

SELF-CONCEPT AND SEX-ROLE EXPECTATIONS OF
HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS

by

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A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the
SCHOOL OF HOME ECONOMICS

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

In the Graduate College

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am deeply indebted to Professor Nylda Lopez, my thesis director, for her guidance and assistance throughout the course of this study. Special thanks are extended to Professor Richard Stein for his assistance with the data analysis. For serving on my committee, I am grateful to Professor Nylda Lopez, Professor Ruth Kingsley and Professor Victor Christopherson. I also wish to express gratitude to the home economics teachers and Neighborhood Youth Corps counselors who assisted in administering the questionnaires and to the 95 students who participated in this study.

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to investigate self-acceptance and sex-role expectations of high school girls. The sample tested comprised 95 white and black, middle and low-income girls who were juniors and seniors in the public schools of Waterloo, Iowa.

The Index of Adjustment and Values by Bills, Vance and McLean measured self-acceptance. A questionnaire designed by the author determined role-expectations. These were administered by Neighborhood Youth Corps counselors and home-economics instructors. The scores on the two measures were computed separately and their relationships were tested using chi-square analysis.

Of the eight hypotheses tested, six were accepted. No significant relationships were indicated between self-acceptance and role-expectations, race and SES. Comparison of role-expectations and race, SES and parenthood indicated no significant relationships. The hypothesis comparing self-acceptance and parenthood was rejected. Girls with children were less self-accepting in their responses than their classmates. The hypothesis comparing girls who expect to determine their own futures to those who do not was also rejected. Although race, SES and parenthood indicated no significant relationships with responses to future plans, self-accepting girls and career-oriented girls responded with significantly higher expectations of determining their futures.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The high school years are traditionally considered to be a time of preliminary decision-making for life-goals. Research has indicated that the career preferences stated at this age have little predictive value for actual jobs held after education is completed (Astin and Myint 1971). Tied in with life-goals, however, are self-image and societal role-expectations (on a traditional-modern continuum) which are being formulated at the same time. These aspects of development have received little empirical investigation to date in their relationship to each other, and most of the studies done are now considered to be out-dated.

The area of decision-making that involves traditional or modern choice of roles is viewed by many authors as resulting from the background of previous experiences and self-perceptions. According to White (1959, p. 202), "It seems probable that to some extent each girl selects a role that is consistent with the self-concept which has developed from her innate capacities and her social experiences." The girl's sex-role is a developmental outgrowth of years of differential experiences and expectations. Self-concept or self-esteem plays an important part in understanding how the individual perceives these experiences. Traditional girls are generally assumed to have feminine interests, and

vocationally, interest patterns only in stop-gap occupations, extrinsic job motivation, preferring to follow a homemaking-orientation rather than a career. Modern girls are viewed as having a greater career-motivation and as being more "masculine" and independent in their interest patterns. This study will concern itself with which of these orientations a subject prefers to have as her sex-role in society rather than probing all possible dimensions of each question; to tell on a broad dimension whether she leans towards a "family-comes-first" or a "personal-achievement-comes-first" attitude.

Super (1951) hypothesized that occupational choice is an effort to implement the self-concept. Studies done in this area indicate that the self-concept of the individual plays a major role in determining the type of vocational situation that will be chosen. Nearly all of the research to date has been done on men, but followers of Super's theory have postulated that a similar process takes place in the vocational choices made by women (Strong 1943). Since the theories were formulated several decades ago, there is the possibility that the generalizations, if originally valid, may not be as clear-cut today when women can enter and leave the job market more easily, and the distinctions between the "career-woman" and the "housewife" have blurred.

Most of the research on the testing of self-concept implications for behavior has focused on school achievement (Coopersmith 1967, Jones and Strowig 1968, Purkey 1970) or parental identification (White 1959, Ausubel and Ausubel 1963, Pederson and Stanford 1969). Although not directly related to the subject areas under investigation in this study,

these other areas do point out the importance that other variables play on self-esteem and indirectly on decision-making. Factors such as parental influence or modeling, acceptance of others (Berger 1955; Zuckerman, Baer and Monashkin 1956), body image (Jourard and Rubin 1972), early or late maturation (Jones and Mussen 1958) and many other factors are influential and affect the adolescent's perceptions and expectations possibly as much or more than factors which this study will be testing.

One of the main questions with regard to sex-role and the self-concept concerns the degree to which females have accepted particular sex-roles as applicable to women (or men) in general. Related to this is the degree to which they have accepted particular sex-role stereotypes as applicable to their own actual or ideal-self concepts. Studies have disclosed that both men and women rate males as superior to females (Elman, Press and Rosenkrantz 1970). A study by McKee and Sherriffs (1959) indicated that Women's Real Self (a group measure) was far more stereotyped than Men's Real Self. Although there is evidence of high stereotyping of unfavorable sex-roles by women, the evidence is far more ambiguous in regard to whether women's self-concepts are always more unfavorable than those of men.

Some studies have found that women and girls have less discrepancy between actual self and ideal-self measures (Martine and Hornberger 1957, Perkins 1958). This may indicate that women focus more on living up to their own standards than to the negatively regarded social standard for women which would mean disregarding role-stereotypes more consciously than do the men. This may be particularly problematic at high school

age with girls higher in self-esteem refusing to identify with a traditional female role. In many of the earlier studies, self-esteem often appears to be confused with adjustment. More recent studies have indicated that females can have a high level of self-esteem without having a high adjustment level (Pederson and Stanford 1969).

Differences between socioeconomic groups and races on self-concept development are highly contradictory and inconclusive. A study by Healey (1970) found Anglo subjects to be lower in self-esteem than Mexican-American or Negro subjects, but postulated distortions in self-descriptions in a positive direction by minority students. Investigating self-concept development in children from first to fifth grade, Carpenter and Busse (1969) found that the self-concepts of the children became increasingly negative during this time, but found no significant differences in race involved. Girls were, in general, found to be more negative in self-concept than were the boys. A similar study of decrease in self-esteem done by Soares and Soares (1970) reported no significant differences between the scores of boys and girls, but high school students had much lower self-perception scores than the elementary students. Mason hypothesized that the disadvantaged adolescent girl may be more defeated than the male. The girls were portrayed as being poorly motivated and ". . . recalcitrant behavior of the girls was seen as related to earlier maturity and a passive acquiescence to a rather hopeless outlook on life" (Mason 1968, p. 934). This was particularly judged as being true for the American Indian girls. Despite all this, Haller and Thomas (1962) declared that SES may affect a number of personality factors of adolescents, but its effect on any one factor is small.

Evidence has indicated that the work values which play an important part in vocational choice and job satisfaction begin to stabilize in adolescence (Ginzberg et al. 1951). Work values appear to be related to family background. Paine, Deutsch and Smith (1967) found that family background directly influenced choice of vocational values favored by university students. Gottlieb (1964) found that differences in race and SES differentially affected both occupational choice and educational aspirations. Occupational choice is seen by Erikson (1959) as one of the main causes of identity diffusion. Adolescents who have not made a vocational choice demonstrate lower ego-identity, achievement, and lower self-concepts than those who have definite preferences (Bell 1970). Career development is viewed as a life-time process similar to personality development. These can be viewed as developing in stages like self-concept. Matthews (1963) stated that during latency, girls' interests are highly feminine, but during puberty, career choices of an adventurous, masculine-fantasy nature dominated to channel desires for a family and provide a last-thing of aggression. In the later high school years, career interest declines sharply, becoming more feminine again, as marriage interest rises. The decline is often masked by continued academic success and goes unnoticed by others.

Differences have been cited between career-oriented and homemaker-oriented girls on variables such as identification. Tyler (1945) postulated that girls choosing a feminine role identified closely with parents and were more satisfied with themselves, while girls with career interests were from homes where the father was deceased or communication with

parents was poor. Smith (1969) stated that daughters of working mothers and daughters of nonwhite mothers express more favorable attitudes towards the combining of marriage, motherhood, and a career. Angrist (1966) hypothesized that girls aspiring to adult-role constellations resembled the women actually filling those roles. He found instead that there were no significant correlations between the girls and the women on their scores, nor were the adult women who were homemakers found to score any differently from those who were engaged in careers. Predicting the accuracy of career choices made at high school level seems indeed to be very difficult.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate both separately and in relation to each other measures of self-concept and sex-role expectations, including vocational role, for high school girls. The study attempted to investigate the relationship between these measures under the assumption that self-esteem and self-perception play a major role in decision making for the future. Research analyzing these two measures in combination has not been readily available for this age group. Self-concept is discussed here as it applies to development in general, and more specifically, to its significance in vocational role-formation.

