RELATIONSHIP OF FEMALE ACCEPTANCE OR REJECTION OF DOUBLE SEX STANDARDS TO SELECTED VARIABLES

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the North Texas State University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Bradley Frank Williams, M. S.
Denton, Texas
December, 1977
Williams, Bradley F., Relationship of Female Acceptance or Rejection of Double Sex Standards to Selected Variables. Doctor of Philosophy (College Teaching), December, 1977, 134 pp., 15 tables, bibliography, 181 titles.

The problem of this study was to determine the relationship of double sex standards to achievement and to selected personality variables of female college students.

The following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1
Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will be found to have a higher grade-point average than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 2
Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will have greater internal locus of control than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 3
Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will be more influenced by powerful others than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 4
Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will show a greater tendency to believe that chance controls
their lives than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 5
Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will have a greater fear of negative evaluation than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 6
Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will show more motivation to succeed than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards.

Senior women at North Texas State University were utilized in this study. There were 150 subjects. Written permission for access to grade-point average was secured and subjects completed the following instruments: MacDonald's Sex-Role Survey; Rotter's I-E Scale; Levenson's Internal, Powerful Others, and Chance Scales; Watson and Friend's Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale; and Edward's Motivated to Succeed Scale from the Edward's Personality Inventory.

The scores for the Sex-Role Survey were ranked. Those women scoring in the top and bottom thirds were included in the data analysis. The top third of the ranking represent high support for equality between the sexes. The bottom third of the ranking represent low support for equality between the sexes. The scores from each of the other instruments served as the dependent variables in the study. A
one-way analysis of variance was applied in evaluating the two comparison groups in terms of the stated hypotheses. For the purposes of hypothesis testing, all the hypotheses were stated in the null form. The null hypothesis was retained if the .05 level of significance was not reached.

The testing of hypotheses resulted in rejection of Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 6, and acceptance of the remaining four hypotheses. The conclusions, limited to the subjects included in the study, are that women who differ greatly on the subject of equality between the sexes do not differ in their scholastic achievement or in their motivation to succeed. In terms of the variable of locus of control, it is concluded that in the two groups studied women who show high support for equality between the sexes are more internal and women who show low support for equality are more external as a group. Lastly, the conclusion can be made that women in the group who reject equality between the sexes are more fearful of receiving negative evaluations of their behavior.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Chapter

### I. INTRODUCTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Statement of the Problem
- Purpose of the Study
- Hypotheses
- Definition of Terms
- Basic Assumptions
- Delimitations

### II. BACKGROUND AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Double Sex Standards
- Summary
- Achievement by Women
- Summary
- Internal-External Locus of Control in Achievement
- Summary

### III. METHOD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Subjects
- Instruments
- Procedures for Collection of Data
- Procedures for Treatment of the Data

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## APPENDICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**LIST OF TABLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Grade-Point Average&quot;</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Grade-Point Average&quot;</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Internal Locus of Control&quot;</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Locus of Control&quot;</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B for Internal-External Locus of Control</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Internal-External Locus of Control&quot;</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Powerful Others&quot;</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII. Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Influence by Powerful Others&quot;</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX. Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Chance&quot;</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X. Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Chance&quot;</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI. Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Fear of Negative Evaluation&quot;</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Fear of Negative Evaluation&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>Means and Standard Deviations for Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Motivated to Succeed&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance Data for the Comparison of Group A and Group B on the Variable &quot;Motivated to Succeed&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>Correlation Matrix of Variables Utilized</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the American society, women have failed to achieve success at the highest levels of occupation and education. For years our culture has held a set of beliefs which assigns the female to a nonassertive, nonaggressive, and nonachieving role. The statement below by the pediatrician Benjamin Spock illustrates this set of beliefs.

I believe that women are designed in their deepest instincts to get more pleasure out of life. . . when they are not aggressive. To put it another way, I think that when women are encouraged to be competitive too many of them become disagreeable (1, pp. 32-33).

Many writers and researchers believe that the problem of relatively low achievement motivation for the American female is directly related to sex role distinctions which our society assigns to males and females. This situation has assigned the roles of homemaker or breadwinner solely upon the basis of sex.

For years research has been directed toward achievement motivation. Numerous variables have been found to be consistent predictors of male achievement patterns. These same variables when applied to females have been inconsistent and unreliable. More research is needed in order to gain a better understanding of such complex factors as acceptance
of sex standards related to women, need for achievement, fear of success, and achievement outcomes.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the relationship of double sex standards to achievement and to selected personality variables of female college students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether female acceptance of double sex standards has an adverse effect upon the following characteristics of female college students:

1. Academic achievement
2. Locus of control
3. Negative evaluation
4. Need for achievement

Hypotheses

To carry out the purpose of this study the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1

Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will be found to have a higher grade-point average than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 2

Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will
have greater internal locus of control than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 3

Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will be more influenced by powerful others than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 4

Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will show a greater tendency to believe that chance controls their lives than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 5

Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will have a greater fear of negative evaluation than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards.

Hypothesis 6

Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will show more motivation to succeed than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following definitions were formulated:

1. Double Sex Standards - An individual's generalized non-support for equality between the sexes operating across a variety of situations.
2. **Internal Locus of Control** - A generalized expectancy, operating across a variety of situations, in which an individual perceives his rewards as a consequence of his own responses based upon his own skills and abilities.

3. **External Locus of Control** - A generalized expectancy, operating across a variety of situations, in which an individual perceives his rewards as a consequence of forces beyond his control, such as luck, fate, or the influence of powerful others.

4. **Powerful Others** - Any individual, other than himself, or any group to which a person attributes his rewards.

5. **Traditional Sex-Role** - An acceptance of American values holding that there are distinctive inherent behavioral patterns for which each sex must adhere.

6. **Non-Traditional Sex-Role** - An acceptance of American values which minimizes distinctive behavioral patterns for each sex.

7. **Group A** - Those members of the sample group who were found to demonstrate a low acceptance of double sex standards.

8. **Group B** - Those members of the sample group who were found to demonstrate a high acceptance of double sex standards.
Basic Assumptions

It was assumed that the instruments utilized in this study yield valid measures of the characteristics for which they are used.

It was assumed that each subject would participate fully and honestly in the study.

Delimitations

This study was limited to the populations of Senior female students enrolled in the spring, 1977, session at North Texas State University, Denton, Texas. Seniors were identified as those women who had completed at least ninety semester hours of work as defined by North Texas State University. Participation in the study was by means of securing volunteers from the defined population.

Only those students who scored in the top third and bottom third on the instrument measuring the degree of acceptance or rejectance of double sex standards were included in the data analysis. This method was chosen for the purpose of identifying those students who hold the most extreme position on this variable for purpose of comparison with other researched variables.

Appropriate caution should be utilized in assuming generalization to samples drawn from populations different from the present study.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Double Sex Standards

In every society various sets of values exist which permeate its major institutions. Among these values are sex-role stereotypes, or double sex standards, the highly consensual norms and beliefs about the differing characteristics of men and women, the "should" and the "should nots" of appropriate sex roles. Gender-related norms vary from culture to culture and reflect differences in socialization of children and the organization of societal institutions. Considerable study has occurred in recent years in an attempt to understand the sex role stereotypes of the American culture and their implications.

Evidence of the existence of double sex standards in our culture is abundantly present in the literature (9, 14, 31, 33, 82). Freud (29) had a large influence upon the present view concerning sex differences. Freud accounted for male activity and female passivity in relation to genetic and constitutional differences between the sexes. In stereotypical terms males were viewed as being aggressive, achieving, self-willed, intellectually superior, and competent; females were seen as being nurturing, dependent,
passive, incompetent, warm, and expressive. For years psychology has assumed that masculinity and feminity are opposite to each other at two ends of a continuum (81).

These beliefs not only exist in the limbo of abstract theory, but they also govern actual practice. A recent study by Broverman and associates (9) cites evidence for the hypothesis that many clinicians view female patients in much the same way Freud viewed his. Seventy-nine clinical psychologists were asked to complete a sex-role stereotype questionnaire. The questionnaires consisted of 122 bipolar items, each of which described a behavior or trait. When instructed to check off those traits that describe healthy male, female, or adult (sex unspecified) behavior, significant differences were found. Though male and adult (sex unspecified) mental health standards were similar in the study, they differed from female mental health standards. Both female and male clinical psychologists saw mature healthy women as more submissive, less independent, less competent, less objective, and less logical than either mature healthy males or adults (sex unspecified). Thus, women are placed in a double bind, Broverman and associates state.

If women assume the behaviors which are reviewed as healthy and desirable for adults, they risk censure for the failure to be appropriately feminine, but if they adopt the designated feminine behavior they are deficient in regards to the standard applied to healthy adult behavior (9).
As well as complying closely with Freud's opinion of women, these clinicians' views parallel the traditional sex-roles prevalent in our society.

If clinical psychologists and society see women as less healthy than men, it would make sense to find greater numbers of women than men in psychiatric treatment. Chesler (14) in an analysis of National Institute of Mental Health statistics, found that 125,351 more women than men were psychiatrically hospitalized from 1964 to 1968. There were also more females than males in private treatment centers. Chesler (14) goes on to discuss the possibility of mental illness in women being related to the "feminine role." When men deviate from socially acceptable behavior they tend to be destructive, hostile toward others, and self-indulgent. Thus, they are more likely to show symptoms in socially deviant ways such as robbery, rape, drinking, and homosexuality. Women's deviant behaviors are more often self-critical and self-destructive; their symptoms are more often depression, suicidal thoughts, or suicidal attempts. These statements suggest that more males would be found in our prisons, more females in mental hospitals.

Phillips and Segal (71) found that with the number of physical and psychiatric illnesses held constant for a group of men and women, more women applied for psychiatric care. Their explanation for the difference included the acceptance
or non-acceptance of sex-roles as a factor. The following quotation expresses their sentiments:

Sensitive or emotional behavior is more tolerated in women, to the point of aberration, while self-assertive, aggressive, rigorous physical demonstrations are more tolerated among men (71).

Norms governing the sex standards are clearly defined and endorsed across age levels, socioeconomic levels, and marital status (10, 59, 67). Children learn cultural sex-role definitions by early elementary school and these are well-ingrained by time of adolescence (58, 85). Sex-role stereotypes become a powerful socialization force on children's development (67). Bem and Bem (5) cite studies which showed that six-month-old girls were being touched and spoken to more by their mothers than were infant boys. At thirteen months, the girls remained closer throughout a play period to their mothers than did the boys. When a barrier was placed between mother and child, the girls tended more to cry and motion for help, while the boys made more active attempts to cross the barrier. By the time young men and women apply for college, men score significantly higher on math-aptitude tests than do women. When problems requiring the same abstract reasoning are reworded to deal with cooking and gardening, women's scores improve.

Sex-role stereotypes also play a strong role in shaping a person's self concept (24). Both males and females incorporate the appropriate sex standards into their personality
and self-concepts. Broverman and associates (9) found that stereotypically feminine traits were given negative social values more frequently than masculine traits. These authors stated that "this trite-seeming phenomenon conceals a powerful, negative assessment of women." Putman and Hansen (75) found that, in general, females have a more negative self image than males. Goldberg (30) found that women are biased against women. Women gave higher ratings to an article when its purported author was a male. This held true not only in traditionally masculine fields, but also in fields dominated by women, such as elementary school teaching and dietetics in which the preponderance of professional journal articles are authored by women. In the clinical setting, Chesler (14) reports that both sexes prefer a male to a female therapist. Both sexes held more trust and respect for men, as people and as authorities, than for women. Women were generally mistrusted or feared.

