increasing degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role and one's view of the average woman's role position.
9. Variability in self-description, Neuroticism and General Maladjustment (as measured by the TCS) are unrelated to degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role, and one's view of the average woman's role position.

10. Psychoticism (as measured by the TSCS) is negatively related to degree of discrepancy between one's view of one's own position on woman's role and one's view of the average woman's role position.

Additional findings showed this sample of "self-oriented," well-educated women to be somewhat above average in over-all self-esteem, especially in degree of Self-Satisfaction. However, their self-concept in respect to Physical Self was exceptionately low. Maladjustment indices, except Psychoticism and Conflict were slightly worse than national norms.

Degree of "self-orientation" was negatively related to Age, but Number of Children accounted for this relationship. Women with more children were less "self-oriented." Women with lower Own Incomes, that is, parttime employed, gave the most favorable responses on the TSCS, whereas Educational Level and academic Aspiration had no relationship.

Mean "self-orientation" ratings were much higher than reported by earlier studies, though ratings of the Average Woman were lower.

Suggestions for future research included exploration of (1) possible broad negative connotations attached to the concept of the "average woman" by some subjects, (2) differences in women's interpretation of the supposedly "active-passive" dimension related to woman's role, (3) the origins and internal dynamics of these differences. The polarity between "other-orientation" as passive and "self-orientation" as active was questioned. The importance of further exploration of different life styles and work patterns was stressed.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PILOT STUDY

PILOT STUDY

Two small pilot studies were conducted in order to pretest several predictions. Comparisons by groups are presented in graphic form and in tables 19-21.

Subjects were chosen from a number of subgroups. Six of these were from a list of women's liberation members in Flint. Five subjects were randomly chosen from the Owen Hall graduate residence. Three subjects are residents in Grand Blanc, a middle to upper-middle class residential suburban environment. Seven others were resident women in Flint, and six were women attending "rap" group sessions connected with the Women's Resource Center at Michigan State University.

Other demographic material is shown in Table 18 on the following page.

Demographic data, as a whole, are quite similar in respect to age, marital status and the presence of children. Considering that the inventories are not reportedly related to age, a three year difference in adult women does not seem very great. Nevertheless, the High Discrepancy (HD) group (high discrepancies between self-ratings and estimates of the average woman) was somewhat younger. It has also achieved somewhat higher educational level, and a larger number of this group are currently students.

TABLE 18.--Demographic Characteristics of Pilot Subjects.

Group	Average Age	Marital Status	Presence of Children	Education	Employment
Low Discrepancy	31	M-----5 S-----2 Div.--1 ?-----1	6	College 2-4 yrs.--7 Graduate student---1 ?-----1	Working-----3 Not working--4 Student-----2
High Discrepancy	28	M-----5 S-----4	5	Graduate student---8 ?-----1	Working-----2 Not working--2 Student-----5

Only Form A and B of the IVF were presented with the TSCS. That is, SD ratings were not obtained. The forms were presented to the subjects in their homes and were completed without the experimenter's supervision.

Results are only tentative but reflect the expected trends. Twelve Ss with "self-orientation" scores ranging between -9 and +20 were compared with eleven Ss whose "self-orientation" scores ranged between +30 and +48. The Total P scores were identical. Thus it appears that degree of "self-orientation" may not be related to self-esteem.

On the other hand, High Discrepancy (HD) Ss as a group had lower Total P scores than Low Discrepancy (LD) Ss. This was true for both subsamples, as well as the total group. In order to determine whether a different trend exists for those women in the middle range, the Ss were divided into three groups of nine each. In this case,

the differences in the self-concept scores were accentuated, while the middle group fell between the extremes. The mean for the LD subjects reached the 81st percentile of population norms, the mean of the HD group was at about the 62nd percentile, and the Medium group at the 65th. Differences were even more accentuated when only the upper five and lower five subjects were compared. It is noteworthy that all three groups remained above the mean for the general population. Conceivably this was related to the types of subjects selected, many of whom were community leaders.

This role inventory scores for all of the Ss fell almost exclusively in the direction of "self-orientation." The women, who rated themselves moderately "self-oriented" (mean = +13.6), rated the average woman as mildly "self-oriented" (mean = +2.1). Those women who considered themselves extremely "self-oriented" (mean = +35.6), considered the average woman as similarly extreme in "other-orientation" (mean = -30.2), whereas those women who were somewhat less extreme in "self-orientation" (mean = +24.3) viewed the average woman as moderately "other-oriented" (mean = -14).

Further examination of subscales of the total self-concept was made for the Discrepancy groups. The LD subjects remained above the 50th percentile on all of the 8 subscores that enter into the Total P scores. HD Ss, on the other hand, fell below average on Behavioral Self and Physical Self, the latter reaching the 28th percentile only. Identity Self for HD Ss was just equal to the general population mean, whereas LD Ss reached the 77th percentile. Both

groups were most similar on aspects related to Self-Satisfaction, Family Self, and Social Self, though the LD group remained somewhat higher.

Examination of other subscales suggests that HD Ss tend to maintain a high degree of Self-Criticism, while LD Ss were somewhat below average on this score.

Differences in Conflict Scores also existed. The HD group's Total conflict score was at about the 62nd percentile, while the LD group was only at the 30th percentile. Net conflict scores showed the HD group to present a denial conflict, while the LD group was close to zero (neither denial nor acquiescence conflict). Denial conflict is referred to as a habit of describing one's characteristics in terms of what one is not, rather than what one is. This difference appeared greatly accentuated in the first pilot study, where the HD group's denial conflict was at the 2nd percentile and the LD group showed some degree of an acquiescent conflict.

In respect to variability and distribution of scores, the patterns between the groups are quite similar, with the HD's showing slightly greater variability, though both groups remain below the norm.

The Empirical Scales show some interesting differences, as each group shows certain strengths and weaknesses. The LD group reached the 80th percentile on the Defensive Position (DP) scale, a more subtle measure of a defensive over-affirmation of self, while the HD group ranged around the 40th percentile.

On the Psychoticism (Psy) Scale, HD Ss are quite low (18th percentile), but the LD Ss are slightly above average. Thus it seems that the HD women in this sample have little in common with psychotic populations. Their General Maladjustment (GM) scores are also slightly better than the LD group's. With the Neuroticism (N) scale, however, this pattern changes. Here the LD group is below average and the HD group reaches the 73rd percentile. Thus HD Ss seem less defensive, less "maladjusted" (as the term is used by Fitts, cf. p. 30), are better protected against psychosis, but have considerably greater neurotic tendencies. Among the maladjustment scores, this (N) is the only one, where a mean of either group reached above the 55th percentile of the normative population. The LD group is slightly superior on personality integration indices, but both groups are near average. The same general patterns emerged on both subsamples of this pilot study.

So far, only the two extreme groups have been described on the subscales, without reference to the middle group. On the subscales of the self-concept scores the middle group remained generally between the two extremes, hovering closer to the HD group. The middle group was the least variable of the three, and the distribution pattern showed less use of the extremes of agree or disagree responses. The Empirical scores showed no particularly outstanding pattern, but hovered around the midpoint.

Figure 2.--Pilot Study TSCS Means for High and Low "Self-Orientation" Subjects.