The effects of socioeconomic status (SES) and race were investigated as variables. Their effects on measures of self-esteem and sex-role orientations are generally ambiguous and inconclusive. Here the problem consists not in lack of research, but in highly conflicting findings. The subjects taking part in this study were juniors and

seniors in high school. White and Negro girls from poverty level families and from middle-income families. The questionnaires will hopefully serve an additional purpose of assisting the girls in clarifying their own views in this area so that they will be prepared to participate in group discussions. The discussion groups have been planned by Neighborhood Youth Corps leaders and home-economics teachers to follow immediately after the questionnaires.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

Hypothesis I--There is no significant relationship between self-acceptance and role-expectations.

Hypothesis II--There is no significant relationship between self-acceptance and race.

Hypothesis III--There is no significant relationship between self-acceptance and SES.

Hypothesis IV--There is no significant relationship between self-acceptance and parenthood.

Hypothesis V--There is no significant relationship between role-expectations and race.

Hypothesis VI--There is no significant relationship between role-expectations and SES.

Hypothesis VII--There is no significant relationship between role-expectations and parenthood.

Hypothesis VIII--There is no significant difference between girls who envision themselves as being determiners of their own futures and those who do not according to the variables of self-concept and self-role expectation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-Concept--Historical Perspective

Early in American writing there was an interest in the self by writers like William James (1890) in philosophical literature. From about the 1920's through the 1940's, behaviorist psychology tended to dominate the country. Freudian psychology didn't promote interest in the area of self-perceptions at its onset because the role of the id was emphasized and the three-part division of the personality left little room for constructs such as self. Later, as Freud's followers assigned a greater role to developing ego functions and as the principles of psychotherapy gained a hold in this country, respect for subjective evaluations by the individual gathered importance. Gestalt psychologists, in particular, with their phenomenalist theories and methods cultivated the new area of thought. "All the general psychological theories were moving towards more inclusion of coupled cognitive and motivational variables" (Wylie 1961, p. 37). As interest in the self developed and the literature on the subject increased two different meanings were often applied to the term "self": (1) the self as subject or agent, and (2) the self as the individual who is known to himself (English and English 1958). In common usage the term "self-concept" has come to refer to the second meaning.

The self-concept has been found to stabilize fairly early in life (Engel 1959, Bunt 1968, Jorgensen and Howell 1969). Combs and Snygg (1959, p. 130) wrote that, ". . . once established in a given personality, the perceived self has a high degree of stability . . ." and, ". . . this stability has been repeatedly demonstrated in modern research." These relatively permanent conceptions of self then are seen as the determinants of our choices of life-styles. Self-concepts are seen as learned and developed roles of socialization which have adjustment value for the individual as well as expressive value.

Self-Concept in Literature

The concept of self has received widely varied treatment at the hands of theorists. The neo-Freudian school has placed an emphasis on the earliest period of self (primary narcissism) involving experiences of frustration, relief, and tension. This viewpoint has been expressed by Redfearn (1969, p. 14) as follows:

The subjective self behaves as if it has considerable resources of omnipotence and denial and organization which are used to preserve the feelings of wholeness and continuity. It is this subjective self-image which is positively cathected in narcissism, and which is often called the "ego."

Erikson (1959) has been more comprehensive in approach to his studies of the self. His analysis extends beyond the early stages of development to include all the ages of the individual. Under the format of identity-formation, he has paid attention to both a self-aspect and an ego-aspect. The ego, according to him, is the central organizing agent. Over time, it is faced with all the demands of a changing self that insists on being synthesized with abandoned and anticipated selves. The new

identifications made during the "moratorium" of adolescence are particularly forceful leading the individual from role experimentations into "irreversible role patterns" and commitments.

Jung (1939) made sharp distinctions between the ego and the self but generally these differentiated mainly between the I, or the subjective self within the individual, and the total personality complex. The self is the main concept of totality or complete unity for which man strives. It holds the other systems together giving equilibrium and stability to the personality. Self is the life's goal, man's search for wholeness, constantly striven for, but seldom reached.

The neo-Freudians have used the self as a very broad theoretical concept, and the individual definitions become difficult to pin down (the ego-self ambiguity). In his comparative analysis, Redfearn (1969, p. 23) writes:

Definitions of the self vary in their practical emphases (as opposed to the actual words used) between that of the man-in-the-street which does not include anything which is felt to be outside the self of immediate experience, though psychoanalytic ones such as that of Jacobson, which verbally include not only pre-conscious but unconscious representations of the bodily and mental self but in practice and in emphasis exclude the omnipotent, cosmic experiences pertaining to the primal self (Jung's emphasis), and stress the separating, differentiating omnipotence--(the) foregoing, realistic side of the personality.

Some writers like Winnicott distinguish even more broadly; he postulated the "true self" and the "false self." The latter he defined as the whole organization of the mannered and polite social attitude adopted and utilized for the purpose of gaining a place in society.

The social-psychological theorists felt that Freud had failed to take into account the social conditioners of personality. Adler, like

Freud and Jung, postulated an inherent nature that shaped personality but expanded this theory to emphasize the creative self which grows out of social interest. Adler's self searches out or creates experiences to fulfill a unique style of life. The self is highly personalized and subjective, searching consciously for meaningfulness in interactions with others (Winnicott 1965).

Sullivan, stressing the importance of the interpersonal situation postulated the dynamism of the self or the self-system resulting from anxiety. In order to minimize anxiety, the individual learns methods of conformity as security measures, and these in turn sanction some forms of behavior (the "good-me" self) and forbid other types (the "bad-me" self). This self-system tends to become isolated from the rest of the personality and begins to "interfer with the ability to live constructively with others" (Hall and Lindzey 1957, p. 139).

The cognitive field theorists and self theorists have contributed significantly to the development of self-concept theories. Most of these theories stress primarily the role of conscious self-concept in determining the behavior of the individual, and for this reason, they are often referred to as phenomenological theory. Rogers (1951, p. 136) has elaborated in his writing on this view of the self:

The self-concept or self-structure may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities: The perceptions and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment, the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence.

According to Rogers (1951, p. 191):

. . . this configuration serves to regulate behavior and may serve to account for uniformities in personality.

The emphasis on the consciousness of the self-concept is not meant to imply that unconscious constructs cannot be admitted as playing a role in behavior. Knowledge, attitudes, perceptions and motivations which are unconscious are acknowledged and sometimes labeled "non-phenomenal." Phenomenal personality theorists deal primarily with inferred variables, making the definition of terms and arriving at observable measures for the constructs difficult. Most of their difficulties focus around the degree to which they can remain phenomenological. It is easy to see that the addition of unconscious variables would render the measuring techniques of most of their research unusable. Most of the researchers suggest that unconscious processes in the Freudian sense can determine behavior, but they refrain from specifying how they are to be fitted into their theoretical framework. According to Wylie (1961, p. 13):

The phenomenological personality theorist has made it clear that he is interested in the "stimulus" from self as the subject sees it, rather than being concerned with the "stimulus" as it is physicalistically defined. This means that the "stimulus" must be inferred from S's response. The necessity of defining stimulus by means of response inferences seems to imply that the phenomenologist must employ R-R (response-response) designs instead of the more usual S-R (stimulus-response) designs.

This methodology is viewed by most critics as being the chief shortcoming of self-concept research, and as a result, most of the tests used and the findings obtained are viewed with a skeptic eye.

Many theorists have contributed to the development of a theoretical base, both cognitive-field and self theorists. This discussion will cover only a few who deal with the developmental aspects of the self-concept and illustrate why it is rapidly becoming the concern of the schools. Lewin's theories helped set the stage even though he seldom used a term such as self or ego, but he allowed for a central subsystem within the individual and postulated many concepts of tension and value involvement in a phenomenal field explainable only from the viewpoint of the individual. The self, then, is viewed not as a single entity but as a set of variables; unifying processes. Lewin's works illustrate the extent to which self-theory is indebted to Gestalt psychology roots.

Gordon Allport's (1955) theory, without specifying a clear definition of self, hypothesized seven aspects of "becoming" or sense of self. Not remaining static, these aspects continue to emerge and become a sense of self. Consciousness to him is only one part of the vital functions and a sense of self is not dependent on self-awareness. For practical use in discussing theory, he has used the term self as being synonymous with ego. Ego-involvement is seen as propiate striving unifying the personality rather than as emotionality. The real importance of ego-involvement lies in its dominance of the "law of effect." Almost any behavior can be engaged in with or without ego-involvement but the results are extremely different, especially for situations such as questionnaire answering.