Gump's (36) research supports the assumption that for a woman a higher self concept is inversely related to an adoption of the traditional sex-role. Purposive, resourceful, and self-directed women are less traditional in their sex-role orientations. Lipman-Blumen (58) in a study dividing college women into two categories of sex-role ideology, traditional and contemporary, reveals some influences in a girl's development that determine her views in this area. A woman with traditional sex-role ideology believes that
under ordinary circumstances women belong in the home, caring for children and carrying out domestic duties. Men are believed responsible for the financial support of the family. A women with traditional views would be more likely than would her contemporary counterpart to have such factors in her background as: parent's marriage dominated by the father; mother satisfied with life and with being a homemaker; both parents equally admired by the daughter; daughter trying to please both parents equally; neither parent extremely critical or frustrating; and daughter rating herself as much less lonely than others in adolescence.

Non-traditional sex-role ideology dictates that relationships between women and men are ideally equalitarian and that wives and husbands may share domestic, child-rearing, and financial responsibilities. A woman holding these views would tend to have the following factors in her background more often than would her traditional peer: parents' marriage dominated by wife or neither parent; mother dissatisfied with life and with homemaker role; daughter encouraged by both parents to go to graduate school; neither parent most admired; critical mother or both parents critical; and daughter tending to perceive herself as being lonelier than others during adolescence. What would appear to be some of the most obvious factors, such as parents' income, education or occupation, childhood religion, and homes disrupted by death or divorce, did not significantly affect a women's sex-role ideology.
As the preceding clearly suggests, there is great diversity in beliefs concerning appropriate sex-roles for women, just as there is diversity on most subjects in most populations. Some researchers believe that views of appropriate sex-roles are changing. Voss and Skinner (94) compared perceptions of female sex roles held by a group of college women in 1973 with perceptions held by a similar group in 1969. Significant differences were found between the two groups. The 1973 group of married college women perceived themselves as having extra-familial orientation to a greater degree than did the 1969 group. The 1973 group of single women perceived man's ideal woman as having intra-familial orientation, but the 1969 group of single women showed an even greater amount of intra-familial orientation than did the 1973. The experimenters concluded that married and single women appear

... less influenced by traditional stereotypes regarding femininity and more concerned with their personal growth and development outside of the family (94).

Elman, Press, and Rosenkrantz (24) studied the "ideal" female among college students and found during the college years a shift in sex standard attitudes towards a more flexible sex-typing in which both males and females possess similar desirable traits. Indeed, O'Leary (68) found the males' "ideal" female to be significantly more competent, adventuresome, and independent than either the females'
actual self ratings, the males' self ratings, or the females' ratings of their "ideal" male. Males' self ratings revealed that they did not perceive themselves to be as bright as females or as their "ideal" others. Nor did they feel as superior as the females indicated they felt. Only the differences in the male and female actual self ratings and the females' rating of the "ideal" male tended to reflect the traditional cultural sex-role stereotypes. As the authors state it, "... the men seemed to be begging not to be called Male Chauvinist Pigs."

Other studies show individuals diverging from stereotypical expectations. Hochreich (43), testing sex-role stereotypes with regard to locus of control, found subjects' actual I-E scores on Rotter's scale to diverge considerably from same-sex stereotypes. It is suggested that responses on the Rotter scale were not determined by a desire to present oneself as very feminine or masculine. Lunneborg (59) explored stereotypic thinking in relation to sex differences in personality. He instructed subjects to give the answer they thought most individuals of the opposite sex would give on fourteen scales of the Edwards Personality Inventory. Responses to stereotypic instructions were compared with self-descriptive responses of Edwards' normative college sample. The stereotypical instructions both exaggerated existing sex differences and created differences which males and females did not normally acknowledge in their responses.
Kranetz (53) hypothesized that because of the women's movement, women would not perceive women and men in terms of sex-role stereotypes. Results demonstrated that descriptions of men and women by both members and non-members of women's liberation movement most frequently followed a social desirability scale rather than one of sex-role stereotypes. In an extension and replication of Goldberg's "Are Women Prejudicial Against Women?" (30), Levenson (57) obtained directly opposite results to that of Goldberg's. While Goldberg had found that women rated articles significantly higher when the purported author was a male, female subjects in the Levenson study rated higher, with a statistical significance below .01, articles supposedly written by a female.

Another sign of change of the sex-roles is that studies show that masculinity and femininity are not opposite ends of a continuum. Sannito and associates (81) cite authors who have rejected this common assumption. These researchers have found support for the theory that femininity and masculinity can be better described by two separate continua—most masculine/least masculine and most feminine/least feminine. Their results showed that the "most feminine person" concept correlated .42 with the "most masculine person" concept. This indicates a relatively low relationship.

Bem and Bem (5) suggest that this change is only on the surface, that our sexist ideology has been "obscured by an equalitarian veneer," and has thus become "nonconscious."
Hymer and Atkins (46) found that women expressed more favorable attitudes toward change than previously, but that corresponding changes in sex-role behaviors were much slower in appearing. Double sex standards are deeply ingrained in the attitudes of American society. The behaviors which they dictate are slow to change and resist any modification.

Summary

Several points should be re-emphasized. The literature readily reflects the existence of double sex standards in our culture. Freud had a large influence upon the present view concerning sex differences. He viewed the male and female sex traits as being on opposite ends of a continuum. In stereotypical terms males are viewed as being aggressive, achieving, self-willed, and intellectually superior; females are viewed as nurturing, dependent, passive, incompetent, and warm.

Various studies in the late sixties and early seventies found that these theories and beliefs not only exist in the limbo of abstract theory, but that they also govern actual practice. It was found in two different studies that practicing clinical psychologists viewed their patients in the same stereotypical way as had Freud. Stereotypically, women are viewed as less mentally healthy than are others, including men, and a larger number of women than men are found in psychiatric treatment centers.
Several studies have shown that children learn cultural sex-role definitions which become a powerful socialization force in children's development. Child-rearing practices are different for boys from that of girls. As a result of this influence on the personality development of the child, males and females incorporate the appropriate sex standards into their personality and self concepts. Females were found to have lower self concepts than males. It was found in several studies that women had to be less traditional in their sex-role orientation in order to be self-directed, competent, and resourceful.

Some of the later research from the seventies indicates that a change in the views of our society toward appropriate sex-role is occurring. It has been found that the male's "ideal" female is significantly more competent and independent than previously she was thought to be. It was often found, however, that self concept still is related to sex-role stereotypes. Change in the area of sex-role stereotypes is occurring, but it is a slow, long process.

Achievement by Women

Sex-role stereotypes influence the achievement level of females. Women are caught in a conflict, unable to fulfill the sex-role requirement for the "traditional feminine-ideal" and at the same time exhibit the positive, socially desirable achieving characteristics of men and adults (9, 67). O'Leary (67) found that it is not so much the actual success or
achievement of women which causes conflict as it is the
deviant nature of their action.

Pheterson, Kiesler, and Goldberg (70), in a study of
the conditions under which women are prejudiced against women,
concluded that women attempting to accomplish work are judged
less favorably than men, but that women who have successfully
accomplished work are judged as favorably as are men. These
authors conclude that even if a woman accepts achievement as
appropriate for herself, she will be perceived by her peers
as less capable at the beginning of her pursuits (than her
male counterpart).

Stein and Bailey (84) report that many of the personal-
ity attributes which are defined, such as non-assertiveness
and dependency, are in conflict with achievement motivation
as it is usually manifested in intellectual and occupational
texts. Lipman-Blumen (58) found that young women with non-
traditional sex-role concepts have higher educational aspir-
ations than do women with more traditional sex-role standards.
Doherty and Culver (21) found a significant relationship
between a non-traditional, personal-fulfillment oriented
female sex-role perception and ability. When the authors
controlled for intelligence, they found that the more non-
traditional the orientation of the girl's sex-role percep-
tion, the lower her class standing; and the more traditional
a girl's sex-role perception, the higher her class rank.
There was also a positive correlation between a non-traditional viewpoint and higher educational aspirations.

Alper (2) reports the following:

Highly competitive women, bright, academically achieving high school girls, and intellectually-oriented coeds show achievement motivation patterns similar to those found in males, while underachieving high school girls, women's-role-oriented coeds and unselected samples of coeds do not. In short, some women may accept achievement as female-appropriate while others do not.

This variation in pursuit and degree of achievement among women is widespread (9, 14, 30, 75). In an investigation of social power and sex-role stereotyping Johnson (49) theorized that men and women would differ in their preference for various bases of power. Referent, helpless, and indirect power was expected of females, while expert, legitimate, and informational power was expected of males. Results showed that women more often chose female powers, while males chose the traditionally male powers.

Veroff, Wilcox, and Atkinson (93), utilizing thematic apperception stories, demonstrated for both male and female subjects greater achievement-related responses to pictures containing male characters. Motivation for achievement in our culture seems to be primarily expressed in imaginative stores in which the central character is male.

Lenney (54) reports that although the literature shows lack of self-confidence to be a frequent hindrance to women, they are not lower in self-confidence than men in every achievement situation. Further research is needed, but at
present it appears that the sex difference in self-confidence depends upon situation variables, such as the "specific ability area," the "availability of performance feedback," and the "emphasis placed upon social comparisons or evaluations."

O'Leary (67) related Bardwick's (4) suggestion that

... the value one places on the self determines the level of self-esteem and the lower a person's self-esteem the greater the anxiety and the greater the tendency to assume a societally prescribed role.

This statement gives another view of women's double bind. If a woman wants to align herself with the feminine stereotype, her self-concept must be kept at a low level. This low self-concept will, in turn, bind her more tightly to her prescribed role.

The occupation a woman chooses may be related to the degree to which she identifies with the feminine stereotype. Putman and Hansen (75), in a study researching the relationship of the feminine role and self-concepts to vocational maturity, found that the more the girl viewed her role as being self-oriented (that is, as seeking fulfillment in life by actualizing one's own potentialities), the higher her level of vocational maturity. Concepts used to measure vocational maturity were as follows:

1. involvement in the choice process
2. orientation toward work
3. independence in decision making
(4) preference for vocational choice factors
(5) conception of the choice process

Gump (36) showed that a majority of women believe it possible simultaneously to assume the role of wife and mother and to pursue outside interests. Differences in ego strength were easily associated with plans for marriage and career, with subjects obtaining the highest ego strength scores actively pursuing both objectives.

Gove and Tudor (33) reported that women think about a career in terms of what men will do, whereas men perceive their career in terms of their own needs. Hawley (38) reported that the careers women choose and their perceptions of men's views of the feminine ideal are related. Women who think men view behaviors as innately feminine or masculine choose traditionally feminine occupations. Women who believe men do not see behaviors as sex-linked are more likely to choose careers other than those traditionally chosen by women.

Gordon and Hall (31) found that the number of conflicts a woman experienced involving roles outside the home was dependent upon her perceptions of the male's stereotype of femininity. Women who reported themselves as being happy about their lives perceived the male's stereotypic female to have greater emotional and physical strength, to be more nurturant, to show more agreeable behavior in interpersonal settings, and to be less emotional than did women who reported themselves as unhappy about their lives. Thus, dependence on the male that
is so much a part of the feminine stereotype still exists to a great extent in the career woman. Lipman-Blumen (58) stated that women who sought to satisfy their need for achievement through their husband's aspirations tended to have lower educational goals than did women who sought achievement partly or wholly through their own efforts. As adults, women on the whole have been found to have a much lower rate of achievement than have men, even though in childhood they were equal (50, 84).