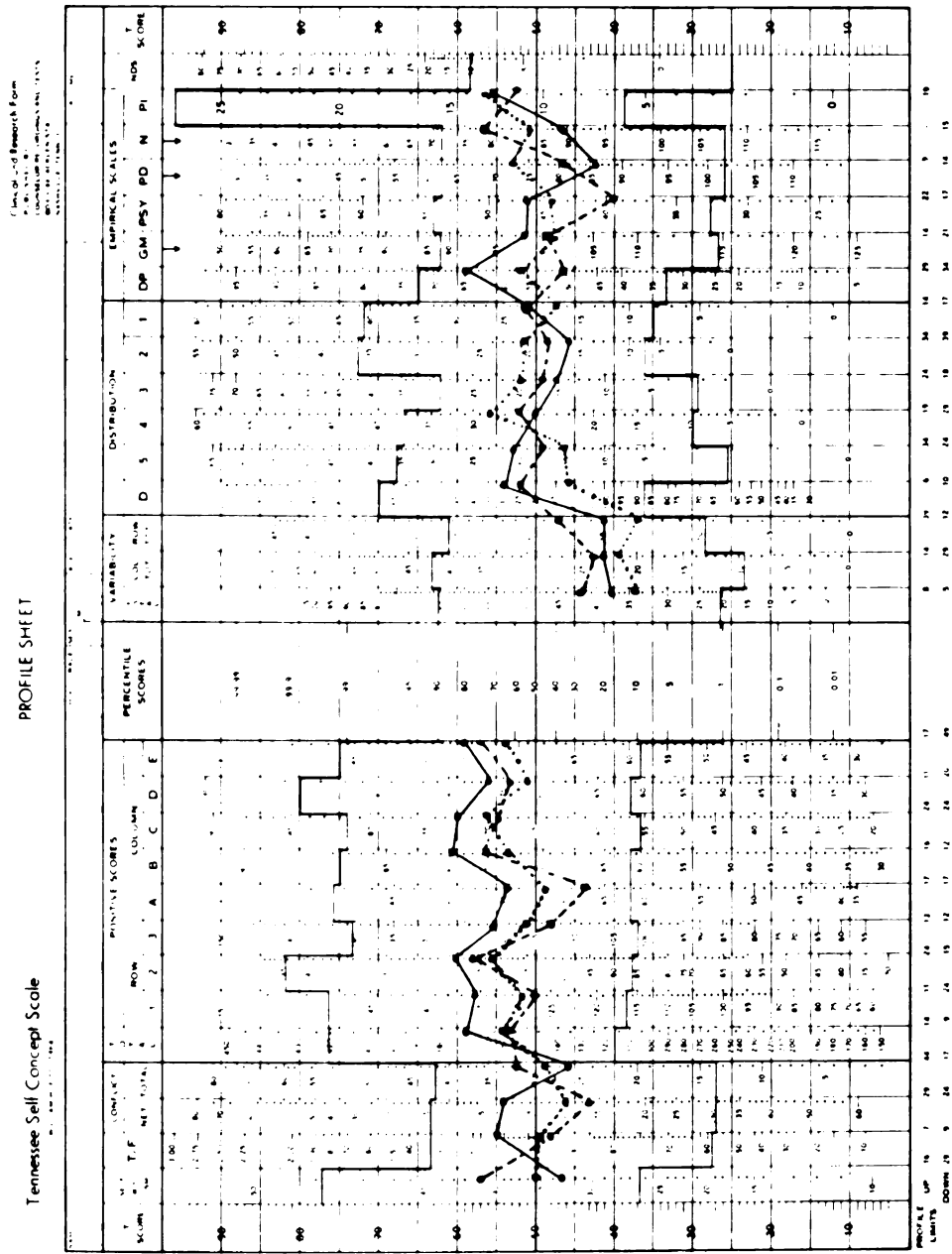


Figure 3.--Pilot Study TSCS Means for HD, MD, and LD Subjects.

TABLE 19.--Pilot Study TSCS Means for Women with Low "Self-Orienta-
tion" and High "Self-Orientation".

TSCS	Low Self-Orientation (N = 12)	High Self-Orientation (N = 11)
Self-Criticism	35	38.8
Conflict		
Net	- 6.9	- 9.1
Total	27.5	29.1
Total P	363	362
Row		
1. Identity	131.8	128.3
2. Self-Acceptance	113	118
3. Behavioral	117.8	116.3
Column		
A Physical	72.3	69.2
B Moral	76.9	75.2
C Personal	69.5	72
D Family	73.2	74.2
E Social	72.8	74.2

TABLE 20.--Pilot Study TSCS Means for Groups with Different Degrees of Discrepancies Between IVF Self-Ratings and IVF Estimates of Average Women's Role Positions: Low Discrepancy (LD), High Discrepancy (HD), and Medium Discrepancy (MD) Groups.

TSCS Scales	LD (N = 9)	HD (N = 9)	MD (N = 9)
Self-Criticism	33.6	41.1	35.8
Conflict			
Net	- 0.8	- 13.9	- 10.3
Total	26.2	32.3	27.9
Total P	375.9	356.4	358.6
Row			
1. Identity	136.1	127	128.9
2. Self-Satisfaction	118.6	116.6	113.4
3. Behavioral	121.2	112.9	116.2
Column			
A Physical	74.6	67.2	71.0
B Moral-Ethical	79.6	76.2	73.8
C Personal	72.0	68.8	70.3
D Family	75.9	74.0	71.9
E Social	74.8	73.6	71.
Variability			
Total	38.4	42.1	34.7
Column Total	23.3	23.8	21.6
Row Total	15.0	18.3	13
Distribution			
D	130.1	124.0	112.7
5	20.4	17.8	16.1
4	24.8	25.6	28.1
3	15.4	17.2	19.4
2	16.4	18.1	20.8
1	21.8	21.4	18.0
Defensive Positive	65.2	50.7	57.7
General Maladjustment*	97.7	100	99.7
Psychoticism	47	39.3	44.9
Neuroticism*	89.1	79.7	84
Personality Integration	12.1	11.7	12.4

*These are inverted scales, and need to be interpreted accordingly.

TABLE 21.--Pilot Study IVF Means for "Self-Orientation," Estimates of the Average Woman's Orientation, and Discrepancy Scores for LD, HD, and MD groups.

Discrepancy Groups	Self-Orientation	Estimates of the Average Woman's Orientation	Discrepancy Scores
Low Discrepancy (LD)	+13.6	+ 2.1	11.5
High Discrepancy (HD)	+35.6	-30.2	65.4
Medium Discrepancy (MD)	+24.3	-14	38.3

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

700 South Foster Avenue
Lansing, Michigan 48912
Phone: 489-7104

Dear Participant in this research study,

I am a student at Michigan State University and am working on my dissertation for my Ph.D in psychology. I am interested in the area of women's role and would like your help to clarify some aspects related to how women feel about themselves.

I cannot explain fully at this time, but will be glad to send you a summary of results later. If you wish to hear from me, please leave your name and address on a separate sheet of paper.

Your answer sheets have code numbers and the personal information, as well as your answers, will be confidential.

Your help is greatly appreciated.

If you wish to contact me at any time, feel free to do so.

Sincerely yours,

Heidi C. Buss

Heidi C. Buss

APPENDIX C

MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

INVENTORY OF FEMININE VALUES (IVF)

Psychometric Data

The IVF has been quite widely used for research purposes in the past fifteen years. Fand (1955) originally used a college sample. Ann Steinman (1963) later expanded its use, and it has since been copyrighted by Maferri Foundation (Male-Female Family Role Research Foundation).

Several forms are available for research and have been used to identify role-concepts in reference to the respondents' position for their "Own Self," "Ideal Woman," and "Man's Ideal Woman." The content of each form is identical, except items are scrambled in different orders.

Split-half reliability of the IVF, using the Spearman-Brown correction is .81. The items were presented to seven judges for categorization as passive or active items and only those were used where total agreement existed.

Some normative data exists, though the samples were not selected by random methods, but were used because of availability. Fifteen American samples totaling 1094 women represent undergraduates from public and private colleges, physicians, lawyers, artists, musicians, nurses, businesswomen, house wives and negro professional women. Non-college samples all had high school education. The age ranges were from late teens to the seventies, a majority being under

40. Thus the norms represent a reasonable cross-section of the better educated population in the United States, though younger groups have the largest representation.

The Inventory manual reports self-perceptions to be normally distributed in the population, with a slight tendency toward self-orientation (Steinman, 1966).

FR - FORM A

Please read the instructions at the top of each page carefully. You are asked to indicate your opinion on each item by writing a number from 1 to 5 in the space to the left of the item, using the following scale:

STRONGLY AGREE = 1 AGREE = 2 NO OPINION = 3 DISAGREE = 4 STRONGLY DISAGREE = 5

PLEASE RESPOND TO THESE STATEMENTS WITH YOUR TRUE OPINION
KEEP IN MIND THE WAY YOU REALLY ARE.

- ___ 1. An ambitious and responsible husband does not like his wife to work.
- ___ 2. I usually pay no attention to other people's feelings.
- ___ 3. A woman who works cannot possibly be as good a mother as the one who stays home.
- ___ 4. I would like to do something that everybody knows is important.
- ___ 5. I try to do what I think people want me to do.
- ___ 6. A woman has a conflict in what she has to do as a woman and what she wishes to do for herself.
- ___ 7. A woman should get married even if the man does not measure up to all her hopes.
- ___ 8. I sometimes feel that I must do everything myself, that I can accept nothing from others.
- ___ 9. The needs of a family come before a woman's personal ambitions.
- ___ 10. I am not sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices.
- ___ 11. I like listening to people better than talking.
- ___ 12. I argue with people who try to give me orders.
- ___ 13. Marriage and children should come first in a woman's life.
- ___ 14. When I am with a group of people, I usually become the leader.
- ___ 15. I worry about what people think of me.
- ___ 16. I express my ideas strongly.
- ___ 17. Single women need personal success, but all a married woman needs is her husband's success.
- ___ 18. I would not get married if I had to give up what I really believe in order to get along with another person.
- ___ 19. It is up to the woman to make a marriage work.
- ___ 20. A working mother can get along as well with her children as can a mother who stays at home.
- ___ 21. The greatest help a wife can give her husband is to encourage his progress.
- ___ 22. It is unfair that women have to give up more than men in order to have a good marriage.
- ___ 23. I can put myself in the background and work hard for a person I admire.
- ___ 24. A wife's opinion should be as important as the husband's opinion.
- ___ 25. My main interest is to raise normal, well-behaved children.
- ___ 26. How I develop as a person is more important to me than what others think of me.