Combs and Snygg (1959) agree with Allport (1955) that the self is a basic variable controlling perception and the most stable point of

reference. They are also in accord with Lecky (1945) who postulated a need for self-consistency as the basic need of the organism. They view the attempt to achieve an adequate self as a life-time goal, as does Jung (1939), and that the self-perceptions possessed as a result play a tremendous role in determining every behavior of the individual. To understand behavior then, it must be seen entirely from the viewpoint of the individual and his perceptions of the phenomenal field.

Jersild (1968) views the capacity for reflective thought, the cognitive component, which develops at the end of childhood as being one of the most basic components of self-concept. The cognitive and affective aspects are linked with the capacity for self-evaluation for the attitudinal process. Self-awareness thus develops gradually with varying degrees of clarity at different times.

Most theorists view the self-concept as developmental in nature, passing through different stages at fairly uniform age-levels. There appears to be an increase in the importance of superego processes during latency resulting in increasing discrepancy between self and self-ideal ratings. The discrepancy increases from age 5 to 12 or 13 years, then levels off and stabilizes (somewhat earlier for boys) between the ages of 13 to 18 years (Jorgensen and Howell 1969). Other authorities feel that "crystallization" of the self-concept comes even earlier; before the 8th grade (Engel 1959, Bunt 1968).

Many studies have dealt with the developmental aspects of self-concept by studying patterns of identification. Girls experience a relatively sharp movement away from others at puberty. This appears to

correspond to Erikson's statements (1959) that there is a need to sever childhood identifications and place others in the role of enemy to achieve an integrated, independent identity. The critical period is seen as the shift into high school, with the resolution of the crisis permitting an enhanced respect for self and a renewed ability for the acceptance of others (Long, Ziller and Henderson 1968). Erikson also hypothesized that the self-esteem of a girl will reach a peak at about 9th or 10th grade as this critical period is resolved. Thus, the female is viewed as following a pattern of withdrawal, then reapproach in contrast to the male who remains more stable in identification and social distance patterns and experiences fewer familial conflicts.

Many theorists feel that the searching for identity is particularly acute during the adolescent years (Allport 1955, Erikson 1959, Jersild 1968). Research has found, however, that males and females followed different patterns in their personality development. Girls show an increase in social orientation while boys increase in personal orientation (Douvan 1960, Carlson 1965). Self-esteem, on the other hand, appears to have a relatively high degree of stability in adolescence and is independent of age (Engel 1959, Carlson 1965). This appears to be in contrast with the contention of a later study which states that there is an increase in self-esteem with age (Long et al. 1968). One suggestion towards reconciliation of these views is that although this stage is marked by a new stability, various senses of self continue to change and develop during the adolescent years and the pattern of growth is somewhat irregular.

White, Anderson and Cryder (1966) found no marked changes in the sense of self-image when investigating the four grade levels of high school. However, they did note changes by grade levels in the needs to be met.

The strong need for independence appears to be most intense during the freshman year with a renewed interest in participation and the need to belong emerging in the 10th grade, and a spirit of leadership developing in the 11th and 12th grades. Even though the self in relation to others is seen to be still in a state of developmental change, the self-image or self-concept is considered to be stabilized enough to be validly predictive for the type of research that this study will undertake.

Measurement of the Self-Concept

One of the major difficulties involved in research on the self-concept is determining the extent to which the answers can be deemed truthful and indicative of attitudes held by the subjects. As Wylie (1961, p. 24) has stated:

We would like to be able to assume that the subject's self-report responses are determined by his phenomenal field. However, we know that it would be naive to take this for granted, since it is obvious that such responses may also be influenced by a) S's intent to select what he wishes to reveal to the E; b) S's intent to say that he has attitudes or perceptions that he does not have; c) S's responses, habits, particularly those involving introspection and use of language; d) a host of situational and methodological factors which may not only induce variations in (a), (b), and (c), but may exert other more superficial influences on the responses obtained.

Cowen and Tongas (1959) found some indications that the mean of the self-ratings which S's assigned to an item was related to that item's

independently scaled Social Desirability value. Maslow (1942), on the other hand, asked S's to estimate the accuracy or reliability of the answers that they had given, and 81 percent rated their reports as being very reliable. The circumstances under which reporting of self-assumptions are done play a great role. Jourard and Lasakow (1958) and Jourard and Rubin (1972) found that S's reported that they voluntarily disclosed themselves more freely to others in certain areas than in other areas, and will disclose themselves with certain people more readily than others. Since, however, the only view that is important to the individual's functioning is the way that he sees himself, not the ways that he is seen by others, we must rely upon self-report.

Much care must be taken to insure the choice of a valid measuring technique since the possible contaminating factors are so great. It is in this respect that the majority of the research to date has been less than adequate. Most seem to suffer from a lack of clear, empirical referents, lack of construct validity, and operational definitions too loosely defined. Internal item analysis is seldom listed, and presumably not done, on almost all measures. Discussing the research, Wylie (1961, p. 39) writes:

. . . to meet such demands, a wide range of instruments has been used to measure various aspects of the phenomenal self, most of them having been used only in one study. Most of the articles give incomplete descriptions of the instruments used or no real descriptions at all, and no publicly available source for the reader to follow up. The problem of any kind of validity is often by-passed or inappropriate (another's judgment or school achievement records).

Despite the problems of check standards and self-report considerations, the area of testing self-concept is still considered valid and valuable

by nearly all theorists and researchers as long as careful consideration is given to the choosing of an instrument.

Most self-concept testing was done on a non-correlative basis at first, i.e., tests were used alone. More recently they have been used in connection with other measures such as school achievement and parental identification; these two areas appear to have made up the bulk of the research to date.

Vocational Aspirations

The majority of the studies done on occupational preferences have been influenced either directly or indirectly by the theories of Super (1951) and his followers. Basically, this theoretical orientation states that occupation choice is an effort to implement the self-concept (Super 1951, Oppenheimer 1966). Wheeler and Carnes (1968) found that S's saw their ideal-self and typical people in the probable and ideal vocational choices as quite congruent, yet all three were different from the subject's present self-concept. Career choice could then be seen as an attempt at actualization; an attempt to become the ideal self. Occupational choices are thus seen as an expression of the way in which the individual views himself; an effort to maintain consistency between his self-image, and the way in which others will view him in his work role.

Such a theory lends itself well to investigations of women's decision-making on role choices. Women in this society generally have three options in planning their futures: becoming a fulltime housewife, accepting a work-situation (full or part-time) of the type commonly referred to as a "job" whether temporary or permanent, or deciding on a

"career" of a relatively permanent nature with the training and individual responsibility entailed by a more professional work situation. Admittedly these are rather broad generalizations, but they would appear to be indicative of basic value choices or preferences which, if Super's theory is assumed to be valid, would be consistent with ratings given on a self-concept inventory.

Vocational behavior is regarded as a developmental process, not unlike development of the self-concept. The individual makes vocational decisions influenced by developmental changes in the self-concept and personal orientation (Ginzberg et al. 1951, Super 1951, Roe 1956, Holland 1959). Tiedman, O'Hara and Baruch (1963) assumed a psychosocial approach placing more emphasis on the social environment of the individual and the influence that it exerts on vocational planning. Strong (1943) believed that interests play the primary role in decision-making. Interest is viewed as an indeterminate indicator of success, is highly permanent, and is little influenced by vocational training or experience. Blau et al. (1956) saw the expectations of future vocational rewards as determining decision-making, similar to what Hilton (1962) described as the "probable gain model."

A "hierarchy of habitual or preferred methods for dealing with environmental tasks" is developed according to Holland, and plays a major role in making a vocational choice. The individual "searches" for situations which satisfy his "hierarchy of adjustive orientations" (Holland 1959). Hilton states that career development can be described as "the synthesis of a chain of decisions . . . the reduction of

dissonance among a person's beliefs about himself and his environment is the major motivation in career decision-making" (Hilton 1962, p. 298). Roe (1956, p. 33) stated that, "It may be that occupations have become so important in our culture just because so many needs were so well satisfied by them." While all of the above theories have differences in emphases, all are basically in agreement that vocational decision-making grows out of gradually acquired personal perceptions.

Studies done on the self-concept theory are consistent with the theory of Bills, Vance and McLean (1951) stating that the goal of life is to produce consistency in the value system. Nearly all of the research has used male adults although a similar process is postulated for both sexes. Contrary to other studies, Gribbons and Lohnes (1965) found considerable longitudinal stability in the hierarchy of vocational values from eighth grade on for boys, but for girls it seems to primarily depend on post-high school decisions as to education and marriage. Preferences stated at high school age, according to this study, may be indicative of permanent vocational values for boys. Jones and Strowig (1968) in their research found that boys at that age level (8th grade) have more of a tendency to define themselves in terms of goals and expectations whereas girls confine themselves more to the realities of the present situation.