Through research there have evolved fairly consistent findings concerning achievement by men (2, 16, 84). The most widely known theory of achievement motivation was proposed by McClelland as cited by Stein and Bailey (84). His concept of achievement motivation consisted of a relatively stable disposition to strive for success in any situation where standards of excellence are applied.

A majority of the theories for achievement motivation evolved around the consistent findings based upon males (67, 84). These same theories when applied to females are not consistent predictors. Investigations of women's needs to achieve have produced puzzling and ambiguous results (2, 16, 25, 84, 93). Entwisle (25) was unable to correlate the projective measures of achievement motivation with female achievement effort or with academic and intellectual performance for females. Among males, arousal conditions in which intelligence and leadership are stressed usually lead
to increased achievement motivation. This is not consistently so among women (2, 93). Stein and Bailey (84) found that arousal studies that stress social acceptability and skill rather than intelligence and leadership lead more often to increased achievement motivation on the part of females. However, according to Atkinson the motive to succeed and the motive to avoid failure are not good predictors for females, though they are for males (2).

One theory devised to explain achievement motivation in women is by Matina Horner (44). Horner, now assistant professor of clinical psychology at Harvard, could not accept the conclusions reached by other psychologists regarding the highly irregular results in achievement motivation experiments that came exclusively from female subjects (32). She was bewildered by inconsistent results in a carefully worked out and tested model that produced smooth regular results with male subjects and inconsistent results and abnormally high anxiety ratings for female subjects. The data on women were dismissed by earlier researchers as indicating a hopeless "will to fail." This preceding theory was harmonious with achievement motivation theory as it existed, that is, as consisting of two personality variables: the motive to approach success and the motive to avoid failure (100).

Zuckerman and Wheeler (100) report studies which show that among males (a) achievement-related imagery increases under achievement-oriented instructions (emphasis on leadership
capacity and intelligence) and (b) resultant achievement motivation scores (i.e., the motive to approach success minus the motive to avoid failure) are related to various behavioral measures.

Horner objected to the concept of a "will to fail" saying,

... the desire to fail comes from some deep psychological conviction that the consequences of failure will be satisfying. These girls of Michigan were motivated by the opposite; they were positively anxiety-ridden over the prospect of success. They were not simply eager to fail and have done with it; they seemed to be in a state of anxious conflict over what would happen if they succeeded. It was almost as though this conflict was inhibiting their capacity for achievement (45).

Horner developed an expectancy-value theory of motivation. According to this theory, anxiety is aroused when one expects negative consequences. Anxiety, then, acts as an inhibiting force and produces an avoidance motive.

To test this "motive to avoid success," Horner administered a series of Thematic Apperception Tests to ninety girls and eighty-eight boys, all undergraduates at the University of Michigan. The males completed stories based on the cue: "After first-term finals, John finds himself at the top of his medical school class." Ninety percent of the males wrote stories containing strong positive feelings of increased motivation and confidence in future success.

Female subjects were asked to write responses to a cue for success corresponding exactly to that used for males, but with "Anne" replacing "John" as the successful student.
Sixty-five percent of the girls wrote stories filled with negative consequences and effects, righteous indignation, withdrawal, or inability to accept the information presented in the cue. Women showed significantly more evidence of the motive to avoid success than did men (45). Horner concluded that unusual excellence in women is closely associated with a loss of femininity, social rejection, personal or societal destruction, or some combination of these, for those female subjects.

Gornick (32) draws the conclusion that by the third year of college, the high-achieving female comes to understand that her parents' encouragement for her success is dominated by a desire for her to find a good husband. She is expected to accept the incompatibility of femininity and academic achievement. A further expression of this sentiment is captured in the following:

Once the thin crust of encouragement is broken, a deep well of social conditioning is discovered underneath. She goes into a tailspin of anxiety as she struggles to reverse her appetite for human fulfillment, an appetite she now learns is in direct contradiction to her feminine fulfillment (101).

O'Leary (67), quoting Horner (44), writes,

As a whole, society has been unable to reconcile personal ambitions, accomplishment and success with femininity. The more successful or independent a woman becomes, the more afraid society is that she has lost her femininity and therefore, must be a failure as a wife and mother.

From Horner (44), it is pointed out that a girl who strives for qualities of independence and intellectual
mastery defies her femininity and will pay the price in anxiety. In other words, while men become unsexed by failure, women become unsexed by success (100).

In Horner's (44) study of 1973, college women high in the motive to avoid success performed less well in a male-female competitive situation than in a noncompetitive situation. Women low in motivation to avoid success performed better in the mixed-sex competitive situation (67). O'Leary (67) reported results which indicated that females low in motivation to avoid success are more willing to report high grades to a male friend than are women high in motivation. Also, it was found that women scoring high in the motivation to avoid success were more apt than were their low-scoring counterparts to change their career aspirations toward a more traditionally feminine direction during the college years.

In an unpublished manuscript, Makousky (60) reported findings which support Horner's theory. Women scoring high in motivation to avoid success performed best on tasks labeled "feminine" and in competition with other women. Women scoring low did best on tasks labeled as masculine and in competition with men. Both groups came closer to realization of achievement goals which were consistent with their individual values (67).

Horner further supports her theory in a study dealing with stereotypic male and female achievement roles (44).
Female figures were judged to deal less effectively with fear of success, using strategies of denial, withdrawal, and bizarreness more often than did males. Male subjects with conflict about success were more likely to be concerned with the meaning of success in terms of a satisfying life.

Even though several studies have supported Horner's theory, much of the research has either contradicted her hypothesis (3, 39, 77, 83, 100) or has shown inconsistent results (1, 12, 19, 91, 92). Crummer (19) found that subjects of both sexes who scored higher in the competitive than in the non-competitive situation produced more "motive to success" imagery to same-sex cues than did subjects with higher scores in the noncompetitive situation. Romer (77), in a developmental replication of Horner's 1968 study, found that female subjects, regardless of their score in motivation to avoid success, generally performed better in noncompetitive than competitive conditions.

Turner (92), investigating sex-role attitudes and fear of success as possible influences on women's behaviors in a sex-typed test, found that performance of non-traditional women could be predicted better than could the performance of men on feminine-sex-typed tasks and could also be predicted better for women on masculine sex-typed tasks. Predictions made by the experimenters that women with low fear of success would behave as men do in achievement-oriented situations were not supported by the data.
Burghardt (12) was able to validate as partially accurate, for later adolescent females, the concept of need to avoid success, but found evidence for negation of the concept for later adolescent males and young females. Inconclusive results were reached by Albino (1) in a study suggesting that the voluntary withdrawal of a student from college, when such student's academic standing was satisfactory, might reflect the presence of the motive to avoid success. Males and females scored significantly differently—females scoring significantly higher on items which contributed to the discriminant function, the motive to avoid success. However, no significant interactions were found between sex and the other variables thought to be related to motive to avoid success: academic ability, parents' level of educational achievement, year in college, and time of withdrawal. Karabenick (51), in a study designed to assess overall performance levels as a function of sex of one's partner and effects of interpolated success on changes in performance, found no significant effects except that there was an overall increase in performance from first to second trial, significant at the .001 level.

Tresemer (91) criticized the original research by Horner and much of the large amount of public acceptance of the theory, believing that they have very little empirical support. He was especially critical of the fact that Horner did not use an extensive scoring manual, a standard procedure
in testing motivation constructs, to assure that coders would rate stories alike. The result was that there was a large degree of subjectivity in the scoring for the variable of fear of success. Tresemer also reported that by varying Horner's story-writing cue, fear of success imagery could be controlled. If the subject was told that "all of Anne's classmates are men," there resulted a higher level of fear of success imagery than resulted if the subject was told that "half of Anne's classmates are women." These data suggest that there was more a fear of being deviant than of being successful.

In a review of Horner's study and subsequent research using a fantasy-based measure of fear of success, Zuckerman and Wheeler (100) suggest the following conclusions: first, the results of Horner's original work do not support the hypothesis that women high in fear of success perform poorly under competitive conditions; second, there are no reliable factors such as age or sex differences resulting in a motive to avoid success; third, fear of success and sex-role orientation appear to be unrelated; and, lastly, it is not clear whether the fear of success measure is actually a measure of a motive or of cultural stereotypes. There are not consistent relationships between fear of success and achievement-related variables. Reliability of the fear of success measure is probably as low as .30 to .40, and there are no
consistent relationships between fear of success and any behavioral measures.

Summary

In the area of achievement and women, it is evident that this is a field in need of more research in order to determine consistent explanations and variables. Achievement in women is highly influenced by sex-role stereotypes. Research has shown that women are unable to achieve and also fulfill additional role requirements. The stereotypical female personality traits are in conflict with achievement motivation. Women have been found to have generally much lower rates of achievement than men. Identification with the feminine stereotype influences the occupation choice of women—women with high sex-role identification choose more traditional feminine occupations.

Research has yielded essentially consistent findings concerning achievement in men. Most theories of motivation and achievement have evolved around these consistent findings. Yet these same theories and their variables have not proven consistent predictors when applied to females. Variables such as academic and intellectual performance, arousal conditions stressing intelligence and leadership, and motivation to succeed and avoid failure usually lead to increased achievement motivation in men, but not in women.

Horner was unable to accept the inconsistent results obtained from research when applying the male-oriented theory.
of achievement to women. She developed the theory that women fear success, that they are anxiety-ridden over the prospect of success and what would happen if they were to succeed. Her research and several other studies supported her theory. But considerable other research has shown inconsistent or conflicting results. Results of research on achievement motivation of females requires more complex explanations than does that of males, and none of the theories developed to date are satisfactory. Many more variables need to be explored to determine their relation to female achievement.

**Internal-External Locus of Control in Achievement**

Variables which have been considered to some extent in relation to achievement are autonomous internalized personal standards and social comparison standards of excellence established by others, both of which promote achievement (17, 93). Because of child-rearing practices, girls become more receptive to external cues and remain highly sensitive to social feedback, while males develop stronger autonomous achievement motivation.

This concept is very similar to the personality construct of locus of internal-external control (I-E). The construct was introduced by Rotter (78) within his social learning theory. It is defined as a generalized expectancy, operating across a variety of situations, in which an individual perceives his rewards as a consequence of his own responses based upon his own skills and abilities (internal
control), or as a result of forces beyond his control, such as luck, fate, or the influence of powerful others (external control). An assumption derivable from the definition of I-E is that locus of control is only a diagnostic indicator, or a measure of an individual's potentialities for achievement. Thus, a simple one-to-one relationship could be proposed. That is, the more capable and achieving a person is in addition to believing in his own capabilities, the greater the likelihood that he will achieve. Conversely, one disbelieving his ability to achieve would hold the efforts necessary for achievement—persistence, postponement of immediate pleasures, and organization of one's activity—futile, beyond his ability, and would deem achievement unlikely. The research fails to support this simplistic relationship, but I-E has been found to be useful in predicting behavior in many different situations (79).

Coleman (15), searching for personality characteristics among the disadvantaged which might limit their potential for achievement, found that among non-white children, achievement could be best predicted by a measure of the child's belief that academic results were determined by his own efforts. Pettigrew (69), summarizing the Coleman Report, states that among white children an academic self-concept variable which measures the child's expectancy of his own level of success is the most significant predictor of academic achievement. For black children, the degree to which
a child believes he is able to control his environment is most important in predicting academic performance.

Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston (16), implicating locus of control in the literature for the first time, found that for boys the attribution of responsibility was of considerable importance for predicting achievement activity, while for girls it was irrelevant. The emphasis placed on intellectual attainment was the only variable found to correlate significantly with free-play achievement activity for girls. However, in 1965 the same group of scientists found contradicting data (18). Again using an I-E instrument, the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), they found the IAR to be significantly related to reading, math, language, and total achievement test scores for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade boys and girls. In this later study locus of control was significantly related to achievement for both sexes.

Despite conflicting research results, there is much support for the proposition that locus of control is important to achievement activity. Franklin (28) found internality to be related to the amount of time high school students spend in doing homework. James (47) stated that internal individuals were more persistent in their attempts to solve complex logical puzzles. McGhee and Crandall (62), in a replication of their former work, found report card grades
to be associated with locus of control shown by sixth-
through twelfth-grade boys and girls.

Assuming that in order to achieve one must be able to
defer gratification of desires, researchers predicted a
connection between locus of control and the ability to defer
gratification. Bialder (6), offering children small prizes
immediately or larger prizes later, found deferred gratifi-
cation to be associated significantly with an internal locus
of control.

Mischel, Zeiss, and Zeiss (64) found support for their
prediction that internal children experiencing success dis-
play persistence at activities which offer important
achievement goals for them. In this same investigation
internal children experiencing failure was found related to
children's performance only when a low-score performance
would result in a loss of previously earned prizes.

Taking this theory one step further, Reimanis (76)
suggested that internal control is necessary for the devel-
opment of achievement-striving in a school situation. He
also reported a suggestion by Stephens (86) that the more
intelligent the child, the easier it may be for him to
discover and learn behavior-effect contingencies and that
therefore, internality may mediate intellectual development.

Gozali and associates (34), in reporting other research
results, said that there is some indication that internals,
as compared with externals, more actively seek information
relevant to problem solving, tend to retain more information when this information is relevant to personal goals, and tend to better utilize information that has been equally acquired and retained by internals and externals. This author also states that throughout the I-E literature, internals are found to be generally more effective persons than externals. It has been found that internals are a more homogeneous group than externals (40, 43). Nielson (65), in a study of the relation between academic factors and performance on the I-E scale, found male internals to score significantly higher on the variables of social studies, reading, and academic achievement. Gozali and associates (34), report that internals spent more time on an angle-matching task when they were told that performance involved skill than they did if told that performance was a matter of luck. Externals tended to take longer under chance-controlled task conditions than under skill-determined task conditions, although these decision time differences between the two groups did not reach a level of statistical significance. Gozali (34) further reported that the more internal the orientation, the stronger the linear relationship between time for task completion and item difficulty. Internals use time in a manner more appropriate to the test-taking situation than do externals.

In a study designed to predict children's specific achievement behaviors or expectancies in an intellectual
achievement situation as a function of their locus of control, Taborn (88) randomly assigned subjects to either an intellectual or non-intellectual achievement condition. Each subject performed the same neutral angle-matching task that the others performed and in which the number of successes was unobtrusively controlled by the experimenter. The analysis of variance revealed significant interactions between locus of control and type of achievement situation. In the intellectual achievement situation, internal subjects tended to experience less fluctuation in expectancy for success. Also, external subjects in the non-intellectual achievement situation made fewer and smaller changes than external subjects in the intellectual achievement situation.

In a study of inner and other direction as related to achievement motivation, Kipnis (52) found data to support the conclusion that American females who participate in career and professional achievement settings as adults are inner-directed. Although fewer women than men pursue intellectual and professional objectives, those women who do appear to be guided by internalized goals.

Ryckman and associates (80) found support for the hypothesis that internally-oriented women would express a greater commitment to social action designed to end discrimination against women than would externally-oriented ones. According to Brannigan (7), Feather (27), and McGinnies (63), the former are in the minority, for the
data suggest that as a group, females are more external than males.

As with research in the area of achievement, research concerning locus of control has proven to be much more variable and resistant to understanding with females than with males. McGhee and Crandall (62) found report card grades of both boys and girls to be associated with locus of control in grades six through twelve, but in 1972 (102) they analyzed boys and girls separately. Girls' performance scores were consistently related to beliefs in their own control of successes and failures, boys' performance scores were more consistently related to belief in responsibility for failure. Nowicki and Roundtree (66) found a significant relationship between internal control and school achievement for male twelfth-graders, but not for female twelfth-graders.

Testing the hypothesis that belief in internal control is related to social achievement in terms of involvement in campus activities and leadership positions, Brown and Strickland (11) report that locus of control did not predict female achievement behavior, even though females were significantly more likely to be involved than were males. Measure of locus of control did allow prediction of involvement of males.

Warehime (95), looking for a relationship between achievement and locus of control, measured by the Rotter I-E Scale and by grade-point averages respectively, found
a positive significant relationship for males but not for females. Thurber (90), studying academic achievement as a function of task structure and locus of control, predicted that external students would do better on a narrow examination based solely on information discussed in lectures and/or assigned reading material and that internals would do better on a broadly defined examination based upon information not available in the classroom. Though no support was found for the hypothesis, in examining the data for female subjects alone it was found that externals generally surpassed the internals regardless of achievement goals.

Eisenman and Platt (23), in a study of relationship of birth order in the family and sex differences to academic achievement and locus of control, reported that females made better grades than males, regardless of birth order. First-born males were significantly more external than internal, and there was no relationship between I-E scores and grades. The writer suggested that since Eisenman (22) earlier found that college students considered grades to be more a way of gaining social recognition than of representing achievement for its own sake, the females' greater achievement reflects a conforming dependency. This is consistent with Crutchfield (20) who found that females are more conforming than males.

Kipnis (52) discusses Riesman's "other and inner direction theory" in relation to achievement motivation.
Parents of the inner-directed child raise him to improve himself by virtue of his own striving. Parents of the other-directed child, however, are unclear in their goals for their child. "Other-directed" refers to the idea that in our complex economy, improvement of oneself occurs not through independent striving, but through being accepted by peers and immediate superiors, and thus by moving up through the ranks of large bureaucracies. Improvement is thought to be based on personal judgments of intangible qualities which results in a communication of uncertainty and anxiety rather than conviction from parents to child. Kipnis (52) cites a report by Bronfenbrenner (8) that supports the hypothesis that parents' child-rearing practices help to bring about other-directedness. The incidencies of fewer parental contacts and greater reliance on peer groups, more often found in boys than girls, produces in both a greater other-directedness.

The inner-directed adult who has learned that his own striving is important might be compared to the internally-controlled individual. The other-directed adult, who learns that the views of others are extremely important, can be compared to the external individual. The finding that more parents pursue the other-directed child-rearing practice for male children than for female children would seem to contradict the fact that females as a group are more external than males.
Individuals with an "external" orientation or a dissociation of one's own behavior with their outcomes may be viewed as being either defensive externals or as congruent externals. "Defensive externality" refers to the assumption that an external locus of control may be adopted as an ego defensive anxiety-reducing measure. This frees the individual from responsibility for his own outcomes by attributing control to forces, such as powerful others, outside himself. "Congruent externals" are "true externals," believing that their world is totally determined by events and others outside of themselves (79). Thurber (90) suggested that women are motivated to adopt defensive externality because it leads to an affirmation of expected feminine attitudes. However, Hochreich (42) stated that women have less pressures for achievement in our society and, therefore, have less need to adopt defensive externality. The defensive-congruent variable has yielded concise results for Procuik and Breen (73). They found that internals were academically superior to both defensive and congruent externals. "Defensive externals" had a higher grade-point average than did congruent externals. Female "defensive externals" had a higher grade-point average than did male "defensive externals."

Other authors have found no relationship between I-E and academic achievement (23, 41, 95). Jennings (48), exploring certain aspects of feminine career development,
found no relationship between career life-style preferred and perception of significant men's ideal for feminine behavior. The data did suggest, however, that external females who accept the traditional feminine role and internal females who seek career life-style equality with men seem to do best in school.

Wolfe (99) tested two theories derived from locus of control theory. The first, that internals are more accurate predictors than externals, was supported; but the second, that internals increase their accuracy more rapidly than externals, was not supported. In an analysis of causal ascriptions and achievement behavior, Weiner, Cook, and Heckhausen (98) conclude that the locus of control (internal versus external) and stability (fixed versus variable) dimensions of causality are confounded in the locus of control literature.

Other conflicting results are found in a study concerning locus of control and depression. The authors report a previous indication from the literature that depressed individuals believe that events that affect them are beyond their personal control (external locus). This particular study then found that female subjects showed an unreliable relation between externality and simple depressed mood, and a positive relation between the degree of depressed mood and the tendency to hold oneself responsible for it (13). The feeling of responsibility should reflect an internal
controlled individual, which would be contradictory to the relationship between externality and depression.

Other research found in the area of locus of control cannot be placed along the dimension of support for the theory or evidence against it. One such study is by Massari and Rosenblum (61) in which results supported the expectations that internality would be positively related to a trusting attitude and not related to intelligence. These results coincide with the work of Strickland (87) in a study contrasting the results of black children and white children as they chose between immediate and delayed reinforcements that were offered by either black or white experimenters. Results showed that the choice of immediate reinforcement was most prevalent among blacks when the experimenter was white. It was suggested that for black children race is a major source of uncertainty and leads to mistrust. This added variable—mistrust of the experimenter—may have confounded the experiment, and therefore the results.

In a study dealing with need for achievement and locus of control in predicting achievement activity, Fanelli (26) found that there is an interaction between locus of control and need for achievement with regard to scores on measures of performance. Neither the locus of control measure nor the need achievement measure alone predicted the interaction, but when both measures were used, and the data for the internal and external subjects were analyzed separately,
significant effects were found. The authors conclude that these results suggest that the locus of control dimension is not linear and that the entire scale is not uniform.

An important concept within the internal-external dimension is Levenson's Powerful Others Scale, a revision of Rotter's I-E scale designed to account for the relationship between one's expectancies for control and participation in social action. The hypothesis maintains that the reason the I-E scale by Rotter does not meaningfully differentiate between those who are involved and those who are not involved is that the definition of externals includes all those with expectancies that fate, chance, or powerful others will control events. According to Levenson (56), people who believe their lives to be controlled by chance would behave differently from those who believe their lives to be controlled by powerful others. Support for the division of the scale was found, but only in the case of males.

Academic performance has been found to correlate with fear of negative evaluation (FNE) for males but not for females (73). FNE includes instances of distress over negative evaluation, avoidance of evaluative situations, and expectation that others will evaluate oneself negatively (97). It has been found to have a positive correlation with I-E (73, 97). Watson and Friend (97) found that FNE is not specific to testing conditions, but that it may operate in any social situation, such as dating, talking with others,
or seeking a job. People with high FNE are very concerned with gaining the approval of others. It would be assumed that women who accept double sex standards have a strong need for approval of others. Also, because women tend to be more external than males as previously mentioned, they tend to be more sensitive to the demands of others. Platt and associates (72) stress that it is very important to analyze personality data for males and females separately, as they have found that female internals and externals differ along a number of personality and adjustment dimensions, including anxiety and achievement.