- ___ 27. If we disagree, I would give in to my husband more often than I would expect him to give in to me.
- ___ 28. The greatest satisfactions in life come from what you do yourself.
- ___ 29. I would like to marry a man to whom I could really look up.
- ___ 30. A woman should have interests outside the home.
- ___ 31. I am sure that what a woman gains from marriage makes up for sacrifices.
- ___ 32. Modern mothers should bring up their boys and girls to believe in absolute equal rights and freedoms for both sexes.
- ___ 33. A woman's place is in the home.
- ___ 34. I would rather be famous, admired and popular throughout the nation than have the constant affection of just one man.

FR - FORM B

Please read the instructions at the top of each page carefully. You are asked to indicate your opinion on each item by writing a number from 1 to 5 in the space to the left of the item, using the following scale:

STRONGLY AGREE = 1 AGREE = 2 NO OPINION = 3 DISAGREE = 4 STRONGLY
DISAGREE = 5

THINK OF THE AVERAGE WOMAN AND RESPOND TO EACH STATEMENT OF
THIS FORM AS YOU BELIEVE SHE WOULD.

- ___ 35. I worry about what people think of me.
- ___ 36. A wife's opinion should be as important as the husband's opinion.
- ___ 37. A woman's place is in the home.
- ___ 38. I am not sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices.
- ___ 39. The greatest help a wife can give her husband is to encourage his progress.
- ___ 40. A woman should have interests outside the home.
- ___ 41. My main interest is to raise normal, well-behaved children.
- ___ 42. I argue with people who try to give me orders.
- ___ 43. Single women need personal success, but all a married woman needs is her husband's success.
- ___ 44. It is unfair that women have to give up more than men in order to have a good marriage.
- ___ 45. I can put myself in the background and work hard for a person I admire.
- ___ 46. I would like to do something that everybody knows is important.
- ___ 47. It is up to the woman to make a marriage work.
- ___ 48. A woman has a conflict in what she has to do as a woman and what she wishes to do for herself.
- ___ 49. I try to do what I think people want me to do.
- ___ 50. I sometimes feel that I must do everything myself, that I can accept nothing from others.
- ___ 51. A woman should get married even if the man does not measure up to all her hopes.
- ___ 52. I express my ideas strongly.
- ___ 53. The needs of a family come before a woman's personal ambitions.
- ___ 54. When I am with a group of people, I usually become the leader.
- ___ 55. I like listening to people better than talking.
- ___ 56. Modern mothers should bring up their boys and girls to believe in absolute equal rights and freedoms for both sexes.
- ___ 57. If we disagree, I would give in to my husband more often than I would expect him to give in to me.
- ___ 58. The greatest satisfactions in life come from what you do yourself.
- ___ 59. Marriage and children should come first in a woman's life.

- ☐ 60. I usually pay no attention to other people's feelings.
- ☐ 61. I would like to marry a man to whom I could really look up.
- ☐ 62. A working mother can get along as well with her children as can a mother who stays at home.
- ☐ 63. I am sure that what a woman gains from a marriage makes up for sacrifices.
- ☐ 64. I would rather be famous, admired and popular throughout the nation than have the constant affection of just one man.
- ☐ 65. A woman who works cannot possibly be as good a mother as the one who stays home.
- ☐ 66. How I develop as a person is more important to me than what others think of me.
- ☐ 67. An ambitious and responsible husband does not want his wife to work.
- ☐ 68. I would not get married if I had to give up what I really believe in order to get along with another person.

Did you have a specific woman in mind when you answered this?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If so, how related to you? _____

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FORM C

Please read the instructions at the top of each page carefully. You are asked to indicate your opinion on each item by writing a number from 1 to 5 in the space to the left of the item, using the following scale:

STRONGLY AGREE = 1 AGREE = 2 NO OPINION = 3 DISAGREE = 4 STRONGLY
DISAGREE = 5

RESPOND TO EACH STATEMENT ON THIS FORM AS YOU THINK A HEALTHY, WELL-INTEGRATED WOMAN WOULD.

- ___ 69. I express my ideas strongly.
- ___ 70. I try to do what I think people want me to do.
- ___ 71. I sometimes feel that I must do everything myself, that I can accept nothing from others.
- ___ 72. I can put myself in the background and work hard for a person I admire.
- ___ 73. The greatest satisfaction in life come from what you do yourself.
- ___ 74. Single women need personal success, but all a married woman needs is her husband's success.
- ___ 75. It is unfair that women have to give up more than men in order to have a good marriage.
- ___ 76. The greatest help a wife can give her husband is to encourage his progress.
- ___ 77. How I develop as a person is more important to me than what others think of me.
- ___ 78. My main interest is to raise normal, well-behaved children.
- ___ 79. I am not sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices.
- ___ 80. If we disagree, I would give in to my husband more often than I would expect him to give in to me.
- ___ 81. A woman should have interests outside the home.
- ___ 82. A woman who works cannot possibly be as good a mother as the one who stays home.
- ___ 83. When I am with a group of people, I usually become the leader.
- ___ 84. I would like to marry a man to whom I could really look up.
- ___ 85. Modern mothers should bring up their boys and girls to believe in absolute equal rights and freedom for both sexes.
- ___ 86. A woman's place is in the home.
- ___ 87. A working mother can get along as well with her children as can a mother who stays at home.
- ___ 88. It is up to the woman to make a marriage work.
- ___ 89. I would rather be famous, admired and popular throughout the nation than have the constant affection of just one man.
- ___ 90. An ambitious husband does not like his wife to work.
- ___ 91. I usually pay no attention to other people's feelings.

- ___ 92. I am sure that what a woman gains from a marriage makes up for sacrifices.
- ___ 93. I argue with people who try to give me orders.
- ___ 94. The needs of a family come before a woman's personal ambition.
- ___ 95. I would not get married if I had to give up what I really believe in order to get along with another person.
- ___ 96. I like listening to people better than talking.
- ___ 97. I would like to do something everybody knows is important.
- ___ 98. A woman should get married even if the man does not measure up to all her hopes.
- ___ 99. A woman has a conflict in what she has to do as a woman and what she wishes to do for herself.
- ___ 100. Marriage and children should come first in a woman's life.
- ___ 101. A wife's opinion should be as important as the husband's opinion.
- ___ 102. I worry about what people think of me.

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TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Psychometric Data

The normative sample consisted of 626 subjects, aged 12 to 68, including an approximately equal number of both sexes, both Negro and white subjects, and representatives of all social, economic, intelligence, and educational levels from sixth grade to Ph.D. degree. New norms have not been published, since samples from other populations do not differ significantly.

Most demographic variables have not been found to have major effects. However, the elderly and those under 20 have been found to differ from the norms.

Reliability coefficients fall mainly in the .80 to .90 range, though some are as low as .67.

Intercorrelations between the major dimensions utilized are relatively low. On the other hand, the various Positive Scores show sizeable correlations with each other as well as the Empirical Scales in the expected direction.

Validity has been demonstrated by the measure's ability to discriminate between groups, not only Personality Integration groups, but between patient groups, their types and severities. Different profile patterns have also been found to occur for different behavioral groups, such as juvenile offenders, unwed mothers, successful paratrooper trainees, alcoholics, etc. The nature of the TSCS correlations with other measures, such as the MMPI, are in the expected direction. Finally, personality changes under extended stress conditions

and psychotherapy have been traced by this measure, whereas more temporary conditions, such as tranquillizing drugs had had no such effects.

INSTRUCTIONS: On the separate answer sheet, fill in your name, sex, age, grade and today's date. Then code the appropriate letter or number according to the sample below. Be sure your marks are heavy and completely fill the spaces.

SAMPLE:

SEX	
Male	●
Female	○

The statements in this inventory 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. Erase completely any answer you wish to change and mark your new answer.