Differences have been postulated between girls with a career-orientation and those with a homemaker-orientation. The question as to whether adjustment for women is facilitated by identifying with the cultural stereotype or rejecting it to identify more with the masculine role has not yet been resolved by conflicting theories. Nevertheless, some

differences have been found between career and home-oriented women. Girls with a vocational orientation were found to be characterized by a more masculine orientation than were the more traditional, homemaking-oriented girls (Tyler 1945, Hoyt and Kennedy 1958, Astin 1968). Girls who became homemakers were found to have extrinsic job motivation while career girls appeared to have intrinsic job motivation (Rand 1958).

Other studies have indicated that a wide variety of factors may influence modern or traditional role choices, such as the size of the high school attended. Early orientation towards education also seems to be more highly predictive of career decisions than were work values (Astin 1968). Gribbons and Lohnes (1965) by contrast, found that girls higher in self-esteem and intelligence wanted vocational goals with intrinsic satisfaction and they viewed higher education as incompatible with this goal. Girls who scored high on scholastic aptitudes, particularly in traditionally masculine areas such as physical sciences, tended towards careers. A study by Astin and Myint (1971) found that close to half of the 12th grade girls changed their career plans within five years after graduation. For those going on to college, the shifts were predominantly deflection away from the sciences and professions and towards more feminine areas while in college.

Differences in self-concept do appear, and according to these studies, seem to be predictive of vocational choices for women along a modern-traditional continuum. Whether these actually correspond to high-low scoring of self-concept measures is far more ambiguous. It is evident that women scoring higher in masculine levels of interests are more

likely to be career-oriented. However, the evidence is not clear in regard to whether women's self-concepts are more negative than those of men. Some authors believe that identifying with the proper cultural stereotype increases self-esteem and adjustment (Tyler 1945, Rogers 1951, White 1959), others find self-esteem to be independent of sex-role (Engel 1959, Carlson 1965) and still others (Connell and Johnson 1970) find that the male role may have greater value whether it is adopted by males or females. Sex-role stereotypes do seem to play an important role, whether accepting or rejecting them, in shaping a person's self-concept and vocational preferences.

Effects of SES and Race on Self-Concept

Studies on the relationship of SES and race on self-concept development have also been quite conflicting. Healey (1970) found that SES wasn't influential in regard to overall measures of self-concept. Some authors, on the other hand, have found a clear positive relationship between high social status and high self-esteem (Rosenberg 1965, Sears 1970), and a lack of confidence and negative self-images have been used to describe the ego development of deprived children (Ausubel and Ausubel 1963; Bloom, Davis and Hess 1965). Other studies have postulated that disadvantaged children do not necessarily view themselves less positively (Carter 1968) and may actually have higher self-perceptions believing mistakenly that teachers view them as highly as they view themselves. The advantaged child, by contrast, is more insecure and sees himself as viewed less favorably by others than he really is (Soares and Soares (1970). Indications are that self-esteem depends to a large

extent on how one believes he is viewed by others and inaccuracies of such perceptions may be related to SES variables.

Socioeconomic class effects on sex-role orientations have fared little better than the studies on racial differences. Gysbers, Johnston and Gust (1968) postulated that measures such as parental level of education (suggesting a social-class measurement) influenced scores on occupational preference scales. Centers (1948) found significant differences in work values among persons from various social strata; the higher groups emphasized opportunity for self-expression and leadership; the lower SES families stressed security and desire for independence. Primary commitment to work was hypothesized as being associated with family background. White et al. (1966) believed that participation in extracurricula activities has a greater effect on self-image than did family status. They declared (1966, p. 278) that family background was not a "specific determiner of propriate striving towards vocational goals."

Definition of Terms

The following terms, wherever applicable, are operationally defined in conformity with the measurements employed in this study.

1. Adjustment is the "total of the discrepancies between the self-concept and the concept of the ideal-self can be taken as a measure of adjustment" (Bills, Vance and McLean 1951, p. 258).

2. Concept is defined as "a general meaning, an idea or a property that can be predicted out of two or more individual terms" (English and English 1958).

3. Ego-Identity is "the accrued confidence that the inner sameness and continuity are matched by the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for others" (Erikson 1959, p. 128). How the adolescent perceives others as viewing him is essential to the development of ego-identity, as is an integrated self-concept of past experiences and present role-expectations.

4. Ideal-Self refers to the subject's concept of the kind of person he would like to be. It is "the self-concept which the individual would like to possess, upon which he places the highest value for himself" (Rogers 1951, p. 200). "The philosophy of life, the value system of the individual, and the ideal-self are synonymous" (Bills et al. 1951, p. 259).

5. Others Concept is the way that the subject perceives himself as seen by significant others (mother, father, teacher, friends).

6. Phenomenal Field is the universe as perceived by the individual, and including himself, at the instant of action. "All behavior without exception, is a function of the behavior's perceptual field at the instant of behaving. "Field" implies an organized whole which behaves in ways aimed at maintaining its organization" (Combs, Avila and Purkey 1971, p. 119).

7. Phenomenal Self is "an organization of all the ways an individual has of seeing himself" (Combs and Snygg 1959, p. 126). By contrast, self-concept includes "only those perceptions about self which seem most vital or important to the individual himself" (Combs and Snygg 1959, p. 127).

8. Roles are "expectations with regard to behavior which are attached to a position" (Stryker 1959, p. 113).

- a. Role-preference and role-acceptance in terms of the ideal-self (the role the individual would like to fill) and the self-concept (the role he perceives himself as filling at present) will be operationally defined by scores given on the Bills IAV.
- b. Sex-role expectations refers, in this study, to the fact that girls were viewed as possibly tending towards either a modern or traditional dimension along a sex-role continuum of vocational or homemaker choices. The term "modern" as applied here was seen as indicative of higher career-motivation and more acceptance of non-traditional roles, whereas "traditional" women were viewed as preferring more feminine interests and homemaking (with possibly stop-gap jobs) rather than a career (Tyler 1945). Sex-role expectations were operationally measured for high school girls by choices made on the Role Expectations Questionnaire.

9. Self-acceptance to most theorists indicates self-respect including the admitting of faults. Congruence between the self and ideal-self is viewed as high self-acceptance by many. Others believe that self-satisfaction is manifested by a moderately small discrepancy between these two descriptions: ". . . self-acceptance is presumed by some to be the conscious (realistic) recognition of some falling short of the

ideal" (Wylie 1961, p. 38). Self-satisfaction, self-acceptance, and self-esteem are used rather interchangeably.

10. Self-concept is envisioned as being "all those aspects of the perceptual field to which we refer when we say 'I' or 'me'" (Combs et al. 1971, p. 120). The self-concept is viewed as both dynamic and complex. "Each individual has had literally hundreds of thousands of more or less discrete perceptions of self . . ." (Combs and Snygg 1959, p. 126). The self-concept has a high degree of stability and forms the core of the phenomenal self. In general, the self-concept can be said to be the way that the individual perceives himself.

11. Values are "traits which the individual considers desirable" (Bills et al. 1951, p. 257).

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Selection of Subjects

The girls taking part in the study were 11th and 12th grade students attending public schools in Waterloo, Iowa. Both Negro and white girls were tested. The groups were balanced for socioeconomic class (middle-income and low-income) resulting in four categories. The girls from low-income families were tested while working part-time for the Neighborhood Youth Corps. The low-income girls were from families living below the federal standards for poverty (which is necessary to qualify for N.Y.C.). Some of them were Aid to Dependent Children dependents, and some already had children of their own for which they received allotments. They were all still in high school as full-time students even though the testing was done by N.Y.C. counselors. All of the girls enrolled in the N.Y.C. program were tested.

The middle-income girls tested in the study were students in the upper-division home-economics courses. This course was a "required" elective and must be taken either in the junior or senior year. All of the students from three classes were tested. Verification of the family's middle-class classification was obtained from school records. Guidelines were based on income-level, if known, and on parental occupations.

Instruments

Two questionnaires were presented together and were taken at the same test session. The Index of Adjustment and Values (IAV) and the Role-Expectations Questionnaire were the tests utilized for the study.

The Index of Adjustment and Values ("self" form) was developed by Bills, Vance and McLean (1951). It has been modified for use with several different age levels. The HSIAY (undated) used in this study was revised specifically for use with high school students (Bills 1972).