Summary

Internality-externality has been found to be important in relation to achievement activity. Internality has been found to be associated with the ability to defer gratification, the ability to persist at activities, and increased problem-solving tools.

As with research in the area of achievement, research concerning locus of control has proven to be much more variable and resistant to understanding with females than with males. As a group, females have been found to be more external than males. Also, locus of control does not predict female achievement behavior, while it does with males.

Research has shown that external females are more conforming to expected feminine attitudes than are internal females. Fear of negative evaluation has been found to
have a positive correlation with externality. People who have a high fear of negative evaluation need the approval of others very much. Women have been found to have a higher fear of negative evaluation than men have.

There is a need for continued study in the area of female achievement. To reiterate, the literature indicates that variables which are consistent predictors for males are not good predictors for female achievement. Personal correspondence (Appendix A) from A. P. MacDonald, Jr., a noted authority in the field of locus of control and sex-role standards, has suggested the need for research in the preceding areas in the context of women and academic achievement.

If the hypotheses of this study are confirmed, several implications may be drawn. Evidence will be added to the assumption that women rejecting stereotype roles in our society achieve at higher levels. The findings will reveal there is less emphasis in their lives on maintaining a particular role and that they have a greater acceptance of role variations. A woman who is internal will more likely have a higher level of success, better mental health, less impulsive behavior, and more cognitive level of thought than will a woman who is more external. Women who accept double sex standards will demonstrate a greater acceptance of the opinions of others and will be more influenced by these opinions. Control of their lives will emanate much less
from within themselves, and they will be very vulnerable to
the criticisms or evaluations of others. It appears to be
a paradox in our society that only by the rejection of our
societal roles can a woman become a more successful and
influential person.
1. Albino, J., "The Motive to Avoid Success and Problems Reported by Male and Female Students Withdrawing From the University of Texas at Austin," Education Psychology, XXXIV (1973), 2375-2376.


34. Gozali, H., Cleary, A., Walster, W., & Gozali, J., "Relationship Between the Internal-External Control Construct and Achievement," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, LXIV (1973), 9-14.


60. Makosky, V., Fear of Success Sex-Role Orientation of the Task, and Competitive Condition as Variables Affecting Women's Performance in Achievement-Oriented Situations, A paper presented at the Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Cleveland, 1972.


CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The population of this study consisted of students enrolled during the 1977 spring semester at North Texas State University, Denton, Texas. Permission was sought from the university administration to carry out this study (Appendix B) and the permission was granted. Permission from students was also secured and assurance of individual and group anonymity was given. Utilizing this population, the study was based upon a sample of 150 female college seniors who had a minimum of ninety semester hours of college study.

Instruments

The Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, (Rotter I-E Scale) (Appendix C) was initially developed by Phares (27) to measure the belief in internal or external control of reinforcement. The original instrument was a Likert-type device with twenty-six items, half of which attempted to measure internal control. James (10) added six filler items to Phares' scale, and later Liverant, Rotter, and Seeman broadened the scale to a paired-comparison instrument composed of 100 items. Internal consistency data
permitted Liverant to reduce the scale to sixty items. For convenience, Rotter, Liverant, and Crown (29) revised the scale and produced the present twenty-nine-item I-E scale. This scale is usually referred to in the literature, as in this research, as the Rotter I-E scale and is the most widely used test of locus of control. In reviews of I-E literature by MacDonald (18, 19) a listing of several hundred studies utilized this instrument.

The internal consistency data for the Rotter are relatively stable with a split-half coefficient of .65, a Spearman-Brown coefficient of .79, and a Kuder-Richardson coefficient of from .69 to .73 (30). Test-retest reliability data appear to be consistent and acceptable, varying between .49 and .83 for varying samples and intervening time periods, as reported by Lefcourt in his review of the literature on the I-E construct (13).

Some criticism of the Rotter I-E scale has come from its asserted multidimensionality. Application of factor analysis to this scale has revealed that the scale is not unidimensional. Early factor analyses generated more than one factor, but factors beyond the first one accounted for little variance and involved no more than two or three test items each (5, 30). Defenders of the scale argue that factors beyond the first factor account for little of the total scale variance or that such factors contain too few items to be useful as reliable subscales. Furthermore, most of
the correlations between Rotter's scale and measures of social desirability response bias have been found to be low (17).

The Sex-Role Survey (SRS) (Appendix D) developed by MacDonald (20) was used for identification and measurement of multidimensional attitudes towards equality between the sexes. It is a fifty-three item scale with a Likert format. Subjects were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with each item by circling a number from +3 (I agree very much) to -3 (I disagree very much). Ratings were scored by converting to a 1-to-7 point rating with high scores associated with equality of the sexes.

The scale is intended to measure an individual's support for equality between the sexes (a) in business and professions, (b) in the home, (c) in respect to what is traditionally considered sex-appropriate behavior, and (d) in the performance of both social and domestic work.

Development of the SRS began with a 169-item scale which was administered along with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (2) for the purpose of eliminating items found to be highly related to social desirability. Two criteria were used for eliminating items from further consideration: (a) no item was retained that showed a significant probability of less than .05 correlation with scores on the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, and (b) no item was retained unless it correlated, with a
significance level better than .01, with the total score for the 160 items. Twenty-four items were dropped under these criteria. The items were also subjected to factor analysis following a testing of the instrument with a population of 133 undergraduate students. The SRS was further reduced to a sixty-three item scale.

Support for the construct validity of the SRS was sought by means of a study which included 193 individuals who were administered the following instruments: a short personal history form; the sixty-three item version of the SRS; Premarital Sexual Permissiveness Scale (28); Semantic Differential (25); Rokeach's Eighteen Terminal Values (32); the F Scale (31); and MacDonald's Ambiguity Tolerance Scale (16). Correlational analysis with the above instruments gives support for the SRS as a multidimensional measure for an individual's support for equality between the sexes (20).

The Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (FNE) (Appendix E) (34) is an instrument designed to measure the construct of apprehension about others' evaluation, distress over their negative evaluation, avoidance of evaluation situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively. The fear of loss of social approval would be identical to fear of negative evaluation, but the opposite of fear of negative evaluation would be the lack of anxiety about others' evaluations.
The scale consists of thirty true-false items. Scoring of the scale is based upon one point for each correct response. The range of scores can vary from zero to thirty.

The mean biserial correlation of the FNE items, corrected for the presence of each item in the total score, was .72. This indicates that the scale is homogeneous. Initial data for test-retest reliability over a one-month period, using a sample of 154 university students, yielded a correlation of .78. A second sample of twenty-nine university students yielded a .94 correlation for the scale. The authors of the instrument concluded that these figures indicate sufficient reliability.

To check on certain predicted relationships, to search for new relationships, and to substantiate the validity of the FNE scale, the following instruments were correlated with it: Taylor's (33) Manifest Anxiety Scale; Rotter's (30) locus of control scale; Alpert and Haber's (1) Achievement Anxiety Scale, divided into debilitating and facilitating anxiety subscales; the social and evaluative parts of the Endler-Hunt (3) S-R Inventory of Anxiousness; Paivio's (26) Audience Sensitivity Index; and eleven subscales of Jackson's (8, 9) Personality Research Form (34). Good support for the construct validity of the FNE was obtained through the use of correlations of the FNE with the aforementioned instruments. Also, the authors of this study reported that high FNE subjects were more likely to expect disapproval in
order to avoid anticipated disapproval than were low FNE subjects. In another study, Friend (6) found a strong negative correlation \( r = -0.81, n = 291, \@.01 \) between FNE and self-esteem as measured by the Janis and Field (11) scale of social inadequacy and low self-esteem. The findings of this study supported an underlying assumption of the FNE that as fear of negative evaluation increased there was a decrease in social adequacy and self-esteem.

The Internal, Powerful Others, and Chance Scales (IPC) (Appendix F) (14) were developed to try to account for a more multidimensional measure of the locus of control construct than Rotter's I-E scale. Several investigators (7, 12, 14, 15, 17, 22) have presented very good evidence of the multidimensionality of the construct of I-E.

Three separate scales are used to measure one's locus of control: internal scale, powerful others scale, and chance scale. There are eight items on each of the three scales, which are presented to the subject as one unified attitude scale of twenty-four items. The specific content areas mentioned in the items are counterbalanced so as to appear equally for all three dimensions.

Each item is presented in a Likert format, which requires the subject to circle a number from +3 (I agree very much) to -3 (I disagree very much). Scoring is achieved by adding up the points of the circled answers for each scale. The possible range on each scale is from 0 to
24. Each subject receives three scores indicative of his locus of control on the three dimensions of I, P, and C.

Internal consistency estimates are only moderately high,
probably because the items sample a wide variety of different situations. For a student group, a Kuder-Richardson formula yielded a correlation of .64 for the I Scale. Adult group, split-half reliabilities were: .62 for the I Scale, .66 for the P Scale, and .64 for the C Scale (14). Test-retest reliabilities for a one-week period were: .64 for the I Scale, .74 for the P Scale, and .78 for the C Scale. Means for the second administration of the scales were not significantly different from those of the first administration, with the mean difference for the I, P, and C Scales equaling 2.31, -.69, and -.93 respectively (14).

In the area of validity, item analysis with several pre-test groups indicated that eleven of the items significantly distinguished between high and low scores for each of the three scales (14). Correlations between the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (21) and each of the items were all close to zero, with the highest being +.19. This indicates that items on the three scales are minimally influenced by social desirability. Since some of Levenson's items are from Rotter's I-E Scale, Levenson attributes some of the IPC's validity to this fact.

Levenson's scale helps to shed further light on the locus of control concept. It is considered very important
to discriminate between those individuals who believe in chance or luck controlling their lives and those who feel powerful others are in control. The preceding two types of externals would be expected to behave and believe differently. The potential for control is greater in those individuals who believe that the world is ordered, but with powerful others in control, than in those individuals who believe the world is unordered and that things happen by chance.

The Motivated to Succeed Scale (MSS) is a subscale of the Edwards Personality Inventory (EPI) (Appendix G) (4). The EPI developed out of an accumulated item pool of recorded statements used by people in describing themselves and others. Eliminated were those statements having highly socially desirable or undersirable scale values and those eliciting an extremely large percentage of either true or false responses. The responses to items given to 750 college students were evaluated by factor analysis to produce the present fifty-three scales scored from the 1,500 items. Special attention was given in the constructive phase of the scales to avoid items which describe psychiatric symptoms, religious and political beliefs, or other areas of private concern which might arouse defensiveness in a subject. Of particular interest is the MSS consisting of twenty-four items which were utilized alone in this study. A subject is required to respond to each item by answering either true or false. A single score is obtained for the scale
by tabulating the number of correct responses based on the test key. This instrument strives to measure one's strength of motivation to succeed, ability to set up long-range plans and goals, and willingness to pursue diligently and to complete goals.

Based on a sample of 111 male and 163 female college students, coefficients of internal consistency of .91 and .90 respectively were found for the MSS (4). Thus, this scale shows acceptable internal consistency. In a study utilizing high school students compared to a group of college students, there were no significant differences in means and standard deviations for the two groups. Further, utilizing the preceding population of high school students, correlations were made between the MSS and grade-point average, Differential Aptitude Test, socioeconomic status, and intention to attend college. The results were significant at the .01 level for males for grade-point average, and for both males and females for intention to attend college with the MSS (24). In a second study (23) correlates between over- and under-achieving high school students were correlated with the EPI scales. Findings for the MSS and achievement were significant at the .01 level for only under-achieving males.