RESPONSES	Completely false	Mostly false	Partly false and Partly true	Mostly true	Completely true
	C	M		M	C
	F	F	PF - PT	T	T
	1	2	3	4	5

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked Time Started and record the time. When you have finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked Time Finished. Erase any stray marks on your answer sheet.

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE

1. I have a healthy body 1
2. I am an attractive person 2
3. I consider myself a sloppy person 3
4. I am a decent sort of person 4
5. I am an honest person 5
6. I am a bad person 6
7. I am a cheerful person 7
8. I am a calm and easy going person 8
9. I am a nobody 9
10. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble 10
11. I am a member of a happy family 11
12. My friends have no confidence in me 12
13. I am a friendly person 13
14. I am popular with men 14
15. I am not interested in what other people do 15
16. I do not always tell the truth 16
17. I get angry sometimes 17
18. I like to look nice and neat all the time 18
19. I am full of aches and pains 19
20. I am a sick person 20
21. I am a religious person 21
22. I am a moral failure 22
23. I am a morally weak person 23
24. I have a lot of self-control 24
25. I am a hateful person 25
26. I am losing my mind 26
27. I am an important person to my friends and family 27
28. I am not loved by my family 28
29. I feel that my family doesn't trust me 29
30. I am popular with women 30
31. I am mad at the whole world 31
32. I am hard to be friendly with 32
33. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about 33
34. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross 34
35. I am neither too fat nor too thin 35
36. I like my looks just the way they are 36
37. I would like to change some parts of my body 37
38. I am satisfied with my moral behavior 38
39. I am satisfied with my relationship to God 39
40. I ought to go to church more 40

41. I am satisfied to be just what I am.....	41
42. I am just as nice as I should be.....	42
43. I despise myself.....	43
44. I am satisfied with my family relationships.....	44
45. I understand my family as well as I should.....	45
46. I should trust my family more.....	46
47. I am as sociable as I want to be.....	47
48. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it.....	48
49. I am no good at all from a social standpoint.....	49
50. I do not like everyone I know.....	50
51. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke.....	51
52. I am neither too tall nor too short.....	52
53. I don't feel as well as I should.....	53
54. I should have more sex appeal.....	54
55. I am as religious as I want to be.....	55
56. I wish I could be more trustworthy.....	56
57. I shouldn't tell so many lies.....	57
58. I am as smart as I want to be.....	58
59. I am not the person I would like to be.....	59
60. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do.....	60
61. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living).....	61
62. I am too sensitive to things my family say.....	62
63. I should love my family more.....	63
64. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people.....	64
65. I should be more polite to others.....	65
66. I ought to get along better with other people.....	66
67. I gossip a little at times.....	67
68. At times I feel like swearing.....	68
69. I take good care of myself physically.....	69
70. I try to be careful about my appearance.....	70
71. I often act like I am "all thumbs".....	71
72. I am true to my religion in my everyday life.....	72
73. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong.....	73
74. I sometimes do very bad things.....	74
75. I can always take care of myself in any situation.....	75
76. I take the blame for things without getting mad.....	76
77. I do things without thinking about them first.....	77
78. I try to play fair with my friends and family.....	78
79. I take a real interest in my family.....	79
80. I give in to my parents (Use past tense if parents are not living).....	80
81. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view.....	81
82. I get along well with other people.....	82
83. I do not forgive others easily.....	83
84. I would rather win than lose in a game.....	84
85. I feel good most of the time.....	85
86. I do poorly in sports and games.....	86
87. I am a poor sleeper.....	87
88. I do what is right most of the time.....	88
89. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead.....	89
90. I have trouble doing the things that are right.....	90
91. I solve my problems quite easily.....	91
92. I change my mind a lot.....	92
93. I try to run away from my problems.....	93
94. I do my share of work at home.....	94
95. I quarrel with my family.....	95
96. I do not act like my family thinks I should.....	96
97. I see good points in all the people I meet.....	97
98. I do not feel at ease with other people.....	98
99. I find it hard to talk with strangers.....	99
100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.....	100

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Code Number

Age:

Marital Status: Single, Married, Separated, Divorced, Other

Children: Yes, No, How many?

Working? Yes, No

What kind of work?

Education: High School, College 1, 2, 3, 4 yrs. More than college,
1, 2, 3, 4 yrs.

What plans do you have for future education?

Income Level: (Your own)

Up to \$5,000, \$5,000-10,000, \$10,000-20,000, \$20,000 up

Family Income Level: (Combined Income)

Up to \$5,000, \$5,000-10,000, \$10,000-20,000, \$20,000 up.

APPENDIX D

RESULTS FROM DIFFERENT
BIOGRAPHICAL GROUPS

TABLE 22.--IVF, Discrepancy₁, and Total P Scores for Women with Different Biographical Characteristics.

Groups	Self-Orienta- tion	Number of Other- Oriented Protocols	Average Woman	SD	Discrep- ancy ₁	Total P
<u>Working</u>						
no children N = 20	+14.4	3	-14.9	+20.8	29.3	351.2
<u>Not Working</u> N = 18	+14.2	3	-13.1	+20.2	27.3	364.0
<u>1-2 Yrs. of College</u>	+16.3		-11.3		27.5	
<u>Over 40</u> Range 41-55						
Working N = 19	+ 9.11	3	- 3.3	+15.3	12.4	
Not Working N = 2	+23.5		- 5	+34.5	28.5	
3 Yrs. College N = 1	+18		-29	+27	47	
Divorced N = 2	+27		-26	+10.5	53	
Total Over 40	+12.2		- 6.37	+16.96	18.5	364.9
<u>Single</u> N = 2	+14.5	1	-10	+16	24.5	349
<u>Divorced</u> N = 5	+29.4		-24.4	+29.2	53.8	384 (DP 80th per- centile)
<u>Age 21,24</u> N = 2	+ 6		-20.5	+17	26.5	
Age 25-40 Married Children working Bachelor + N = 126	+17.40	6	-10.38	+21.15	27.78	357.82

TABLE 23.--IVF and Discrepancy₁ Scores Obtained from Volunteers at a Shopping Center in Flint, Michigan (Arranged by Biographical Characteristics).

Biographical Characteristics	Self-Orientation	Average Woman
17-18 N = 7	+17.0	-20.6
19-24 N = 13	+10.8	-12.62
25-29 N = 9	+20.2	- 9.25
30-40 N = 10	+18.2	-10.9
40-50 N = 2	+ 9	-21
50 and Over N = 4	+ 8.25	-21.5
Working N = 27	+15.9	-13.4
Not Working N = 13	+15.0	-10.08
Married N = 14	+20.3	-14.5
Single N = 15	+14.6	-16.7
Bachelor Degree N = 10	+20.5	- 7.5
1-2 Years College N = 8	+13.67	-14.8
High School N = 6	+12.9	-11.3

APPENDIX E

ADDITIONAL RESULTS RELATED TO THE
TSCS AND THE IVF

TABLE 24.--TSCS Means for High, Medium, and Low Discrepancy Groups,
As Well As Total Sample₁.

TSCS Scales	LD	MD	HD	Sample ₁ Total
SC	37.88	36.87	37.57	37.44
T/F	1.10	1.06	1.01	1.05
Net C	-1.15	-2.87	-7.45	-4.22
Total C	27.52	28.45	29.05	28.34
Total P	355.27	355.90	362.30	357.82
Row 1 (Identity)	125.02	124.52	126.27	125.27
Row 2 (Self-Satisfaction)	115.05	114.42	117.72	115.73
Row 3 (Behavioral Self)	115.20	116.95	118.30	116.82
Col A (Physical Self)	68.25	66.42	69.10	67.92
Col B (Moral-Ethical Self)	74.15	74.97	75.85	74.99
Col C (Personal Self)	68.07	68.40	69.57	68.68
Col D (Family Self)	73.32	74.25	74.22	73.93
Col E (Social Self)	71.47	71.85	73.55	72.29
Total V	39.82	41.60	39.32	40.25
Col Total V	22.30	22.32	22.37	22.33
Row Total V	17.52	19.27	16.95	17.92
Dist. D	114.30	114.92	120.72	116.65
Dist. 5	16.12	16.57	17.80	16.83
Dist. 4	28.07	25.70	25.02	26.27
Dist. 3	19.12	20.55	18.82	19.50
Dist. 2	19.37	18.27	16.60	18.08
Dist. 1	17.30	18.90	21.75	19.32
DP	56.72	55.95	54.8	56.05
GM (Inverted scale)	97.92	97.85	100.05	98.61
Psy	47.80	46.77	45.57	46.68
PD (Inverted scale)	79.10	79.70	80.40	79.73
N (Inverted scale)	82.60	82.25	84.17	83.01
PI	12.97	12.02	11.87	12.29

TABLE 25.--Correlational Matrix Between TSCS Subscales Contributing to Total P, vs. Biographical Variables, IVF, and Discrepancy Measures.