The instrument includes 37 words in all; these have been derived from Allport's list of traits (Allport and Odbert 1936) choosing words from the 17,953 on the list that occur most often in client-centered therapy. The 124 words taken from the list were filtered through 44 sub-tests then item analyzed to arrive at the index.

The subject is asked to rate himself in respect to three criteria:

Column I--How much of the time the trait word is like the subject.

Column II--How the subject feels about how he describes himself in Column I.

Column III--How much of the time the subject would like the trait to be characteristic of himself.

Subjects are asked to fill in Columns I, II, and III for each word before going on to the next term. Each of the ratings is made on a five-point scale of "seldom" to "often" (Columns I and III) or "very much dislikes" to "very much likes" (Column II). The sum of Column I, with negative traits reversed, equals the Self Score. The sum of Column II is taken as a direct measure of Self-Acceptance. The sum of the

discrepancies between Columns I and III is taken as the Self-Ideal discrepancy from which Self-Satisfaction can be obtained.

Standardization of the HSIIV has included the delimitation of reliability, local validity, and internal validity. Reliability results have indicated that the HSIIV is a highly reliable instrument (Wylie 1961, Bills 1972). The adult form (IAV) has known validity for many uses; the high school form is more recently revised from it and uses are still being investigated.

Precedents were set for use of the IAV by several researchers. Omwake (1954) compared the IAV with two other measurements of self-acceptance and found a close agreement among the three scales. Cowen and Tongas (1959) worked with relating the IAV to social desirability factors. Roberts (1952) tested free-association reaction time to words showing Self-Ideal discrepancy differences. Cowen, Heilzer and Axelrod (1955) used Bills' adjectives with Self-Ideal discrepancies as stimulus words for paired association learning technique. Bills has compared answers given on the IAV to responses to personal interviews and to diverse other measures of emotionality (Bills 1953).

In her review of the literature and research on self-concept, Wylie (1961, p. 70) stated that "much more information is available on the norms, reliability, and validity of this instrument than on any other measure of the self-concept included in this survey." Thus, the IAV has been shown to be a useful measure for determining self-concepts using individual or group-administered techniques.

The Role-Expectations Questionnaire (REQ) is an inventory designed by the author to measure the vocational orientations of high school girls. The concern of this inventory is not with specific choices made such as whether girls plan to attend a vocational school rather than a college but rather to arrive at a more general measure of traditional or modern value orientations. It was designed specifically for use in this study and has not been previously tested for reliability or internal validity. It was designed to investigate the subjects' attitudes towards a career, homemaking, or their interest in combining the two. A Likert-type scale with five responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" was used to answer questions in six related areas: education, career plans, marriage, family, personal goals and hypothetical situations.

Collection of Data

Testing of the low-income girls was done by the Neighborhood Youth Corps counselors. The middle-income girls were tested in the classroom by home-economics teachers. All testing was done in small groups and was followed by group discussion led by an instructor on the topics covered in the questionnaire. Testing was done at one of the regular educational meetings for N.Y.C., and as part of a home-economics unit on marriage and the family for the others. The questionnaires were collected before the discussion groups began.

Treatment of Data

HSIAV research has indicated that the most important scores of the "Self" form can be obtained from the attitude towards the self

(Column II) and discrepancy between self-concept and Ideal Self-concept (Column I and Column III). Discrepancy scores and acceptance of self scores have been found to be highly correlated, so it has been the practice to concentrate on Column II scores (Bills 1972). For simplicity, the "Self" form is scored by obtaining the total score in Column II which is a reflection of self-acceptance. The total score cannot be less than 37, if all items were given a rating of 1, nor higher than 185, if all items were given a rating of 5. The mean self-acceptance score for the High School Index is 142.74 based on a sample of 1635 high school students (Bills 1972). A self-accepting person is seen as having a Column II "Self" score of 143 or more, and was classified, for purposes of this study, as having a positive self-concept.

REQ--the majority of the questions listed on the REQ deal directly with discerning differences between a modern or traditional preference. The modern orientation, for purposes of this study, was viewed as vocationally oriented, expressing concern for individual values, and considering alternative life-styles. The traditional orientation, for this study, was defined as preferring a role of homemaker, and a "family-comes-first" attitude. Of the 32 questions in the main body of the questionnaire, 27 were judged as dealing directly with the traditional-modern dichotomy. For purposes of scoring, poles were reversed as necessary so that a score of 1 indicated agreement with modern orientation, and 5 indicated agreement with traditional orientation. An overall score of 81 (3 = undecided times 27 questions) was set as the dividing line with those scoring below 81 labeled modern, and those scoring above considered traditional.

Arithmetic summation, percentages and chi-square were calculated for the purpose of analysis. Tables were constructed to facilitate analysis of possible relationships between the key variables of self-acceptance, role-expectations, race, SES and parenthood. The level of significance utilized was the .05 level.

Generalizations on the results of this study must take into consideration the limitations of the selection process. Inasmuch as the selection of subjects was not undertaken in a random fashion, generalizations based on the findings cannot be made to the entire population from which the subjects were chosen, i.e., the student body of high school girls. The entire membership of N.Y.C. girls was tested. The N.Y.C. counselors estimate that about 90 percent of the girls from families with incomes low enough to qualify are employed by the program. Students in three home-economics classes were tested. The course is required, but can be taken in either the junior or senior year. All of the completed questionnaires were used in the study. To the extent that the students tested were representative of middle and low-income students, the findings possibly would yield insight concerning prevailing attitudes among high school girls. Should an unknown selective factor be operative, the findings would apply only to the students tested and to the testing situations used for the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data were tabulated with the use of a computer and the hypotheses were tested using chi-square analysis. The hypotheses were primarily arranged in two groups. The first group, hypotheses I to IV, involved the testing of the relationship between self-acceptance and role-expectations, race, SES, and parenthood. The second group, hypothesis V to VII, examined role-expectations of the girls in relation to race, SES, and parenthood. The remaining hypothesis, hypothesis VIII, investigated the relationship between outlook on future plans and several variables.

Hypothesis I which stated that there is no significant relationship between ratings on adjustive values and the choice of role-expectation was accepted (Table 1). The chi-square value required for significance at the .05 level is 3.84. The chi-square value for this relationship was a low .017 indicating that, in this case, role-expectations were not influenced by self-acceptance. These findings contrast with the conclusions of Tyler (1945), Rogers (1951) and White (1959), all of whom suggested that identification with the proper sex-role stereotype is an indication of high self-esteem. The discrepancy may simply be a product of the time difference of the studies. Identification with the stereotyped sex-role may not be assigned the same

Table 1. The Relation Between Responses to Self-Acceptance and Role-Expectations, Race, SES, and Parenthood.

	N	Self-Accepting (n = 45)	Non Self-Accepting (n = 50)	Probability
<u>Role-Expectations</u>				
Traditional	58	44.83%	55.17%	N.S.
Modern	37	51.35	48.65	
<u>Race</u>				
White	50	50.00	50.00	N.S.
Black	45	44.44	56.67	
<u>SES</u>				
Middle-Income	45	60.00	40.00	N.S.*
Low-Income	50	36.00	64.00	
<u>Parenthood</u>				
Some Children	17	17.65	82.35	P .02**
No Children	78	53.85	46.15	

* The x^2 value needed for significance at the .05 level is 3.84. The x^2 value for the above relationship is 3.41. While it is not significant at the .05 level, there is significance indicated at the .10 level.

** C = 5.97.

value by high school girls at the present time. On the other hand, this study's conclusion is in accord with the findings of Engel (1959) and Carlson (1965) who indicated that self-esteem was independent of sex-role identifications.

Hypothesis II which stated that there is no significant relationship between race and self-acceptance was accepted as is shown on Table 1. The chi-square value for this relationship was .095. Hypothesis III which stated that there is no significant relationship between SES and self-acceptance was also accepted (Table 1). The chi-square value of 3.41 was slightly below the value necessary for rejection of the hypothesis at the .05 level, but was significant at the .10 level. Table 2 indicates that although both of the above hypotheses were accepted, a pattern can be seen when subjects were classified by self-acceptance. The middle-income white girls were found to be the most self-accepting, followed by the middle-income black girls. The low-income black girls were the next in the order, and the low-income white girls were the least self-accepting.

Previous research has revealed a lack of definite significance between SES and self-concept (Healey 1970). White, Anderson and Cryder (1966) concluded that other factors, such as extra-curricular activities were more important determinants of self-image than was family background. It would seem most appropriate to concur with Haller and Thomas (1962) who concluded that while SES may affect a number of personality factors, its impact on any one factor is relatively small.

Table 2. Scores on the Index of Adjustment and Values.