Procedures for Collection of Data

In order to obtain subjects who were willing to participate in this study, the following steps were taken.
Instructors in the following departments of North Texas State University were contacted and permission to utilize their classes in the study was requested: Education, Psychology, Music, Business, Art, and Physical Education. The experimenter went to numerous classes by arrangement with the instructor and asked women who had sufficient number of semester hours to be considered seniors to take part in the study. The extent of participation of each subject consisted of completion of a questionnaire, supplied by the experimenter, which was to be completed by the next class period or returned by mail (Appendix H).

Those individuals who agreed to take part in the study were asked to give written permission for access to their present grade-point averages, social security numbers, and ages. Each student was informed on the cover sheet of the questionnaire that the data obtained would be kept in complete confidence in that personal data and responses to the test items would be buried in group data. Thus, no single individual would be identified or alluded to at any point in the study. The questionnaire which all subjects were asked to complete consisted of the following scales: Sex-Role Survey; Motivated to Succeed Scale from the Edwards Personality Inventory; Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale; Rotter I-E Scale; Internal, Powerful Others, and Chance Scales.
The study was limited to a sample of 150 North Texas State University senior women. Each individual was ranked according to her score on the Sex-Role Survey. High scores denoted a strong rejection of double sex standards. The bottom and top thirds of this ranking were selected to be the two comparison groups, each consisting of fifty members. The top third of the ranking which demonstrated high support for equality between the sexes is referred to as Group A throughout this study. The bottom third of the ranking which demonstrated low support for equality between the sexes is referred to as Group B throughout this study. The scales completed by Group A and Group B were scored and the data tabulated.

Procedures for Treatment of the Data

The instruments completed by each of the 150 subjects were scored, and scores for the Sex-Role Survey were ranked. Those women scoring in the top or bottom thirds were included in the data analysis. The group ranking in the top third represent high support for equality between the sexes and has been designated Group A. The group ranking in the bottom third represent low support of equality between the sexes and has been designated as Group B.

The dependent variables in the study consisted of grade-point average, locus of control, fear of negative evaluation, and need for achievement. The measures for each of the preceding variables were scored for each member of Group A
and Group B. A one-way analysis of variance was applied in evaluating the two comparison groups in terms of the stated hypotheses.

For the purposes of hypothesis testing all the hypotheses were stated in the null form. The null hypothesis was retained if the .05 level of significance was not reached. To discover the degree of relationship among the various variables, an intracorrelation matrix was developed showing how each variable was correlated with every other variable.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study was conducted on a sample of 150 North Texas State University senior women. To secure subjects for the study an effort was made to contact as many senior women throughout the different colleges of the university as possible in an effort to obtain a representative sample. Each individual was ranked according to her score on the Sex-Role Survey. High scores denoted a strong rejection of double sex standards. The bottom and top thirds of this ranking were selected to be the two comparison groups, each consisting of fifty members.

In addition to the Sex-Role Survey, each student was asked to complete the following instruments for purposes of testing the hypotheses in this study: Motivated to Succeed Scale from the Edwards Personality Inventory; Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale; Rotter I-E Scale; and the Internal, Powerful Others, and Chance Scales. Additional information concerning grade-point average and age was secured from each student.

A one-way analysis of variance (1) was applied in evaluating the two comparison groups in terms of the stated hypotheses. For the purposes of hypothesis testing, all the
hypotheses were stated in the null form. The null hypothesis was retained if the .05 level of significance was not reached.

Null Hypothesis 1 states that women with low acceptance of double sex standards (Group A) will not have significantly different grade-point averages than women with high acceptance of double sex standards (Group B). Table I reveals the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable of grade-point average. The table indicates that the means and standard deviations for the two groups were quite similar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B on the variable of grade-point average. Examination of the data shows the relationship between acceptance and rejection of double sex standards in terms of grade-point average to be significant at the .74 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 1 was retained.
TABLE II

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "GRADE-POINT AVERAGE"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>0.0199</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0199</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>15.9879</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.1838</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16.0078</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings tend to indicate that the acceptance or rejection of double sex standards had no influence on the participants' scholastic achievement level as a group and that women's acceptance or rejection of such standards, while it might affect an individual's role in society and the perception of self, cannot be expected to influence achievement level as reflected by grade-point average.

The failure to obtain significant results may be attributed to the minimal differences in means or to the inadequacy of grade-point average as a sole criterion measure of achievement, though it is the most readily accessible. It may also be plausible that the college women who accept double sex standards receive less discrimination in the academic arena.
Null Hypothesis 2 states that women with low acceptance of double sex standards (Group A) will not be found to have significantly different internal locus of control than will women with higher acceptance of double sex standards (Group B). Table III shows the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable of internal locus of control as measured by Levenson's scale. The mean for Group A is larger than for Group B and the standard deviation relatively high for Group B.

**TABLE III**

**MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "INTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL"**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Levenson's scale.

Table IV presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B on the variable of internal locus of control as measured by Levenson's scale. Examination of the data reveals the relationship between acceptance and rejection of double sex standards in terms of an internal locus of control as measured by Levenson's scale to be significant at the .02 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 2 was not retained.
TABLE IV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON
OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE
"LOCUS OF CONTROL"*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>1326.4389</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1326.4389</td>
<td>15.6625</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>7367.9206</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>84.6887</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8694.3596</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Levenson's scale.

A second attempt was made to test hypothesis 2 by means of the Rotter I-E scale. The Rotter scale is a unidimensional approach to the measure of internal-external locus of control, for which very low scores indicate high internality and very high scores indicate high externality. The Levenson internal scale seeks to evaluate only the degree of internality of an individual. Table V presents the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable of internal-external locus of control as measured by Rotter's scale. The mean for Group B is only slightly larger than for Group A and the standard deviations for both groups are exceedingly high.
TABLE V
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GROUP A AND GROUP B FOR INTERNAL-EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Rotter's scale.

Table VI presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B on the variable of internal-external locus of control as measured by Rotter's scale. Examination of the data reveals the relationship between acceptance and rejection of double sex.

TABLE VI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "INTERNAL-EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>86.9768</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>86.9768</td>
<td>2.0635</td>
<td>0.154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>3666.9783</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>42.1492</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3753.9551</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Rotter's Scale
standards in terms of an internal-external locus of control as measured by Rotter's scale to be significant at the .15 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 2 in this instance was retained.

In evaluating the contrasting results obtained from the two instruments utilized in testing the second hypothesis, it is noted that Levenson's scale is a multidimensional approach to locus of control, while Rotter's approach is unidimensional. In addition, the Rotter scale is the oldest and one of the most-used instruments as a measure of locus of control. Both scales attempt to measure the same construct, but the Rotter assumes a gross approach, while Levenson takes a finer, more specific approach in his three sub-part scale. It may be in this instance that for studying for relationship between double sex standards and internality of women, Levenson's scale is a more sensitive tool. Assuming this is the case, it appears that women who reject double sex standards (according to the Levenson scale) have a more internal locus of control.

Null Hypothesis 3 states that women with high acceptance of double sex standards (Group B) will be no more nor no less influenced by powerful others than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards. Table VII presents the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable of "influence by powerful others." The mean for Group B is larger than for Group A and the standard deviations are relatively high but quite similar.
TABLE VII
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "POWERFUL OTHERS"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table VIII reveals the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B for the variable of "influence by powerful others." Examination of the data reveals the relationship between acceptance and rejection of double sex standards in terms of the variable of powerful others' influence as measured by the Levenson scale to be significant at the .01 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 3 was not retained, and the research hypothesis was accepted.

The degree of acceptance of double sex standards was evaluated in terms of the degree of perceived influence by powerful others in their lives as measured by Levenson's Powerful Others scale. It was found that women with high acceptance of double sex standards tend to be more influenced by powerful others in their lives than women who reject double sex standards. This indicates the vulnerability to social pressure of women who accept double sex
standards. This finding agrees with the previous finding in Hypothesis 2 that women who accept double sex standards are more external according to Levenson's scale. The influence of powerful others represents an additional external source to which one may attribute control of his/her life.

**TABLE VIII**

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "INFLUENCE BY POWERFUL OTHERS"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>592.0581</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>595.0581</td>
<td>7.1358</td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>7254.9419</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>83.3901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7850.000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis 4 states that women with high acceptance of double sex standards (Group B) will show no greater or lesser tendency to believe that chance controls their lives than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards. Table IX presents the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable "chance" as measured by Levenson's scale. The mean for Group B is larger than for Group A and the standard deviations are very high and quite similar.
TABLE IX

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "CHANCE"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table X presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B for the variable of chance. Examination of the data shows the relationship between acceptance and rejection of double sex standards in terms of chance controlling their lives as a group to be significant at the .01 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 4 was not retained.

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "CHANCE"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>531.7233</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>531.7233</td>
<td>9.3939</td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>4924.4565</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>56.6029</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5456.1798</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It was found that there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their belief in chance controlling their lives. This indicates that women who have a high acceptance of double sex standards perceive themselves as being more helpless and defenseless toward their environment as a group than do those with a low acceptance of double sex standards. This finding concurs with the previous finding in Hypotheses 2 and 3 that women who accept double sex standards are more external in orientation.

Null Hypothesis 5 states that women with high acceptance of double sex standards (Group B) will have no more or no less fear of negative evaluation than will women with low acceptance of double sex standards. Table XI presents the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable of fear of negative evaluation by the Watson and Friend scale. The mean of Group B is almost twice as large as the mean for Group A and the standard deviations are high and quite similar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table XII presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B for the variable "fear of negative evaluation." Examination of the data shows the relationship between the acceptance and rejection of the double sex standards in terms of fear of negative evaluation to be significant at the .01 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 5 was not retained, and the research hypothesis was accepted.

**TABLE XII**

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION"**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>882.8921</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>882.8921</td>
<td>22.8532</td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>3361.0854</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>38.6332</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4243.9775</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The finding in the test of Hypothesis 5 was that women with high acceptance of double sex standards as a group have a greater fear of negative evaluation than do women with low acceptance of double sex standards. Fear of negative evaluation closely parallels the previously discussed variable of influence by powerful others. Women with a high acceptance of double sex standards are more defenseless against
the negative evaluation of others and are more vulnerable to their opinions it appears. These results are congruent with previous hypotheses tested in this study that these women who accept double sex standards have a more external view of the world influencing their lives and could well be more susceptible to its evaluations.

Null Hypothesis 6 states that women with low acceptance of double sex standards (Group A) will show no more or no less motivation to succeed than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards (Group B). Table XIII presents the means and standard deviations for Group A and Group B on the variable of "motivated to succeed" as measured by the Edwards scale. The mean for Group A is only slightly larger than for Group B, and the standard deviations are relatively small and quite similar in size.

**TABLE XIII**

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "MOTIVATED TO SUCCEED"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table XIV presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance for the comparison of Group A and Group B for
the variable "motivated to succeed." Examination of the data shows the relationship between the acceptance and rejection of double sex standards in terms of motivated to succeed to be significant at the .21 level. Thus, Null Hypothesis 6 was retained. This finding suggests that it is doubtful that women with a low acceptance of double sex standards as a group have more motivation to succeed than women with high acceptance of double sex standards. This finding parallels the one for Hypothesis 1 that grade-point average as an end product of achievement would differentiate the two groups.

