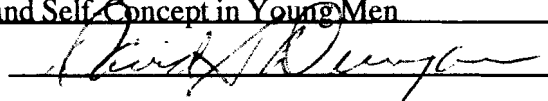


AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Belinda K. Ball for the Master of Science

in Psychology presented on June 10, 1998

Title: The Relationship Among Self-Reported Assertiveness, Aggressiveness, Gender Role Orientation, and Self-Concept in Young Men

Abstract approved: 

Assertiveness is often positively correlated with self-concept and a positive relationship exists between self-concept and both a masculine and an androgynous gender role orientation. However, little research has explored the relationship among these three components. The purpose of this study was to investigate their association. The hypotheses were: Young men reporting an assertive behavior style will report a higher self-concept than those reporting an aggressive style; young men reporting a masculine or an androgynous orientation will report higher self-concept than those reporting feminine or undifferentiated orientations; and men reporting an assertive style and a combination of a masculine or an androgynous orientation will report a higher self-concept than any other combination of interpersonal style and gender role orientation

Scores from 65 men between the age of 18 and 25 attending small Midwestern universities were used for data analysis using a 2 x 4 between subjects design. Assertiveness, aggressiveness, and gender role orientation were individually important to self-concept. The interaction effect was not significant. Participants who endorsed an assertive style rated their total self-concept higher than those endorsing an aggressive style. Participants endorsing an androgynous orientation rated their total self-concept significantly higher than those endorsing masculine or undifferentiated orientation. Those endorsing a feminine orientation rated their total self-concept higher than those endorsing an undifferentiated orientation. The reported lower self-concept of young men endorsing a masculine role was unexpected. Further studies are needed to ascertain if these results were indicative of subtle attitudinal transitions occurring within today's young men.

**THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG
SELF-REPORTED ASSERTIVENESS,
AGGRESSIVENESS, GENDER ROLE ORIENTATION,
AND SELF-CONCEPT
IN YOUNG MEN**

**A Thesis
Presented to
The Division of Psychology and Special Education
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of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science**

**by
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Male and female have long been the predominant designations within the human race. Many of the differences that exist within this division are the result of gender role expectations. The effects of these roles are pervasive and intense, both between and within gender.

Historically, specific cultural expectations for men and women have been referred to as gender roles. These expectations are relatively universal. The female was typically seen as gentle, dependent, nurturing, submissive and expressive. Men were expected to be aggressive, dominant, independent, competitive, and protective. If individuals were perceived as having traits that did not fit their traditional gender role, they were often viewed negatively. These gender roles resulted in women being excluded from what was considered 'men's work', and men were ridiculed when they entered into the roles designated as female (Bassow, 1992; Lips, 1993; Rathus, Nevid & Fichner-Rathus, 1993).

In the 1960s a massive women's movement began in the United States. The goal was to replace sexism with concepts of liberation and equality. Women wanted employment equality, salary equality, sexual equality, and domestic equality. They did not want to be held to what had been defined as a "woman's role." They were ready to move into the world of men and believed in their capabilities to do so (Bassow, 1992).

The women's movement created change in both the work place and the home environment. As women took on more of what had been male roles; many men began assuming female roles. Increasingly more and more men began entering fields (e.g. nursing, plane attendants, early childhood education) that had long been designated as feminine; they began to take a greater responsibility for child care, and began to share in household responsibilities. This movement into female roles came about not so much by choice as by necessity (Bassow, 1992).

While many men were assuming roles once designated for women, others were abandoning their responsibilities to home and family. Rather than compete with women in

the workplace, men worked to diminish and confine women's successes. The traditional role of man as provider and protector was gone, and men appeared to be in conflict as to what their role should be (Bassow, 1992).

There is a need to understand today's man in the context of societal changes. This cannot be done in conjunction with women, nor with a feminist bias. The changes in men have come about as a result of a far different set of circumstances than those of women. For the psychologist as an individual, for the field of psychology, and for society as a whole to gain a more accurate perspective of the modern man; it is necessary to understand how men's interpersonal response style relates to his gender role orientation and his self-concept.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among self-reported assertiveness, aggressiveness, gender role orientation, and self-concept. The research questions were: What is the relationship of self-concept to assertiveness and aggressiveness? What is the relationship of self-concept to gender role orientation? What is the relationship of self-concept to the interaction of assertiveness, aggressiveness, and gender role orientation?