	N	Average Score	Percentage Self-Accepting	Percentage Non- Self-Accepting
<u>Race and SES</u>				
Total White	50	141.92	(See Table 1)	
Total Black	45	140.09	" " "	
Total Middle-Class	45	147.60	" " "	
Total Lower-Class	50	133.16	" " "	
Middle-Class White	25	151.28	68.00%	32.00%
Middle-Class Black	20	143.00	50.00	50.00
Lower-Class Whites	25	132.56	32.00	68.00
Lower-Class Black	25	137.76	40.00	60.00
<u>Role-Expectation</u>				
Traditional	58	139.93	(See Table 1)	
Modern	37	143.08	" " "	
<u>Parenthood</u>				
Some Children	17	130.41	(See Table 1)	
No Children	78	143.37	" " "	
TOTAL AVERAGE	45	141.05	47.37	52.63

The most apparent influence on self-acceptance was seen when hypothesis IV was tested. It stated that there would be no significant relationship between girls with children and those with no children on self-acceptance ratings. As Table 1 indicates, hypothesis IV was rejected, and the chi-square value of 5.97 obtained was significant at the .02 level. It is apparent that in the present study, girls who have children while still in high school are considerably less self-accepting than their schoolmates without children.

Hypothesis V stated that there would be no significant relationship between role-expectation and race. This hypothesis was accepted. As seen on Table 3, the chi-square value of 2.85 is not sufficient for rejection of the hypothesis at the .05 level but does have significance at the .10 level. Table 4 reveals that the middle-income black girls emerged as the most traditional group with 75 percent indicating that role choice. The white girls, both middle and low-income, were the least traditional in their choices with 53 percent traditional in each group. The traditional role appears to consistently be the preference of the majority of high school girls with an overall rating of 61 percent preferring the role.

Hypothesis VI stated that there would be no significant relationship between role-expectation and SES. The hypothesis was accepted. As indicated on Table 3, the chi-square value was a low .002. This finding contrasts with the conclusions of Gysbers, Johnston and Gust (1968) who attributed differences between traditional and modern girls to the parental level of education which strongly suggests an SES variable.

Hypothesis VII stated that there would be no significant relationship between role-expectation and whether or not the subject had children. This hypothesis was accepted. A chi-square value of .17 (Table 3) was obtained. All but three of the 17 girls with children were employed part-time when this study was conducted. Despite the fact that they had a child and were employed, the girls did not appear to be more career-oriented, nor more family-oriented in their responses than the girls without children. Possibly the girls with children have already established a balance between work and family values.

Table 3. The Relation Between Responses to Role-Expectations and Self-Acceptance, Race, SES and Parenthood.

	N	Role-Expectation Traditional	Role-Expectation Modern	Probability
		(n = 58)	(n = 37)	
<u>Self-Acceptance</u>				
Self-Accepting	45	57.78%	42.22%	N.S.
Non-Self-Accepting	50	64.00	36.00	
<u>Race</u>				
White	50	52.00	48.00	N.S.*
Black	45	71.11	28.89	
<u>SES</u>				
Middle-Income	45	62.22	37.78	N.S.
Low-Income	50	60.00	40.00	
<u>Parenthood</u>				
Some Children	17	64.70	35.29	N.S.
No Children	78	60.26	39.74	

* The χ^2 value needed for significance at the .05 level is 3.84. The χ^2 value for the above relationship is 2.85. While it is not significant at the .05 level, there is significance indicated at the .10 level.

Table 4. Scores on the Role-Expectations Questionnaire.

	N	Average Score	Percentage Traditional	Percentage Modern
<u>Race and SES</u>				
Total White	50	78.60	(See Table 3)	
Total Black	45	75.16	"	"
Total Middle-Income	45	77.09	"	"
Total Low-Income	50	76.86	"	"
Middle-Income White	25	78.60	53.00%	47.00%
Middle-Income Black	20	75.20	75.00	25.00
Low-Income White	25	78.60	53.00	47.00
Low-Income Black	25	75.12	68.00	32.00
<u>Self-Acceptance</u>				
Self-Accepting	45	76.49	(See Table 3)	
Non-Self-Accepting	50	77.40	"	"
<u>Parenthood</u>				
Some Children	17	74.88	(See Table 3)	
No Children	78	77.29	"	"
TOTAL AVERAGE	95	76.76	61.05	38.95

Judging from the similarity of responses obtained from the girls with no children, they may possibly expect to achieve a similar balance between work and family values in their future homes.

The last part of the Role-Expectations Questionnaire consists of two questions asking the girls to state what they would most like to do in the future, and what they probably will do. The "would most like to do" choice represents their preference and the "probably will do" choice represents their expectation for the future. Hypothesis VIII stated that there is no significant difference between girls who envisioned

themselves as being determiners of their own futures, and those who did not. The girls who listed the same response for both their preference and their expectation were viewed, in the present study, as believing that they will determine their own futures by assuming the role that they prefer. The girls who listed a different response as their expectation were viewed, in this study, as being less secure in their own abilities to create their futures.

The responses by percentages to the above two questions are found in Table 5. The table indicates that for both middle and low-income girls, the most frequent preference and expectation is to work for awhile before marriage. Only one-fourth of the girls indicated education in their plans. This is contrary to school records which indicate that about one-half of the girls can generally be expected to continue their education, either in college or a vocational school, after high school. The choice of a town may have influenced the responses. Waterloo, Iowa, is primarily a factory town and the level of parental education is probably not as high as if the choice had been a suburban area. Since one-half of the girls graduating do go on for additional schooling, parental expectations for increased education may be high. These expectations may influence the girls at a later date but may not yet be internalized values since graduation was not eminent. The girls with children did not indicate significantly lower expectations for additional education, possibly because they are aware that special funding and scholarships are available for them.

Table 5. The Relation Between Plans for the Future and Race, SES, Self-Acceptance, Role-Expectation and Parenthood.

	Race		SES		Self-Accept.		Role-Expect.		Parenthood	
	White (n=50)	Black (n=45)	Middle- Income (n=45)	Low- Income (n=50)	Self- Acc. (n=45)	Non Acc. (n=50)	Trad. (n=58)	Modern (n=37)	Some (n=17)	None (n=78)
<u>Most Like To Do</u>										
Marry after H.S.	12.00%	11.11%	17.78%	6.00%	8.89%	14.00%	17.24%	2.70%	23.53%	8.97%
Work then marry	46.00	33.33	37.78	42.00	35.56	44.00	43.10	35.14	52.94	37.18
Education then marriage	8.00	8.89	11.11	6.00	13.33	4.00	8.62	8.11	5.88	8.97
Education-Work- Marriage	16.00	24.44	24.44	16.00	24.49	16.00	18.97	21.62	11.76	21.79
Education and Marriage	2.00	4.44	4.44	2.00	4.44	2.00	1.72	5.41	0.00	3.84
No Marriage	16.00	15.56	2.22	28.00	11.11	20.00	8.62	27.03	5.88	17.95
Don't Know	0.00	2.22	2.22	0.00	2.22	0.00	1.72	0.00	0.00	1.28
<u>Probably Will Do</u>										
Marry after H.S.	20.00	13.33	15.56	18.00	15.56	18.00	29.31	0.00	29.41	14.10
Work then marry	48.00	46.67	57.78	38.00	40.00	54.00	51.72	37.84	41.18	48.69
Education then marriage	12.00	13.33	13.33	12.00	15.56	10.00	12.07	13.51	17.65	11.54
Education-Work- Marriage	12.00	4.44	6.67	10.00	11.11	6.00	1.72	18.92	0.00	10.26
Education and Marriage	0.00	4.44	4.44	0.00	4.44	0.00	0.00	5.41	0.00	2.56
No Marriage	8.00	15.56	2.22	20.00	11.11	12.00	5.17	21.62	11.76	11.54
Don't Know	0.00	2.22	0.00	2.00	2.22	0.00	0.00	2.70	0.00	1.28

Subjects evidenced differences in their responses to the question asking them to indicate whether or not they preferred to remain single. Marriage directly after high school appeared to be a popular choice for middle-income girls. They listed it as their preference nearly three times as often as lower-income girls. Twenty-eight percent of the low-income girls would prefer to remain unmarried compared to only two percent of the middle-income girls. This preference held equally for black and white girls of the low-income group. It must be mentioned that nearly all of the low-income black girls preferring to remain single also expected to do so. Of the lower-class white girls, half of the ones that preferred to remain single expected that they would probably marry instead. Parenthood does not appear to be a variable influencing preference for married or single status since nearly all of the girls with children preferred to marry even though marriage would eliminate child support.