Correlated Variables	Row 1	Row 2	Row 3	Col. A	Col. B	Col. C	Col. D	Col. E
	Identity	Self-Satisfaction	Behavioral Self	Physical Self	Moral-Ethical Self	Personal Self	Family Self	Social Self
Age	.032	.054	.074	-.042	.106	.057	.070	.067
Number of Children	-.059	.076	.107	-.025	.076	.109	.050	.026
Education	-.138	-.147	-.101	-.007	-.325**	-.129	-.176* ^a	.010
Aspiration Level	-.039	-.090	-.022	-.049	-.178*	-.028	-.097	.081
Own Income	-.134	-.178*	-.140	-.179*	-.244**	-.061	-.157	-.093
Family Income	.100	.000	.075	-.004	-.038	.087	.101	.084
Self-Orientation	.056	.132	.086	.096	.087	.111	.036	.122
Average Woman Rating	-.027	-.115	.080	.001	-.127	-.013	-.110	-.130
SD Rating	-.005	.117	-.014	.026	.026	.028	.057	.057
Discrepancy ₁	.020	.081	.057	.004	.125	.012	.011	.119
Discrepancy ₂	-.055	-.020	-.076	-.042	-.120	-.061	-.007	.002
Discrepancy ₃	-.014	.084	.001	-.021	.078	-.014	.029	.075
Discrepancy ₄	-.168	.162	.062	.065	.032	.027	-.046	.115

*p < .05

*ap = .06

**p < .01

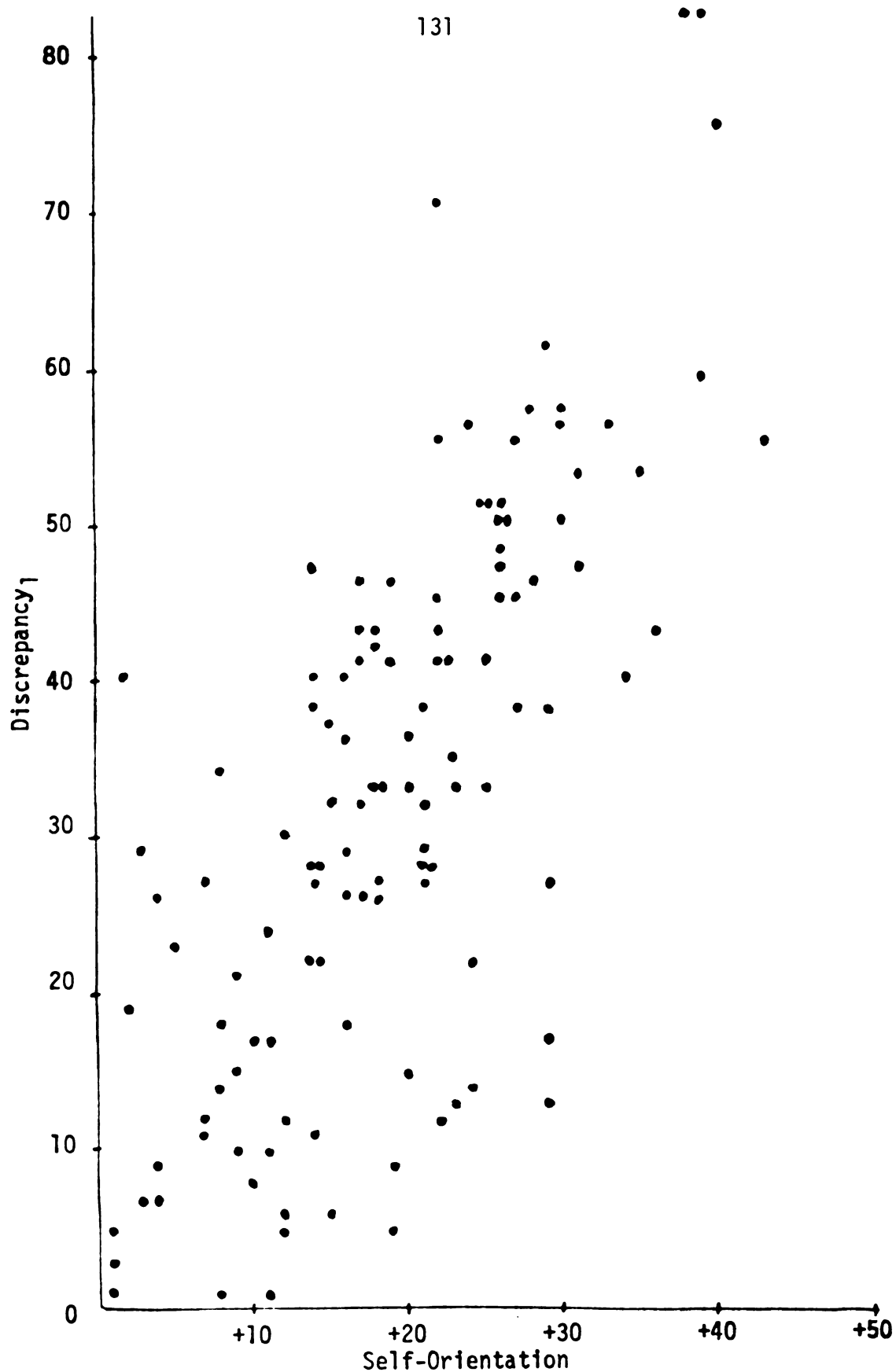


Figure 4.--Scatter Diagram Showing the Relation Between Discrepancy₁ Scores and Self-Ratings by Subjects from Sample₁.