Literature Review

To gain a background for this study three areas were examined. The first area was gender role orientation and the theories related to the various models. This was followed by interpersonal style as it relates to assertiveness (expression of one's rights, opinions, needs and feelings in such a way as not to infringe on another's rights, opinions, needs and feelings) and aggressiveness (expression of one's rights, opinions, needs and feelings in a demanding way and in disregard for the other's rights) in gender role orientation, and finally self-concept and how it is affected by gender role orientation, assertiveness, and aggressiveness.

Gender role orientation. Money (1994) defines gender role as "the public manifestation of gender identity" (p. 169). He went on to state the following:

Gender role is everything that a person says and does to indicate to others or to self the degree that one is either male or female or androgynous;

it includes but is not restricted to sexual and erotic arousal and response (which should not be excluded from the definition). (p.169).

Bassow (1992) defines gender identity as one's subjective feelings of maleness and femaleness. She describes gender role as society's evaluation of behavior as masculine and feminine. Gender role identity then becomes the degree by which a person identifies with the definition designated by society as masculine or feminine. Gender in its truest definition is not construed by biology, but by people and shaped by historical, cultural and psychological processes (Bassow, 1992; Lips, 1993).

The differences in gender roles are the direct result of the necessity for division of labor in early society. Because of women's child bearing activities and the influence of environment, chores allocated to women were determined by activities compatible with child care, supply and demand of labor, and the subsistence base of the society. Almost universally men became the hunters and the warriors; the women became sowers and gathers. This division of labor led to a gender stratification in which the status of women was beneath that of men. Women, thus femininity, were characterized as expressive, passive, nurturant, affiliative, unimportant, and incompetent. Men, thus masculinity, were characterized as active, aggressive, wage earners, athletic, independent, and competent (Bassow, 1992).

Stereotypical gender roles are established early in childhood. Masculine roles are usually more rigid, complex, and inconsistent than the feminine roles. Young boys are discouraged from cross-gender activities (rigidity) and are more likely to receive conflicting messages about what is acceptable (as formal disapproval versus informal approval of aggressiveness). More masculine than feminine stereotypical traits are known by both boys and girls attributing to the complexity of the early male role (Lips, 1993).

Research has proposed gender differences are quite diverse in early adulthood. Younger men tend to want to live by images, values and motives central to their masculinity. They neglect or repress the feminine side of their selves. In later life there is a shift or a crossover of gender role characteristics. Men begin to express more stereotypically feminine aspects of their personality. Middle-age becomes a time when

there is a decreased emphasis on mastery and an increased emphasis on nurturance and affiliation (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995). This research is consistent with Jungian theory, which posited that mature, healthy development is characterized by a complement of traditional masculine and feminine personality traits and an expression and utilization of both. Jungian theory maintained midlife development is marked by the attainment of balance and harmony and the development of underdeveloped polarities in the self (Sharpe, Heppner, & Dixon, 1995).

Three theoretical models, the congruence model, the masculinity model and the androgynous model, have guided most research on gender role orientation. The congruence model originally proposed one must be either masculine or feminine because the orientations are mutually exclusive and incompatible. This was later revised to maintain that well being is brought about by a gender role interaction. In the congruence model the well being of men is equated with high masculinity and low femininity. Well being in women was the result of low masculinity and high femininity (Whitley, 1983). The original congruence model paralleled the sexual orientation hypothesis. It suggests that masculinity and femininity are bipolar opposites and are in relationship with sexual orientation. Thus all men are expected to be masculine and all women are expected to be feminine (Lips, 1993; McCreary, 1994). It was concluded there was relatively little support for the congruence model (Stein, Newcomb & Bentler, 1992; Whitley, 1983).

The masculinity model purports regardless of the gender, beneficial effects are attributed to the masculine role (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Stein et al., 1992; Whitley, 1983). The masculine role has been cited as promoting psychological well being, assertiveness and self-esteem. In contrast are the suggested risks associated with the masculine role. These include high levels of risk-taking, self-destructive behaviors, and stress (Cournoyer & Mahalik). Also included are a lack of emotional expressiveness (Good & Wood, 1995) and highly competitive behaviors (Graham, 1992).