**TABLE XIV**

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF GROUP A AND GROUP B ON THE VARIABLE "MOTIVATED TO SUCCEED"**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>88.7361</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.7361</td>
<td>1.5842</td>
<td>0.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>1852.7133</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>21.2956</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1886.4494</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>. .</td>
<td>. .</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In an effort to discover the degree of relationship among the various variables, an intracorrelation matrix was developed showing how each variable was correlated with every other variable. The matrix is produced in Table XV
**TABLE XV**

CORRELATION MATRIX OF VARIABLES UTILIZED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex-Role Survey</th>
<th>Motivated to Succeed</th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>Chance</th>
<th>Powerful Others</th>
<th>Rotter</th>
<th>Fear of Negative Evaluation</th>
<th>Grade-Point Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age 1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex-Role Survey .070 1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated to Succeed .166</td>
<td>.249*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal .070 .410* .247*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chance -.148 -.297**-.242*</td>
<td>-.128</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerful Others .001 -.162</td>
<td>-.091</td>
<td>-.119 .283**1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotter I-E -.208* -.207*</td>
<td>-.173</td>
<td>-.231* -.364**</td>
<td>.146 1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of Negative Evaluation -.205* -.426**-.101</td>
<td>-.072</td>
<td>.223* .223* .175</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade-Point Average -.022</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.142 .010 .156</td>
<td>-.027 .230* .001</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*.05 level of significance.
**.01 level of significance.
revealing the results of the correlations. Even the significant correlations are relatively low, with the highest being -.43 for the relationship between "internal" and the sex survey score. These low correlations would not be very useful for predictive purposes.

In summary, the variable of double sex standards was researched in this study in an attempt to further clarify the relation between locus of control and achievement in women. Grade-point average and the motivated-to-succeed score were utilized as measures to assess the dependent variable of achievement. It was found that these two measures did not indicate a difference between those women who accepted and those women in the group who rejected double sex standards.

The dependent variable of locus of control was assessed by the instruments--Internal, Powerful Others, and Chance scales; Rotter I-E scale; and Fear of Negative Evaluation scale. It was determined that each measure was a significant variable related to double sex standards with the exception of the Rotter I-E scale.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS,
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem of this study was to determine the relationship of double sex standards to achievement and to selected personality variables of female college students.

The specific purpose of this study was to determine whether female acceptance of double sex standards had an adverse effect upon the following characteristics:

1. Academic achievement
2. Locus of control
3. Negative evaluation
4. Need for achievement

In order to obtain acceptable subjects who were willing to participate in this study, the following steps were taken. Instructors in various departments of North Texas State University during the spring semester of 1977 were contacted and permission to utilize their classes in the study was requested. The experimenter went to numerous classes by prior arrangements with the instructor and asked the women present who had sufficient semester hours to be considered seniors to take part in the study voluntarily. All acceptable volunteers were then asked to complete the following instruments: Sex-Role Survey; Motivated to Succeed Scale; Fear of Negative
Evaluation Scale; Rotter I-E Scale; and Internal, Powerful Others, and Chance Scales. In addition, permission was sought for access to grade-point average and the subject's social security number and age. Complete anonymity was assured and maintained for all subjects.

The following hypotheses were formulated for the study. Acceptance or rejection of these hypotheses was made in terms of rejection or acceptance of the null hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will be found to have a higher grade-point average than will women with high acceptance of double sex standards. The significance level was found to be .74. In the test of the null, the null was retained; the hypothesis stated here was rejected.

Hypothesis 2

Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will have greater internal locus of control than will women with higher acceptance of double sex standards. The significance level was found to be .02 for data from the Levenson scale, and the hypothesis was accepted. The significance level was found to be .15 for the Rotter scale. In the test of the null, the null was retained; the hypothesis stated here was rejected.

Hypothesis 3

Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will be more influenced by powerful others than will women with
low acceptance of double sex standards. The significance level was found to be .01 for data from the Levenson Powerful Others Scale. In the test of the null, the null was rejected; the hypothesis stated here was accepted.

Hypothesis 4

Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will show a greater tendency to believe that chance controls their lives than women with low acceptance of double sex standards. The significance level was found to be .01 for data obtained from the Levenson's Chance Scale. In the test of the null, the null was rejected; the hypothesis stated here was accepted.

Hypothesis 5

Women with high acceptance of double sex standards will have a greater fear of negative evaluation than women with low acceptance of double sex standards. The significance level was found to be .01 for data acquired by use of the Friend's Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale. In the test of the null, the null was rejected; the hypothesis stated here was accepted.

Hypothesis 6

Women with low acceptance of double sex standards will show more motivation to succeed than women with high acceptance of double sex standards. The significance level was .21 for data based upon the Edward's Motivated to Succeed
Scale. In the test of the null, the null was retained; the hypothesis stated here was rejected.

In an effort to describe the degree of relationship among the various variables, an intracorrelation matrix was developed, showing how each variable was correlated with every other variable. This procedure yielded low correlations which have very low predictive value.

Conclusions

The following conclusions, limited to the subjects included in the study, are based upon the preceding discussion of results and findings. The study shows that in terms of the groups of women sampled, women who differ greatly on the subject of equality between the sexes do not differ in their scholastic achievement or in their motivation to succeed.

In terms of the variable, locus of control, it is concluded that as a group women who show high support for equality between the sexes are more internally controlled and women who show low support for equality are more externally controlled.

It is concluded that women in the group who reject equality between the sexes are more fearful of receiving negative evaluations of their behavior than are women who accept sexual equality.
Implications

There are no other studies to which these results can be directly compared, but some implications can be drawn. Internality correlated with better mental health, and rejection of double sex standards correlated with internality. Therefore, rejection of double sex standards might correlate with better mental health (1, 2, 3).

Studies in which researchers have correlated grade-point average and locus of control of women have produced evidence that internality is not as consistent a predictor of achievement as it is of male achievement (4). MacDonald (4) suggested that internal females are bright enough to know that they might receive discriminatory treatment for academic achievement in a double-standard society. If this were the case, one might predict that internality would be a good predictor of academic achievement among those females who reject the double standard, and a poor predictor among those who accept the double standard between the sexes. However, the present study found that the double sex standard variable may be used as a good predictor of internality-externality, but not as a predictor of academic achievement. MacDonald's statement was not supported.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of this investigation, the following recommendations are offered:
1. There should be a replication of the present study with a focus on a more representative sample of the adult female population. The use of non-college, racially-mixed samples of women with a wider age span, for example, would offer a broader approach.

2. There should be a utilization of criteria other than grade-point average to measure achievement. Task performance, achievement tests, social achievement measures, or years of education could be used.

3. There should be further research in the area of value systems and their relation to acceptance or rejection of double sex standards. Sequential value development system as proposed by Kohlburg is one instance of needed research.

4. There should be an investigation into the persistence of sex-role attitudes and various avenues for changing of sex-role attitudes. A cross-sectional or longitudinal research approach should be taken to determine when or if there are changes in acceptance of equality between the sexes.

5. There should be research into the various factors leading to the acceptance or rejection of double sex standards. The importance of acceptance or rejection of these standards to the field of marriage counseling today warrants such research. Attention may be given to the role parental and peer pressures have in the formulation of one's outlook on sex roles.
6. Personality assessment research is needed to determine whether those individuals who reject double sex standards have any higher mental health standard than do those who accept a double sex standard world.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX A

PERSONAL CORRESPONDENCE -

A. P. MacDONALD, JR.
December 1, 1975

Mr. Brad Williams
1004 West Oak Street
Denton, Texas 76201

Dear Mr. Williams:

Unfortunately, you catch me at a bad time to be of help to you with your dissertation problem. I am in the process of moving elsewhere, and all of my materials are packed and in storage.

There are two areas in which I believe that you could make a contribution:

1. Sex-differences. The literature seems to show that internality is a good predictor of academic achievement for males but a poor one for females. Internality predicts better to social achievement for females. The favored explanation is that internal females are bright enough to know that they might receive discriminatory treatment for academic achievement in a double standard society. If this is so, one might predict that internality would be a good predictor of academic achievement among those females who reject the double standard, and a poor predictor among those who accept the double standard between the sexes.

You can measure support for equality by using my multidimensional Sex Role Survey. See: MacDonald, A. P., Jr. Identification and measurement of multidimensional attitudes toward support for equality between the sexes. Journal of Homosexuality, 1975, vol 1, nr. 2 (just coming out). Also, the Sex Role Survey can be obtained at a small cost from ETS Test Collection, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, NJ.

2. Moral Development. There is unpublished evidence that internals are more concerned about morality; e.g., they have been found to be higher on Kohlberg's stages of moral development, and I have repeated found them to be more concerned than externals about moral responsibilities for accidents than for actual responsibilities. As far as I know, this finding has not worked its way into the literature.

Lastly, two bibliographies can be purchased from JSAS, The American Psychological Association, 1200 17th St., N.W., Wash, D.C.:


A. P. MacDonald, Jr., Ph.D.
January 18, 1976

A. P. MacDonald, Jr., Ph.D.
P. O. Box 8793
Durham, North Carolina
27707

Dear Dr. MacDonald:

I would first like to thank you very much for taking the time to write such a long and comprehensive letter last December suggesting possible topic areas for a dissertation. Tentatively I have decided to look into the area of Sex-differences which you suggested. I have written the Educational Testing Service to obtain a copy of the Sex Role Survey which you mentioned in your letter. I am, however, having difficulty securing a copy of your most recent publication in the Journal of Homosexuality, 1975, vol 1, nr. 2. Southwestern Medical School in Dallas is the only subscriber of this journal in this area and they have yet to receive their copy. If you should have a reprint of this article at this time I would appreciate purchasing a copy of it at this time. This would permit me to proceed in my study at a much faster rate.

Your efforts on my behalf are greatly appreciated. I wish you well in your new work situation in Durham.

Sincerely yours,

Brad Williams
1004 West Oak St.
Denton, Texas
76201
APPENDIX B

REQUEST FOR APPROVAL OF
SUBJECT PARTICIPATION
November 8, 1976

Dr. John Brown  
Registrar  
North Texas State U.  
Denton, Texas  
76201

Dear Dr. Brown:

I do appreciate my discussion with you concerning permission to conduct a study utilizing senior female students at North Texas State University.

Those individuals who are eligible to participate in the proposed study will be asked to volunteer to complete several instruments which I have described to you. Written permission will be requested from each participant for their social security number and computer access to their grade point average.

Your thoughtful consideration to these requests will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Brad Williams

11-11-76
APPENDIX C

ROTTER I-E SCALE

Your answers to the items on this inventory are to be recorded by placing a circle around the letter corresponding to your answer.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.

   b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.

2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

   b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.

   b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.

   b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.

   b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

6. a. With the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.

b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.

b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.

9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.

b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.

b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

14. a. There are certain people who are just no good.

b. There is some good in everybody.
15. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
   
b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
   
b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

17. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
   
b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

18. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
   
b. There really is no such thing as "luck."

19. a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
   
b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.

20. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
   
b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

21. a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
   
b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

22. a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
   
b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

23. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
   
b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
   b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.

25. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
   b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

26. a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
   b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.

27. a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
   b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.