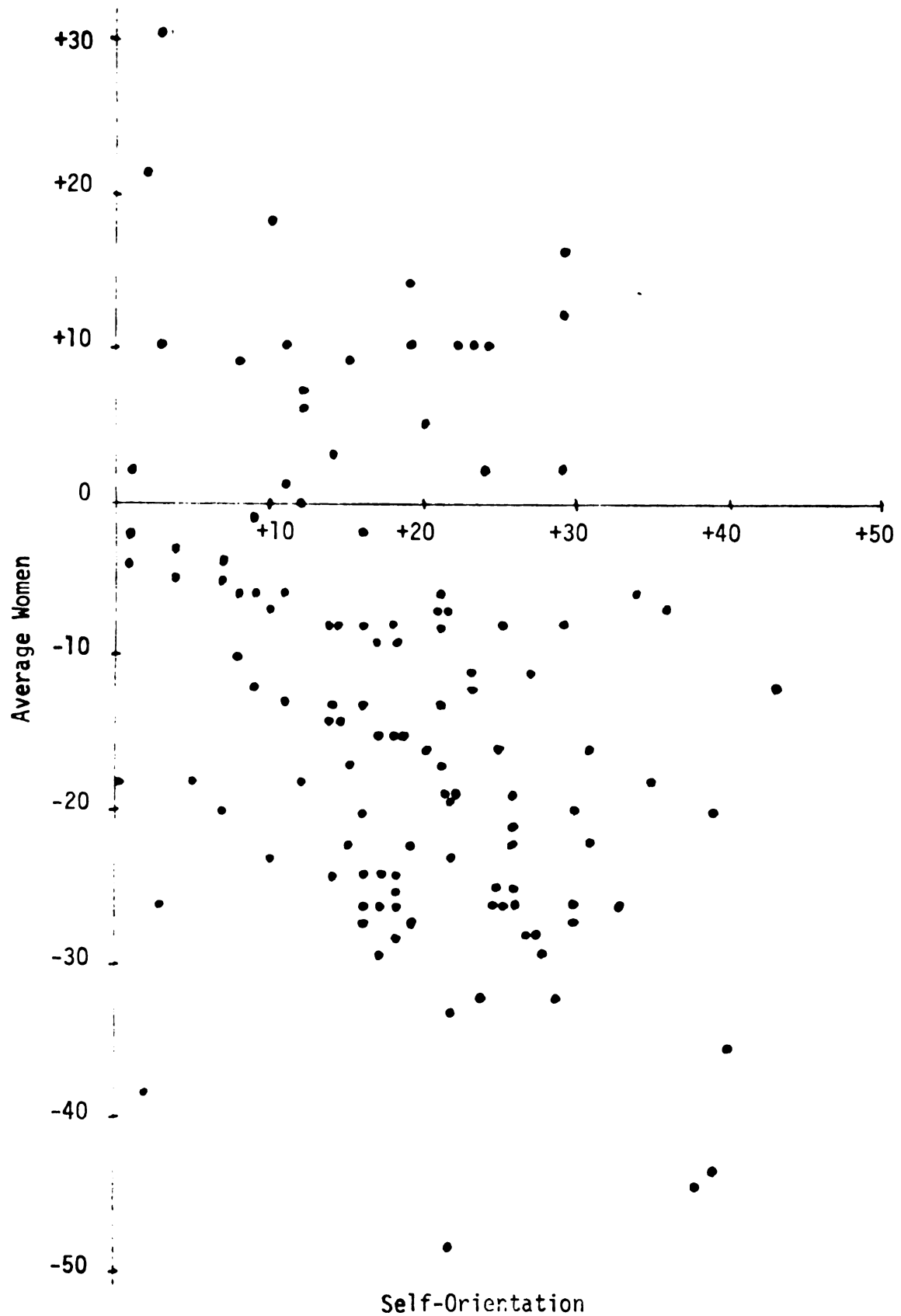


Figure 5.--Scatter Diagram Showing the Relation Between Estimates of the Average Woman and Self-Ratings by Subjects in Sample₁.

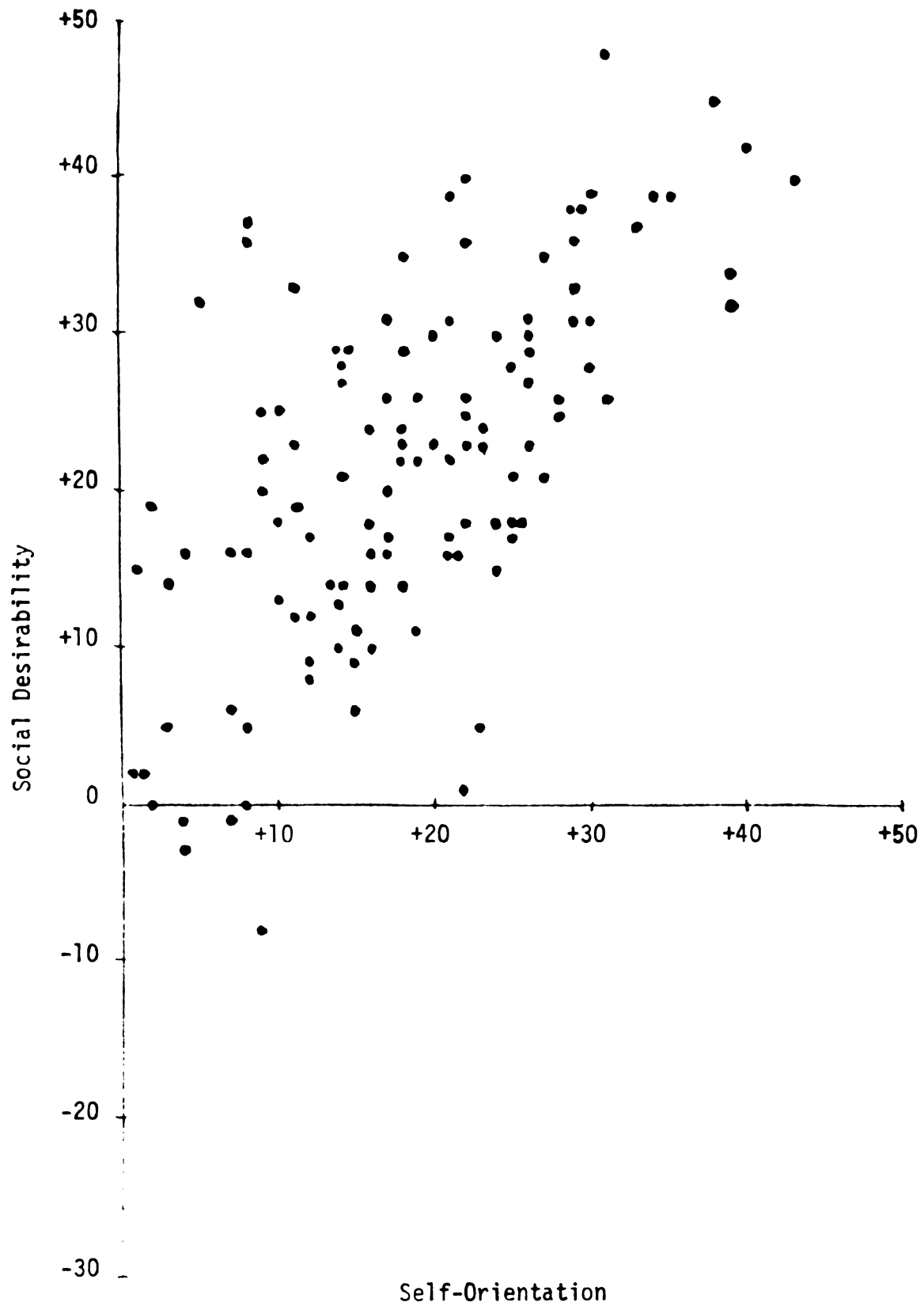


Figure 6.--Scatter Diagram Showing the Relation Between Own SD Ratings and Self-Ratings by Subjects in Sample₁.

TABLE 26.---IVF Item Means (1 = Agree, 5 = Disagree), and Percentages of Agree and Disagree Responses for HD, LD, and MD Groups, As Well As Sample1 (Total), Sample2 (SD Only), and Sample3 ("Other-Oriented" Women, N = 16, IVF Mean = -6.75).

Groups	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
1. An ambitious and responsible husband does not like his wife to work.									
Sample1	4.3	7.5	90.8	2.9	61.7	29.2	4.1	6.7	81.7
HD	4.2	10.0	87.0	1.9	90.0	7.5	4.3	7.5	87.5
LD	4.4	7.5	92.5	3.2	30.0	57.5	4.2	7.5	82.5
MD	4.4	5.5	92.5	2.5	65.0	22.5	4.0	5.0	77.5
Sample2							3.7	10.0	80.5
Sample3	3.9	12.5	87.5						
2. I usually pay no attention to other people's feelings.									
Sample1	4.5	4.0	90.8	2.9	4.0	89.2	4.1	5.0	83.3
HD	4.6	5.0	95.0	4.1	2.5	95.0	4.1	10.0	65.0
LD	4.5	2.5	95.0	3.9	7.5	82.5	4.2	2.5	90.0
MD	4.5	5.0	82.5	2.4	2.5	90.0	4.3	2.5	95.0
Sample2							3.7	5.0	90.0
Sample3	4.3	6.2	93.7						
3. A woman who works cannot possibly be as good a mother as the one who stays home.									
Sample1	4.6	2.5	97.5	2.5	64.2	26.7	4.5	1.7	95.8
HD	4.7	2.5	97.5	1.9	92.5	7.5	4.7	0	97.5
LD	4.6	0	100.0	3.2	32.5	52.5	4.5	0	100.0
MD	4.5	5.0	95.0	2.4	67.5	20.0	4.3	5.0	90.0
Sample2							3.7	5.0	95.0
Sample3	3.5	18.7	68.7						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Groups	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
4. I would like to do something that everybody knows is important.									
Sample1	2.3	64.2	15.8	2.6	58.3	22.5	2.3	67.5	10.8
HD	2.2	62.5	12.5	2.8	45.0	30.0	2.3	67.5	15.0
LD	2.5	60.0	22.5	2.4	70.0	10.0	2.3	70.0	12.5
MD	2.2	70.0	12.5	2.6	60.0	27.5	2.3	65.0	5.0
Sample2							2.9	45.0	40.0
Sample3	2.8	50.0	43.8						
5. I try to do what I think people want me to do.									
Sample1	3.1	41.7	35.0	2.2	79.2	11.7	3.2	31.7	55.8
HD	3.2	35.0	50.0	2.0	92.5	2.5	3.8	10.0	77.5
LD	3.1	42.5	47.5	2.6	60.0	22.5	3.0	40.0	45.0
MD	2.9	47.5	37.5	2.2	85.0	10.0	2.8	45.0	45.0
Sample2							3.3	30.0	50.0
Sample3	2.4	75.0	18.7						
6. A woman has a conflict in what she has to do as a woman and what she wishes to do for herself.									
Sample1	2.7	57.5	35.0	2.4	56.7	17.5	3.0	50.0	45.0
HD	2.3	75.0	20.0	2.3	80.0	17.5	3.1	50.0	47.5
LD	3.3	32.5	52.5	2.6	67.5	12.5	3.1	45.0	52.5
MD	2.6	65.0	32.5	2.5	70.0	22.5	2.8	55.0	35.0
Sample2							2.6	60.0	30.0
Sample3	3.2	31.2	50.0						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating				Average Woman				SD Rating			
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
7. A woman should get married even if the man does not measure up to all her hopes.												
Sample1	4.5	3.3	91.7	2.9	53.3	38.3	4.3	5.0	88.3			
HD	4.6	0	95.0	2.2	80.0	17.5	4.4	0	90.0			
LD	4.3	7.5	85.0	3.5	30.0	62.5	4.1	12.5	82.5			
MD	4.7	2.5	95.0	2.9	50.0	35.0	4.4	2.5	92.5			
Sample2							4.4	2.5	92.5			
Sample3	3.37	3.12	68.7				4.4	2.5	92.5			
8. I sometimes feel that I must do everything myself, that I can accept nothing from others.												
Sample1	3.5	27.5	69.2	3.3	27.5	49.2	3.7	13.3	76.7			
HD	3.2	35.0	62.0	3.3	27.5	57.5	3.6	20.0	72.5			
LD	3.6	25.0	72.5	3.4	27.5	47.5	3.8	7.5	80.0			
MD	3.7	22.5	72.5	3.2	27.5	42.5	3.8	12.5	77.5			
Sample2							3.4	35.0	60.0			
Sample3	4.1	12.5	93.75									
9. The needs of a family come before a woman's personal ambitions.												
Sample1	2.8	51.7	35.8	2.0	87.5	10.0	3.1	36.7	48.3			
HD	3.2	30.0	52.0	1.7	97.5	2.5	3.6	10.0	67.5			
LD	2.4	70.0	22.5	2.5	72.5	20.0	2.8	50.0	37.5			
MD	2.7	55.0	32.5	1.9	92.5	7.5	2.9	50.0	40.0			
Sample2							2.8	45.0	25.0			
Sample3	1.7	100.0	0									