A strong difference appears in relation to preference for early marital choice between the girls listed as traditional and those listed as modern. Only one of the girls listed as modern would prefer to marry after high school and none of the girls had that expectation. The traditional girls, by contrast, had a fairly high percentage choosing the option of early marriage. The modern girls also had more consistently high expectations of going on for additional education, and of remaining single. These choices appear to substantiate the classification of the girls as either modern or traditional since the choices were not included among the responses used to determine the classification.

Table 6 is an analysis of the subjects' responses to whether or not what they "probably will do" is the same or different from what they "would most like to do" in relation to future plans. The situation being analyzed in Tables 5 and 6 is, in essence, establishing the relationship between these two questions to determine the subjects' outlook on future plans.

The responses given to the above questions were analyzed for hypothesis VIII on Table 6. Hypothesis VIII was rejected. Significant relationships were indicated between the responses for future plans and self-acceptance and role-expectations. The relationship between self-acceptance and the responses held a chi-square value of 4.43 which was significant at the .05 level. Nearly twice as many of the non self-accepting girls expected to encounter a difference between their preference for the future and the actual role they expect to fill. The self-accepting girls appear, in the present study, to be more confident of directing their own futures. The comparison of the responses for future plans to role-expectations indicated a relationship of 8.15 which has significance at the .01 level. Over three times as many of the traditional girls expected a difference between their preferences for the future and their actual expectations. Girls labeled modern, in this study, appear to be more independent and secure in their ability to implement their wishes for the future. The factors of self-acceptance and role-expectations appear, in the present study, to considerably influence the outlook on future plans, but race, SES and parenthood appear to be unrelated to outlook on future plans and for these variables.

Table 6. The Relation Between "Most Like To Do" Responses and "Probably Will Do" Responses by Race, SES, Self-Acceptance, Role-Expectations and Parenthood.

	N	Responses Same	Responses Different	Answered Don't Know	Probability
<u>Race</u>					
White	50	52.00%	48.00%	0.00%	N.S.
Black	45	42.22	53.33	4.44	
<u>SES</u>					
Middle Income	45	53.33	44.44	2.22	N.S.
Lower Income	50	42.00	56.00	2.00	
<u>Self-Acceptance</u>					
Accepting	45	57.78	37.78	4.44	P .05*
Non-Accepting	50	38.00	62.00	0.00	
<u>Role-Expectation</u>					
Traditional	58	36.21	62.07	1.72	P .01*
Modern	37	67.57	29.93	2.70	
<u>Parenthood</u>					
Some Children	17	41.18	58.82	0.00	N.S.
No Children	78	48.72	48.72	2.56	

* C = 4.43.

** C = 8.15.

Recommendations and Implications

The town chosen for this study and the types of schools may have influenced the results obtained. Consolidated schools have recently been introduced there with the extensive use made of busing so the schools no longer have the unique "school personalities" that would show strong differences in attitudes because of differences in location in the town.

Future studies in this area could investigate such contrasts by using suburban, inner-city and parochial schools, and possibly doing rural and urban contrasts as well.

Gribbons and Lohnes (1965) found that the attitudes and expectations of girls change considerably after high school. This would seem to be quite important to keep in mind when discussing the results of this study. Generalizations can be made, at most, only for the age group included in this study. It appears quite likely that the first few years after graduation from high school are considerably more significant for girls than for boys in shaping their attitudes and lifestyles choices. The girls going on for additional education and those working for several years before marriage and living independently of their parents may well be expected to become less traditional in their role-expectations. In view of these possibilities, a replication study done using the same subjects a few years later would be very interesting to discover if these assumptions can indeed be verified.

Standardization of self-esteem inventories is necessary for future testing in related areas. The HSIIV created difficulties in scoring because of language usage oriented to middle-class vocabulary. Words such as "democratic" were misinterpreted by the low-income girls.

The low self-acceptance ratings by girls with children appears to raise considerations for youth counselors who may be consulted about the advisability of keeping a child while the mother is still in high school. Parenthood at an early age may influence self-esteem in a negative manner. Several other possibilities such as marital status may

also influence the extent to which early parenthood affects self-image. Another consideration is that girls with low self-acceptance may be more likely to have children at an early age. Possibly the children were even desired in an effort to bolster self-esteem.

The relationship that self-acceptance and role-expectations have with outlook on future plans might also be considered by program planners. Schools and other organizations working with students should be aware that self-acceptance and a career orientation both positively influence students' perceptions of their own roles in determining their futures. Development in both of these areas should be encouraged in programs designed for youth.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

It was the purpose of this study to investigate the effects of race, SES and parenthood of high school girls on their self-acceptance and role-expectations. Many researchers in psychology, sociology and education have studied closely associated topics, such as the effects of self-esteem or school achievement, but few have examined the societal role-expectations which are in a rapid stage of development at that stage of life. Those studies which have approached this subject are far from conclusive and their findings are often contradictory.

In the present study, the sample of students consisted of 95 junior and senior girls from the public schools of Waterloo, Iowa. They were divided into four sub-groups for the purpose of analysis: white middle-income, black middle-income, white low-income and black low-income. Two questionnaires were administered to each of these students with the assistance of Neighborhood Youth Corps counselors and home-economics instructors. The two questionnaires were presented together to the students. The first questionnaire was the high school form of the Index of Adjustment and Values by Bills, Vance and McLean designed to measure self-acceptance. The second questionnaire was designed by the author to measure the role-expectations of the high school girls participating in the study. The questions were designed to distinguish between modern and traditional orientations to careers and homemaking.

The data were collected and tabulated with the aid of a computer. Eight hypotheses were tested. Chi-square was used for the statistical analysis of responses. The .05 level of significance was used as the criteria for acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses examined.

Hypotheses I through III were accepted. This first group of hypotheses stated that there are no significant relationships between self-acceptance and role-expectations, race and SES. Hypothesis IV which stated that there is no significant relationship between self-acceptance and parenthood was rejected at the .02 level of significance. Girls with children were considerably less self-accepting in their responses.

Hypotheses V through VII were accepted. This second group of hypotheses stated that there are no significant relationships between role-expectations and race, SES and parenthood. Two hypothetical questions were presented to the girls. These formed the basis for hypothesis VIII which stated that there is no significant relationship between girls who envision themselves as being determiners of their own futures and those who do not. When the relationship between the hypothetical plans for the future and self-acceptance was investigated, significance was indicated at the .05 level. Responses for future plans were compared with role-expectations and significance was indicated at the .01 level. Hypothesis VIII was rejected when the variables employed were self-acceptance and role-expectations. The hypothesis could not be rejected when the variables employed were race, SES and parenthood.

The two hypothetical questions asked the girls to state both their preference and their expectation for the future. Analysis of the responses indicated that both middle and low-income girls preferred and expected to work for awhile after high school and before marriage. Significant variations were seen between income groups concerning such factors as the choice of remaining single.

In conclusion, three findings in the present study appear to be of significance. High school girls who have children are less self-accepting than their schoolmates. Both self-accepting girls and girls with a modern, or career, orientation indicated more confidence about deciding their own futures.

It is apparent that additional studies need to be done in this area of research. The conclusions in most of the studies done to date are often too contradictory to serve as the base for a body of theory. The present study indicated that race and SES are not strict determinants of self-acceptance or role-expectations. A whole series of variables operates to produce a young adult with a high or low measure of self-acceptance, with traditional or modern attitudes towards roles, and with confidence or a lack of confidence in the ability to shape one's own future.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE *

The purpose of this questionnaire is to measure some of your attitudes about the roles that women hold in this society. We would first like you to answer some questions on the ways that you see yourself as being, and the ways that you would like to be. The second set of questions will ask you to specify the kinds of home and/or working conditions that you would like to have in the future. There are no right or wrong answers. Since your name is not required, please be as honest as possible in your answers. Your participation in this project is greatly appreciated.

1. Grade Classification:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1. Freshman | <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Junior |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Sophomore | <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Senior |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5. Graduate | |

2. Marital Status:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1. Single | <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Divorced |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Married | <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Other
(specify) |

3. Number of Children:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1. None | <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Two |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2. One | <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Three |

4. Race:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1. White | <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Oriental |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Black | <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Other
(specify) |

* The HSIIV was used with the written permission of the author, R. E. Bills.

INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES (HIGH SCHOOL FORM)"SELF" INSTRUCTIONS FOR HSIIV

There is a need for each of us to know more about ourselves, but seldom do we have an opportunity to look at ourselves as we are or as we would like to be. On the next page is a list of terms that to a certain degree describe people. Take each word separately and apply it to yourself by completing the following sentence:

I AM A(AN) _____ PERSON.