The androgynous model emphasizes the two-dimensional nature of gender roles in which masculinity and femininity are independent and complement each other (Whitley, 1983). Masculinity includes such traits as independence and assertiveness; femininity

includes interpersonal warmth and sensitivity (Stake, Zand, & Smalley, 1996). The model assumes one has one of three orientations: (a) an androgynous orientation which is characterized by a high degree of masculine and feminine traits, (b) a masculine or feminine orientation, characterized by a high degree of one orientation and a low degree of the other, and (c) an undifferentiated orientation, characterized by a low degree of both orientations (Faulkender, 1991; Juni & Grimm, 1994; Whitley, 1983).

The androgynous model has its roots in the Chinese philosophy of Taoism. In the Taoist philosophy the male (Yin) and female (Yang) archetypes are interdependent poles. One reaches peace and wholeness when duality of masculine and feminine is transcended and the two schemas are perceived in union (Lips, 1993).

Recent research has referred to gender role personality traits as instrumentality and expressiveness (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Sharpe, Heppner, & Dixon, 1995). Instrumentality represents autonomy, dominance, and assertiveness. Expressiveness represents empathy, nurturance, and interpersonal sensitivity (Sharpe & Heppner). Stake et al. (1996) assigned instrumentality to the agentic realm associated with social assertion, competence, self-efficacy, and potency. Expressiveness was assigned to the communal realm which included congeniality, positive relations, and relationship satisfaction. The agentic realm has been related to qualities assigned to the masculine domain; the communal realm has been related to the feminine domain.

Interpersonal style. Aggressiveness has been interpreted as a male trait and as such has been maintained throughout history (Fry & Gabriel, 1994). Towson and Zanna (1982) postulated that aggression is a natural phenomena of men due to biological differences. They concluded their hypothesis is supported and reinforced in society by an uncritical acceptance and reinforcement of male aggressive behaviors.

Hammock and Richardson (1992) reaffirmed Bandura's theory that individuals are not born with a preformed repertoire of aggressive behaviors. The behaviors must be learned. Aggression is learned and maintained through observation or when individuals receive reinforcement for coercive or aggressive behavior, and when they are exposed to inappropriate or aggressive behavior. Since aggressiveness is more acceptable to men; if

individuals consider themselves more masculine they may respond with higher levels of aggression than those who consider themselves more stereotypically feminine.

The feminist theory contends men's desire to maintain power is manifested in domineering and controlling acts. Men have constructed a male-dominated social system in which scripts for men to be aggressive and domineering and lacking in tenderness, empathy, and sensitivity are taught early. The need to conform to traditional masculine scripts results in a motivation to control. The differences in men are a result of the level of need to conform to the stereotyped masculine roles and the degree of insecurity in their masculine identity (Malamuth & Thornhill, 1994).

In research the male gender role is defined as having three expectations: seeking status, being tough, and avoiding what are considered feminine activities. The toughness theme has been known to carry with it an increased potential for violence (Thoreson, Shaughnessy, Cook, & Moore, 1993). Sawrie, Watson, and Biderman (1991) determined aggressiveness (which has the potential for violence) to be a problematic feature of masculinity. They maintained that traits from the feminine realm, such as nurturance and interpersonal sensitivity were necessary to reduce the level of masculine aggression. Quackenbush (1989) stated early studies "suggested the possibility that strong sex role stereotyping may, in fact, result in behavioral inflexibility impairing the individual's capacity to respond appropriately in some situations" (p. 321).

Hutchinson, Tess, Gleckman, Hagans, and Reese (1994) contend that men are accepted and encouraged to display power and dominance. Men who act in gender-incongruent behavior have been viewed negatively. The expectation for gender-congruence begins early in life. Young men who deviate from the traditional roles are viewed with concern and often punished. In contrast young women who deviate from the traditional female role are either ignored or rewarded. Thus men avoid what society has prescribed as female-valued behaviors (McCreary, 1994).

Because society values masculinity, the male gender role has more social desirability than the female role (McCreary, 1994). Aggression can be a positive trait because it fosters movement toward autonomous action and self-assertiveness.

Assertiveness is dependent upon the integration of aggression into the personality (Sawrie et al., 1991). Since the male role is of a higher social status (McCreary, 1994) aggression in men receives the social approval necessary to develop into adaptive self-assertiveness (Sawrie et al.).