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
10. I am not sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices.									
Sample ₁	3.2	33.3	51.7	3.5	23.3	64.2	2.8	51.7	30.8
HD	2.7	45.0	40.0	3.7	12.5	77.5	2.4	65.0	17.5
LD	3.9	15.0	72.5	3.4	25.0	57.5	3.3	32.5	55.0
MD	3.2	40.0	42.5	3.3	32.5	57.5	2.6	57.5	20.0
Sample ₂							3.5	25.0	65.0
Sample ₃	4.0	6.2	87.5						
11. I like to listen to people better than talking.									
Sample ₁	3.0	37.5	40.0	3.0	40.8	35.0	3.0	29.2	36.7
HD	3.1	25.0	45.0	2.6	52.5	22.5	3.2	20.0	35.0
LD	2.9	47.5	40.0	3.2	22.5	50.0	3.0	40.0	40.0
MD	2.9	40.0	35.0	3.0	47.5	32.5	2.9	27.5	35.0
Sample ₂							3.2	20.0	40.0
Sample ₃	2.5	68.7	31.2						
12. I argue with people who try to give me orders.									
Sample ₁	2.8	46.6	39.2	3.2	28.3	51.7	2.6	52.5	25.8
HD	2.5	40.0	27.0	3.5	20.0	70.0	2.5	60.0	17.5
LD	2.9	40.0	40.0	2.9	40.0	35.0	2.8	42.5	37.5
MD	2.9	35.0	50.0	3.0	25.0	50.0	2.6	55.0	22.5
Sample ₂							2.8	40.0	25.0
Sample ₃	3.7	12.5	75.0						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
13. Marriage and children should come first in a woman's life.									
Sample ₁	3.9	9.2	80.0	2.3	76.7	17.5	3.9	10.0	80.0
HD	4.4	0	97.0	1.9	95.0	5.0	4.3	2.5	90.0
LD	3.6	15.0	67.5	2.8	50.0	37.5	3.6	20.0	72.5
MD	3.8	12.5	75.0	2.1	85.0	10.0	3.8	7.5	80.0
Sample ₂							3.9	10.0	80.0
Sample ₃	2.9	50.0	50.0						
14. When I am with a group of people, I usually become the leader.									
Sample ₁	2.9	43.3	33.3	3.7	5.8	75.8	2.7	41.7	17.5
HD	2.4	60.0	12.5	4.0	2.5	92.5	2.5	50.0	10.0
LD	3.3	27.5	55.0	3.4	10.0	57.5	2.8	40.0	32.5
MD	2.8	42.5	32.5	3.7	5.0	77.5	2.7	35.0	10.0
Sample ₂							3.0	35.0	35.0
Sample ₃	3.7	12.5	68.7						
15. I worry about what people think of me.									
Sample ₁	2.7	55.8	28.3	2.0	86.7	4.2	3.6	26.7	47.5
HD	2.7	50.0	32.5	1.8	92.5	0	3.8	30.0	20.0
LD	2.7	60.0	25.0	2.1	80.0	2.5	3.5	25.0	57.5
MD	2.7	57.5	27.5	2.0	87.5	2.5	3.5	25.0	57.5
Sample ₂							3.4	30.0	55.0
Sample ₃	2.3	62.2	12.5						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
16. I express my ideas strongly.									
Sample ₁	2.2	77.5	15.0	3.2	26.7	50.8	1.7	94.2	1.7
HD	2.0	90.0	2.5	3.7	7.5	80.0	1.6	95.0	0
LD	2.3	65.0	25.0	2.7	45.0	22.5	1.7	95.0	2.5
MD	2.3	77.5	17.5	3.2	27.5	50.0	1.7	92.5	2.5
Sample ₂							1.7		
Sample ₃	3.2	31.2	62.5						
17. Single women need personal success, but all a married woman needs is her husband's success.									
Sample ₁	4.7	1.7	97.5	3.1	38.3	46.7	4.5	.8	95.0
HD	4.9	0	100.0	2.5	62.5	22.5	4.6	2.5	95.0
LD	4.6	2.5	95.0	3.8	15.0	75.0	4.3	0	95.0
MD	4.7	2.5	97.5	3.0	37.5	42.5	4.4	0	95.0
Sample ₂							4.7	0	100.0
Sample ₃	4.3		100.0						
18. I would not get married if I had to give up what I really believe in order to get along with another person.									
Sample ₁	1.8	85.8	12.5	2.8	45.8	36.7	1.9	85.8	8.3
HD	1.6	90.0	10.0	3.3	25.5	62.5	1.7	90.0	5.0
LD	2.0	82.5	12.5	2.3	67.5	12.5	1.9	85.0	10.0
MD	1.7	85.0	15.0	2.9	45.0	35.0	1.9	82.5	10.0
Sample ₂							1.9	85.0	10.0
Sample ₃	2.5	68.7	31.2						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
22. It is unfair that women have to give up more than men in order to have a good marriage.									
Sample ₁	2.2	68.3	14.2	2.7	56.7	32.5	2.2	73.3	14.2
HD	1.7	87.5	5.0	3.1	40.0	50.0	1.8	85.0	5.0
LD	2.7	50.0	27.5	2.5	67.5	17.5	2.7	52.5	25.0
MD	2.1	67.5	10.0	2.6	62.5	30.0	2.0	82.5	12.5
Sample ₂							2.9	50.0	40.0
Sample ₃	3.6	6.2	68.7						
23. I can put myself in the background and work hard for a person I admire.									
Sample ₁	2.8	48.3	36.7	2.2	80.8	7.5	2.6	58.3	26.7
HD	3.3	30.0	55.0	1.8	100.0	0	3.1	42.5	42.5
LD	2.5	62.5	32.5	2.6	60.0	17.5	2.2	72.5	20.0
MD	2.6	52.5	22.5	2.1	82.5	5.0	2.5	60.0	17.5
Sample ₂							2.2	70.0	15.0
Sample ₃	2.2	75.0	25.0						
24. A wife's opinion should be as important as the husband's opinion.									
Sample ₁	1.3	98.3	1.2	2.0	61.7	33.3	1.3	97.5	1.7
HD	1.2	97.5	0	3.1	42.5	55.0	1.2	97.5	0
LD	1.4	95.0	5.0	2.2	72.5	20.0	1.3	97.5	2.5
MD	1.2	100.0	0	2.5	70.0	25.0	1.3	97.5	2.5
Sample ₂							1.6	90.0	5.0
Sample ₃	1.9	93.7	6.2						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Women			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
25. My main interest is to raise normal, well-behaved children.									
Sample ₁	3.1	36.7	47.5	1.8	86.7	5.8	3.2	32.5	55.8
HD	3.6	15.0	62.5	1.6	100.0	0	3.6	17.5	70.0
LD	2.6	62.5	32.5	2.1	80.0	15.0	2.8	50.0	42.5
MD	3.1	32.5	47.5	1.7	80.0	2.5	3.2	30.0	55.0
Sample ₂									
Sample ₃	2.4	68.7	31.2				3.6	20.0	65.0
26. How I develop as a person is more important to me than what others think of me.									
Sample ₁	1.9	84.2	10.0	3.3	24.2	58.3	1.7	70.8	4.2
HD	1.7	87.5	12.5	3.8	7.5	80.0	1.5	92.5	2.5
LD	2.0	82.5	10.0	2.8	45.0	32.5	1.7	97.5	2.5
MD	2.0	82.5	7.5	3.4	20.5	62.5	1.9	82.5	7.5
Sample ₂									
Sample ₃	2.7	31.2	37.5				1.9	85.0	10.0
27. If we disagree, I would give in to my husband more often than I would expect him to give in to me.									
Sample ₁	3.6	18.3	73.3	2.3	78.3	16.7	3.9	12.5	79.2
HD	4.1	7.5	87.5	1.9	95.0	2.5	4.0	7.5	85.0
LD	3.5	22.5	67.5	2.9	50.0	40.0	3.7	20.0	72.5
MD	3.2	25.0	65.0	2.0	90.0	7.5	3.9	10.0	80.0
Sample ₂									
Sample ₃	2.9	50.0	31.2				3.6	20.0	75.0