The first word in the list is jolly, so you would substitute this term in the above sentence. It would read--I am a jolly person.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COLUMN I (next page)

Then decide HOW MUCH OF THE TIME this statement is like you and rate yourself on a scale from 1 to 5 according to the following key.

1. Seldom, is this like me.
2. Occasionally, this is like me.
3. About half of the time, this is like me.
4. A good deal of the time, this is like me.
5. Most of the time, this is like me.

EXAMPLE: Beside the term JOLLY, number 2 can be inserted to indicate that--occasionally, I am a jolly person.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COLUMN II (next page)

Now go to Column II. Use one of the statements given below to tell HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOURSELF as described in Column I.

1. I very much dislike being as I am in this respect.
2. I dislike being as I am in this respect.
3. I neither dislike being as I am nor like being as I am in this respect.
4. I like being as I am in this respect.
5. I like very much being as I am in this respect.

You will select the number beside the statement that tells how you feel about the way you are and insert the number in Column II.

EXAMPLE: In Column II beside the term JOLLY, number 1 is inserted to indicate that I dislike very much being as I am in respect to the term, jolly. Note that being as I am always refers to the way you described yourself in Column I.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COLUMN III (next page)

Finally, go to Column III; using the same term, complete the following sentence:

I WOULD LIKE TO BE A(AN) _____ PERSON.

Then decide HOW MUCH OF THE TIME you would like this trait to be characteristic of you and rate yourself on the following five point scale.

1. Seldom, would I like this to be me.
2. Occasionally, I would like this to be me.
3. About half of the time, I would like this to be me.
4. A good deal of the time, I would like this to be me.
5. Most of the time, I would like this to be me.

You will select the number beside the phrase that tells how much of the time you would like to be this kind of person and insert the number in Column III.

EXAMPLE: In Column III beside the term JOLLY, the number 5 is inserted to indicate that most of the time, I would like to be this kind of person.

Start with the word ACTIVE and fill in Column I, II, and III before going on to the next word. There is no time limit. Be honest with yourself so that your description will be a true measure of how you look at yourself.

	I	II	III		I	II	III
a. <u>JOLLY</u>	___	___	___	19. kind	___	___	___
1. active	___	___	___	20. loyal	___	___	___
2. alert	___	___	___	21. neat	___	___	___
3. carefree	___	___	___	22. obedient	___	___	___
4. cheerful	___	___	___	23. patient	___	___	___
5. considerate	___	___	___	24. playful	___	___	___
6. cooperative	___	___	___	25. polite	___	___	___
7. courteous	___	___	___	26. quiet	___	___	___
8. dependable	___	___	___	27. sharing	___	___	___
9. democratic	___	___	___	28. sincere	___	___	___
10. faithful	___	___	___	29. studious	___	___	___
11. friendly	___	___	___	30. sociable	___	___	___
12. generous	___	___	___	31. tactful	___	___	___
13. happy	___	___	___	32. thoughtful	___	___	___
14. helpful	___	___	___	33. thrifty	___	___	___
15. honest	___	___	___	34. trustworthy	___	___	___
16. humorous	___	___	___	35. truthful	___	___	___
17. intelligent	___	___	___	36. understanding	___	___	___
18. interesting	___	___	___	37. unselfish	___	___	___

KEY: Column I--How much of the time this statement is like me?

Column II--Tell whether you like or dislike being the way you described yourself in Column I.

Column III--How much of the time would you like this trait to be characteristic of you?

ROLE-EXPECTATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer the following questions according to the way you view them and the relative importance that these have (or lack) for you, not for the society in general. Please respond with your first impressions; don't linger over any of them, and don't go back to change an answer once it is recorded. Please circle the symbol which best describes your attitude concerning each of the statements.

SYMBOLS: SA = Strongly Agree
 A = Agree
 U = Undecided
 D = Disagree
 SD = Strongly Disagree

EDUCATION:

1. For the type of future that I would like for myself, a college education would serve relatively little purpose. SA A U D SD
2. Vocational schools (business or beauty schools, etc.) the kind of practical training that I want to take. SA A U D SD
3. Men should receive preference in aid and scholarships for further education after high school since they will work longer and support families. SA A U D SD
4. A college degree is rapidly becoming a necessity for doing anything useful in this society. SA A U D SD
5. A college education has little functional value for a woman who plans to be a full-time homemaker and mother. SA A U D SD

CAREER PLANS: (Note--in the context of this question, a job = a work situation requiring little or no special skills or training in advance; a career = a work situation of a relatively permanent nature requiring training or education (or both) and carries with it more responsibility).

1. I plan to work full-time (job or career) for at least a few years after I leave school, or at some later time. SA A U D SD
2. I would be more likely to take a job rather than to take on a career and the responsibilities connected with it. SA A U D SD

3. Because of the way our society functions, I believe that women can usually succeed only in those areas traditionally considered feminine (nurse, secretary, etc.). SA A U D SD
4. The roles of homemaker and mother should take preference over career or job aspirations. SA A U D SD
5. My husband's work will always come first. Even if I were offered career advancements that I had long desired in another town, I would not ask him to relocate and change jobs for it. SA A U D SD
6. After I marry, I would prefer to be a full-time homemaker. SA A U D SD
7. I feel that I would like to combine homemaking, a family, and a career or job. SA A U D SD

MARRIAGE:

1. Despite all the new life-styles developing, traditional, monogamous marriage (one husband and one wife legally married) would still meet my needs best. SA A U D SD
2. Marriage may be in conflict with personal growth and awareness and should be postponed until such time as I have established a secure personal identity. SA A U D SD
3. Earlier marriages which provide for maturing together while you are still young would make a closer marriage without sacrificing personality development of the individuals. SA A U D SD
4. I believe that remaining single may best provide the kinds of opportunities that I would like. SA A U D SD
5. Should marriage not allow for the amount of independence and personal satisfaction that I desire, it should be ended to allow for my personal growth. SA A U D SD
6. Renewable marriage contracts or trial-marriages would probably be alternatives that I would consider trying. SA A U D SD

7. I believe that alternatives to traditional marriage (i.e., group marriage, communal family groups, etc.) might possibly suit my needs better than monogamy.

SA A U D SD

FAMILY LIVING: (answer according to your thoughts on your future family situation)

1. My place should be at home while the children are young.
2. I'm not sure that the rewards of motherhood would outweigh the inconveniences, and I'm not convinced that I want children.
3. If qualified day-care centers are available, I would probably prefer to send my child there to allow me time for a job or career.
4. There is enough enjoyment and variety in the family unit and its related activities (i.e., church, P.T.A., etc.) that individual outside activities for me should not be necessary.
5. I feel that I need and would enjoy activities of my own apart from my family.
6. I would rather be viewed by the society as being a successful wife and mother than as a successful individual (i.e., artist, teacher, dept. manager, etc.).

SA A U D SD

PERSONAL GOALS:

1. I have a life goal or goals independent of my future family that I will not compromise or give up for them.
2. On a daily basis, my family's interests or my job's demands should be given preference over my personal desires.

SA A U D SD

SA A U D SD

HYPOTHETICAL SITUATIONS:

1. Your husband isn't very satisfied with a regular work routine and enjoys the home and children. You would volunteer to share working responsibilities (each work half-time) or you would decide to work full-time and leave the housekeeping and child-rearing duties to him.

SA A U D SD

2. You receive an inheritance from an unexpected source; your husband feels that it should go into the family savings account, but since it was left to you, you decide to place it in a separate account so that you alone can determine the uses for it. SA A U D SD
3. The children are in school and you have been offered a job that you would like to try. Your husband feels very strongly that you should be always at home to keep it the warm place that he and the children expect. You should defer to his wishes since he is the head of the family. SA A U D SD
4. Mr. A meets Miss B at a party and they find that they have compatible interests. Mr. A is debating whether he should try to coax her into spending the night with him when Miss A suddenly propositions him. Mr. A is right in feeling threatened by her forward approach. SA A U D SD
5. You work during the day because you enjoy being recognized for your achievements. Since your husband doesn't particularly want you to work, you should still take care of all the housework and child-care chores without expecting help from him. SA A U D SD

Listed below are several work and homemaking possibilities. Please read them through and then answer the questions directly following.

1. Marriage after high school.
2. Job, then marriage.
3. College or post-high school education (vocational) followed by marriage.
4. College or post-high school education (vocational) followed by work experience then marriage.
5. College and marriage at the same time.
6. Career goal without marriage.
7. Other (specify).

Of the possibilities listed above:

1. I would most like to do number _____.
2. I most probably will do number _____.

THANK YOU

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