28. a. What happens to me is my own doing.
   b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

29. a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
   b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.
APPENDIX D

SEX-ROLE SURVEY

We are interested in knowing your own personal way of thinking and feeling regarding the following statements. Opinions differ and your own is as good as that of anyone else. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view regarding males and females. You may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others. Mark each statement in the right margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Circle +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1 = I AGREE A LITTLE  -1 = I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2 = I AGREE ON THE WHOLE  -2 = I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3 = I AGREE VERY MUCH  -3 = I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

1. Women have the right to compete with men in every sphere of economic activity.  +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

2. As head of the household the father should have final authority over his children.  +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

3. The entry of women into the business world in direct competition with men should be discouraged.  +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

4. The relative amounts of time and energy to be devoted to household duties on the one hand and to a career on the other should be determined by personal desires and interests rather than sex.  +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

5. A woman who refuses to bear children has failed in her duty to her husband.  +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>+3</th>
<th>+2</th>
<th>+1</th>
<th>-1</th>
<th>-2</th>
<th>-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. There should be a strict merit system of public appointment and promotion without regard to sex.
7. Women should be guided by men's views of decency in dress.
8. Women should not be permitted to hold political offices that involve great responsibility.
9. The husband should be regarded as the legal representative of the family group in all matters of law.
10. Women should be given equal opportunities with men for vocational and professional training.
11. Married women should struggle against enslavement by domestic obligations.
12. The man should "wear the pants" in the family.
13. A husband has the right to expect that his wife be obliging and dutiful at all times.
14. There is no particular reason why a girl standing in a crowded vehicle or building should expect a man to offer her his seat.
15. It is absurd to regard obedience as a wifely virtue.
16. There are many words and phrases which are unfit for a woman's lips.
17. On the average women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to economic production than are men.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>+3</th>
<th>+2</th>
<th>+1</th>
<th>-1</th>
<th>-2</th>
<th>-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18. The general belief that women are by nature too high-strung to hold certain jobs is no more true than many of our superstitions.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. A woman should not expect to go to the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. It is foolish to regard scrubbing floors as more proper for women than mowing the lawn.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. It is naturally proper for parents to keep a daughter on the average under closer control than a son.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Women should always take the passive role in courtship.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. In general the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. The husband should be favored by law in the disposal of family property or income.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. A mother's authority as regards the children should be equivalent to that of the father's.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. It is a disgrace to have one's wife working outside the home in competition with men.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Women should not be expected to subordinate their careers to home duties to any greater extent than men.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. A husband has the right to expect his wife to bear him children.</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+1</td>
<td>= I AGREE A LITTLE</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>= I DISAGREE A LITTLE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+2</td>
<td>= I AGREE ON THE WHOLE</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>= I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>= I AGREE VERY MUCH</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>= I DISAGREE VERY MUCH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29. Women in their dress should place feminine modesty before utility.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

30. No matter how they are treated, the majority of women seem to be bossy and nagging.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

31. Women should be concerned with their duties of child-rearing and housetending, rather than with foolish desires for professional and business careers.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

32. As free human beings, women's right of choice concerning vocation should not be restricted.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

33. There is hardly anything more revolting than seeing a woman dress, act, and cuss like a man.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

34. A woman should be proud to take her husband's name at marriage.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

35. Women should express their views more frequently from the platform and through the press and radio.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

36. Expensive vocational and professional training should be given only to men.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

37. A woman should keep herself an attractive love object and not worry about her rights.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

38. It is infinitely more disgusting to hear profanity from the lips of a woman than from a man.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

39. Women generally are more unreliable than men in their personal relations.  
   +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3
108

| +1 = I AGREE A LITTLE | -1 = I DISAGREE A LITTLE |
| +2 = I AGREE ON THE WHOLE | -2 = I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE |
| +3 = I AGREE VERY MUCH | -3 = I DISAGREE VERY MUCH |

40. Women should recognize that it is foolish to attempt to equal men in business and the professions.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

41. The time-worn argument that women are too unstable emotionally to be successful in certain vocations such as surgery or law is false.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

42. Women's general lack of emotional stability makes them obviously unfit for many occupations involving nervous strain.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

43. A married woman has an equal right with her husband to work outside the home.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

44. The joint earnings of husband and wife should legally be under control of the husband.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

45. Despite the ideal of equality of the sexes, there are certain jobs, like that of President of the United States, which are just too important to be held by a woman.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

46. Every political office in the United States should be open to women.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

47. Women have an obligation to uphold modesty in dress.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

48. Women do not belong in politics.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

49. Training for cultural and political leadership should be largely restricted to men.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

50. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.  
+3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
109

+1 = I AGREE A LITTLE
+2 = I AGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3 = I AGREE VERY MUCH
-1 = I DISAGREE A LITTLE
-2 = I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
-3 = I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

51. Men are naturally more capable than women in financial matters. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -1

52. Under modern economic conditions, involving activity of women outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

53. If women must have a college education, they should be limited to a general cultural course and stay out of the professional schools entirely. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

54. A woman on the average needs male protection and guidance. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

55. The modern wife has no more obligation to keep her figure than her husband to keep down his waist line. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

56. It must be admitted that the average woman has a rather narrow sense of justice. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

57. There is no occupation which should be closed to women because of alleged emotional instability. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

58. Women should give up their false ideal of intellectual equality with men. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

59. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

60. Sons in a family should in general be given training for careers in preference to their daughters. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

61. The ideal marriage is one in which the husband and wife share equally in housework and outside work. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3
62. A father should spend just as much time taking care of the children as does the mother. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

63. It is not a good idea for the mother of small children to work outside of the house. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3
APPENDIX E

FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION SCALE

Please respond to the following statements by answering either Yes by marking a (+) or No by marking a (0).

1. I rarely worry about seeming foolish to others.

2. I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn't make any difference.

3. I become tense and jittery if I know someone is sizing me up.

4. I am unconcerned even if I know people are forming an unfavorable impression of me.

5. I feel very upset when I commit some social error.

6. The opinions that important people have of me cause me little concern.

7. I am often afraid that I may look ridiculous or make a fool of myself.

8. I react very little when other people disapprove of me.

9. I am frequently afraid of other people noticing my shortcomings.

10. The disapproval of others would have little effect on me.

11. If someone is evaluating me I tend to expect the worse.

12. I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on someone.

13. I am afraid that others will not approve of me.

14. I am afraid that people will find fault with me.

15. Other people's opinions of me do not bother me.
16. I am not necessarily upset if I do not please someone.

17. When I am talking to someone, I worry about what they may be thinking about me.

18. I feel that you can't help making social errors sometimes, so why worry about it.

19. I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make.

20. I worry a lot about what my superiors think of me.

21. If I know someone is judging me, it has little effect on me.

22. I worry that others will think I am not worthwhile.

23. I worry very little about what others may think of me.

24. Sometimes I think I am too concerned with what other people think of me.

25. I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things.

26. I am often indifferent to the opinions others have of me.

27. I am usually confident that others will have a favorable impression of me.

28. I often worry that people who are important to me won't think very much of me.

29. I brood about the opinions my friends have of me.

30. I become tense and jittery if I know I am being judged by my superiors.
APPENDIX F

THE INTERNAL, POWERFUL OTHERS, AND CHANCE SCALES

Mark each statement in the right margin according to how you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Circle +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1 = I AGREE A LITTLE    -1 = I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2 = I AGREE ON THE WHOLE -2 = I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3 = I AGREE VERY MUCH    -3 = I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

1. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
2. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
3. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
4. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
5. I am usually able to protect my personal interests. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
6. My life is determined by my own actions. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
7. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
8. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
+1 = I AGREE A LITTLE  -1 = I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2 = I AGREE ON THE WHOLE  -2 = I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3 = I AGREE VERY MUCH  -3 = I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

9. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard to get it. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

10. To a great extent my life in controlled by accidental happenings. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

11. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interests from bad luck happenings. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

12. When I get what I want, it's usually because I am lucky. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

13. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

14. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

15. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

16. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

17. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

18. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

19. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3

20. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends. +3  +2  +1  -1  -2  -3
21. It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

22. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

23. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3

24. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver. +3 +2 +1 -1 -2 -3
This inventory contains a number of statements that other people may or may not use in describing you. Please respond to the following statements by answering either True or False in terms of how others most accurately perceive you.

1. She regards herself as more ambitious than most of her friends.

2. She enjoys working toward some goal she has set for herself.

3. She can set up a long-range plan and work toward it without being diverted by minor obstacles.

4. She is highly motivated to succeed in whatever she undertakes.

5. She knows what she wants to do with her future.

6. She has difficulty deciding just what it is she wants out of life.

7. She feels that she lacks the drive and ambition that most people have.

8. She is strongly motivated to achieve her goals.

9. She gives the impression that she knows exactly what she will be doing ten years from now.

10. She believes she will succeed in accomplishing what she wants to do through hard work.

11. She has given considerable thought to her future.

12. She has a great deal of drive to get ahead in the world.

13. She doesn't hesitate to let others know that she intends to be a success.
14. She has clearly defined goals that she has set for herself.

15. She knows what she wants to accomplish in life.

16. She is the sort of person who is willing to give up something small today in order to get something big tomorrow.

17. She has a great deal of drive and ambition.

18. She is the sort of person who believes in business before pleasure.

19. She knows how to get what she wants.

20. She is strongly motivated to succeed.

21. She understands the requirements of the goals she has set for herself.

22. She has carefully planned her future.

23. She is an extremely ambitious person.

24. She doesn't know what she wants out of life.
APPENDIX H

QUESTIONNAIRE COVER SHEET
January 1977

The following instruments are part of a study in which an effort is being made to better understand various attitudes of senior women at North Texas State University. Your efforts to complete these instruments is greatly appreciated.

Permission is being sought in this letter for computer access to your grade point average and SAT score and/or High School ranking for purposes of correlating them with the data from the instruments. The requested information will be treated strictly as group data in order to provide complete anonymity of each individual's personal data. No single individual will be identified or alluded to at any point in the study. None of the above requested information will be observed by anyone, including the experimenter, for it will be treated by means of computer analysis. Please give your signature of permission, other information requested below, and proceed.

Academic Major: __________________________

Age: __________________________

Social Security: _______ - _______

Number

Signature: __________________________
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books


Articles

Albino, J., "The Motive to Avoid Success and Problems Reported by Male and Female Students Withdrawing from the University of Texas at Austin," *Education Psychology*, XXXIV (1973), 2375-2376.


Crandall, V., "Achievement Behavior in Young Children," *Young Children*, XX (1964), 76-90.


Franklin, R., "Youth Expectancies About Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement Related to Variables," *Dissertation Abstracts International*, XXIV (4-B), (1963), 1684.


Hjelle, L., "Internal-External Control as a Determinant of Academic Achievement," *Psychological Reports*, XXVI (1970), 326.


Makosky, V., Fear of Success, Sex-Role Orientation of the Task, and Competitive Condition as Variables Affecting Women's Performance in Achievement-Oriented Situations, paper presented at the Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Cleveland, Ohio, 1972.


Newson, J., "The Motive to Avoid Success and Problems Reported by Male and Female Students Withdrawing from the University of Texas at Austin," *Dissertation Abstracts International*, XXXIV (1973), 2375-2376.


Parker, V., "Fear of Success, Sex-Role Orientations of the Task, and Competition Condition as Variables Affecting Women's Performance in Achievement Situations," Dissertation Abstracts International, XXII (9-B), (1971), 5495.


Powell, A., & Vega, M., "Correlates of Adult Locus of Control," *Psychological Reports*, XXX (1972), 455-460.


Thurber, S., "Defensive Externality and Academic Achievement by Women," Psychological Reports, XXX (1972), 454.