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
28. The greatest satisfactions in life come from what you do yourself.									
Sample ₁	2.2	72.5	17.5	2.9	44.2	41.7	2.1	73.3	15.0
HD	2.0	72.5	12.5	3.5	17.5	67.5	1.9	80.0	15.0
LD	2.5	57.5	30.0	2.3	70.0	15.0	2.1	72.5	15.0
MD	1.9	87.5	10.0	2.9	45.0	42.5	2.1	67.5	15.0
Sample ₂							2.3	75.0	20.0
Sample ₃	2.9	56.2	43.7						
29. I would like to marry a man to whom I could really look up.									
Sample ₁	2.5	53.3	19.2	1.9	90.0	3.3	2.6	54.2	24.2
HD	2.9	40.0	37.5	1.6	97.5	2.5	2.9	47.5	30.0
LD	2.4	55.0	15.0	2.1	82.5	7.5	2.4	60.0	20.0
MD	2.1	65.0	5.0	1.8	90.5	0	2.6	55.0	22.5
Sample ₂							2.1	70.0	15.0
Sample ₃	2.1	93.7	6.2						
30. A woman should have interests outside the home.									
Sample ₁	1.2	98.3	0	1.9	90.8	3.3	1.4	96.7	2.5
HD	1.1	97.5	0	2.1	82.5	10.0	1.3	97.0	0
LD	1.2	100.0	0	1.5	97.5	0	1.4	97.5	2.5
MD	1.3	97.5	0	2.0	92.5	0	1.5	95.0	5.0
Sample ₂							1.3	100.0	0
Sample ₃	1.6	100.0	0						

TABLE 26.--Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
31. I am sure that what a woman gains from marriage makes up for sacrifices.									
Sample ₁	3.0	38.3	42.5	2.2	79.2	12.5	3.2	33.3	46.7
HD	3.3	32.5	57.5	1.9	95.0	2.5	3.4	27.5	55.0
LD	2.6	52.5	30.0	2.4	65.0	20.0	2.8	47.5	35.0
MD	3.0	30.0	40.0	2.3	77.5	15.0	3.3	25.0	50.0
Sample ₂							2.6	55.0	30.0
Sample ₃	1.8	87.5	6.2						
32. Modern mothers should bring up their boys and girls to believe in absolute equal rights and freedoms for both sexes.									
Sample ₁	1.8	81.7	7.5	3.1	36.7	46.7	1.7	84.2	10.0
HD	1.7	85.0	5.0	3.5	22.5	62.5	1.4	92.5	2.5
LD	2.0	72.5	15.0	2.7	52.5	27.5	1.9	77.5	15.0
MD	1.7	87.5	2.5	3.1	35.0	50.0	1.8	82.5	12.5
Sample ₂							2.5	60.0	35.0
Sample ₃	2.9	50.0	31.2						
33. A woman's place is in the home.									
Sample ₁	4.5	1.7	90.8	2.8	54.2	30.8	4.4	.8	93.3
HD	4.6	2.5	92.5	2.2	80.0	10.0	4.5	0	95.0
LD	4.5	0	90.0	3.5	15.0	60.0	4.4	2.5	95.0
MD	4.4	2.5	87.5	2.5	67.5	22.5	4.3	0	90.0
Sample ₂							4.2	5.0	85.0
Sample ₃	3.6	25.0	68.7						

TABLE 26.---Continued.

Group	Self-Rating			Average Woman			SD Rating		
	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree	Mean	Percent Agree	Percent Disagree
34. I would rather be famous, admired and popular throughout the nation than have the constant affection of just one man.									
Sample	3.9	9.2	72.5	4.0	9.2	88.3	3.6	13.3	60.8
HD	3.4	15.0	52.5	4.5	0	100.0	3.3	20.0	47.0
LD	4.3	5.0	90.0	3.7	15.0	77.5	3.8	7.5	72.5
MD	4.0	7.5	75.0	3.9	12.5	87.5	3.6	12.5	62.5
Sample ₂							4.0	5.0	80.0
Sample ₃	4.3	6.2	87.5						

Observations Regarding Responses to
IVF Items (Table 26)

Though Sample₃ in Table 26 are not "average women," but "other-oriented" women (IVF means = -6.75), their responses of items may be compared with predictions made by HD and LD women on the same items. Differences in degree of stereotyping of the Average Woman by HD and LD subjects can also be observed.

Sex-role stereotyping has often been described as existing, when 75 percent or more of the subjects consider an item to typify a certain sex group. Using this criterion, HD women in Sample₁ stereotype the average woman on 22 items, LD women on 8 items. However, HD subjects often stereotyped the average woman in the traditional direction even on those items, which "other-oriented" (traditional) women in fact answered in the liberal direction. LD subjects' stereotypes, on the other hand, agreed in every instance with self-descriptions of "other-oriented" women.

For example, 75 percent of LD women assumed the average woman to disagree with item 17 (Single women need personal success, but all a married woman needs is her husband's success). In fact, 100 percent of the "other-oriented" women disagreed with that statement. Again, 80 percent of the LD women predicted the average woman to agree with item 25 (My main interest is to raise normal, well-behaved children), and this prediction concurred with "other-oriented" women's responses.

HD subjects, however, often stereotyped the average women as taking a position which is not even adopted by traditional women.

Their stereotypes were grossly incorrect on the following items (1, 3, 6, 7, 13, 19, 20, 26, 27, 33). For example, 95 percent of HD women assumed the average woman to agree with item 19 (It is up to the woman to make a marriage work) and 80 percent assumed she would agree with item 33 (A woman's place is in the home). But only 12 percent of traditional women agreed with item 19 and 25 percent with item 33.

In some instances, however, "other-oriented" women express their traditionalism with even more overwhelming agreement than predicted by either the HD or LD subjects. For instance, 87 percent of Sample₃ disagreed with item 10 (I am not sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices), whereas only 77 percent of HD women and 57 percent of LD women predicted such disagreement.

The areas where HD women most often predict the Average Woman's responses incorrectly may be grouped as follows:

1. The marriage relationship, unselectiveness in choice of marital partners, and unequal status as being acceptable (items 1, 7, 18, 19, 24, and 27).
2. The area of work and personal success, and its possible interference with child-rearing (items 3, 13, 17, 20, 28).
3. Woman's role as being the home (item 33).

On the other hand, HD women tend to predict correctly in the following areas:

1. Average women's relative lack of interest in public acclaim for success (items 4, 34).
2. Average women's interest in pleasing others (items 5, 15).

3. Average women's willingness to accept help from others (item 8).
4. Average women's views on the priority of family needs and the wife's value as a helper to her husband (items 9, 21).
5. Average women's certainty that the benefits residing in parenthood and in the marriage relationship make up for sacrifices (item 10, 31).
6. Average women's relatively lower interest in assertive leadership behavior (items 11, 12, 14, 15, 16).
7. Average women's ability to work in behalf of an admired person, and their desire to look up to their husband (items 23, 29).

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