Bjorkqvist (1994) reported that aggressive style changes throughout the developmental life course. It moves from a physical direct-aggression to a verbal direct-aggression to a verbal indirect-aggression. Fry and Gabriel (1994) and Sawrie et al. (1991) agree that aggression is a shifting trait. However Sawrie et al. argued that aggressiveness represents an immature grandiosity which can mature to adaptive assertiveness. Since men were allowed, in society, to be openly aggressive without guilt, they were more apt to be linked to greater assertiveness.

Self-concept. Self-concept was initially defined as a unitary, stable, generalized construct of self (Campbell et al., 1996); a personal judgment of self-worth expressed by attitudes towards oneself (Dorgan, Goebel, & House, 1983). This definition was replaced by a multifaceted design which included an organized knowledge structure possessing traits, values, and episodic and semantic memories about self. The knowledge structure controlled the process of self-relevant information. The contents of self-concept are divided into a knowledge component (Who/What am I?) and an evaluative component (How do I feel about myself?) (Campbell et al., 1996).

Considerable research has examined self-concept's relationship to gender roles. In the early 1970s, individuals with a balance of masculine and feminine traits were found to enjoy healthier psychological functioning than those who were oriented towards a stereotypical masculine or feminine role (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Equivalent amounts of masculinity and femininity allowed for a greater degree of flexibility in social situations. The more social roles individuals occupied the more likely they were to show high levels of both instrumentality and expressivity. Those high in masculinity and femininity were also high in self-esteem (Stake et al., 1996). Puglisi and Jackson (1981) found that although a combination of masculine and feminine traits accompanied optimal adjustment in society, masculinity was a better predictor of self-esteem.

Stein et al. (1992) found in a longitudinal study different constructs predicted positive self-esteem for men and women. For young men greater self-esteem was predicted through agentic constructs. Men's early perceptions of personal achievement and self-fulfillment were imperative for later positive self-esteem and self-evaluation. In women communality was the best predictor. Their later self-concept was impacted by good interpersonal relationships in late adolescence.

There has been a large amount of research that found masculine roles foster psychological well being, positive self-esteem, psychological health, and assertiveness in those who incorporate the role into their personality (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Faulkender, 1991; Sharp & Heppner, 1991; Whitley, 1983). Sharpe et al. (1995) suggested this positive relationship between masculinity and psychological well being may be because instrumentality does not tap into the negative aspects of male socialization.

Good and Wood (1995) proposed that attempts to live up to expectations of the traditional male role may be harmful to mental health. The traditional male role demands give contradictory and unrealistic messages resulting in an internal conflict (Blazina & Watkins, 1996; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). This conflict, referred to as gender role conflict, negatively relates to psychological well being (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Good & Wood, 1995). O'Neil and Egan (1992) stated:

Striving to integrate gender role values often results in highly sex-typed behavior, including hypermasculine behavior for men and exaggerated ultrafeminine qualities for women. On the one hand you have John Wayne, the Marlboro man, and James Bond, and on the other you have Miss America, Cinderella, and the "dumb blonde." The televised "Love Connection" and "the Dating Game" glorify these stereotypes as valued gender identities in our society. For most individuals, these rigid and usually exploitive stereotypes are impossible to meet and can cause self-devaluation when the "gender role ideal" is not met. (p. 309)

Cournoyer and Mahalik's (1995) list of liabilities associated with the male gender role included increased stress, emotional inexpressiveness, and an aggressive competitive

drive. They claimed a rigid adherence to the role resulted in personal restriction, devaluation, and violation of others. Thoreson et al. (1993) added that despite recent changes in social norms and expectations 'most young men were not prepared for the emphasis on emotional expression and interpersonal skills.' Men were often pulled between the new societal expectations and the traditional roles modeled by their fathers.

Literature summary. Three models have been predominant in most research on gender role orientation. The congruent model has found little support in recent research. There is considerable controversy between the masculinity model and the androgynous model. Those who adhere to the androgynous model divide gender role into three orientations: androgynous, traditional gender and undifferentiated. They propose that the androgynous orientation promotes healthy self-concept. Some research has proposed that men shift orientation from traditional masculinity towards a more balanced form of androgyny, and this transition is necessary for healthy psychological development. Those who support the masculinity model claim the masculine role promotes self-esteem and psychological well being and assertiveness. Because the masculine role is socially valued, it allows for a healthy transition from immature aggression to adaptive assertiveness.

Recent research suggests that instrumentality looks at only the positive traits of male gender and ignores its negative aspects of socialization. It is proposed that the social expectations given by society create conflict in men which is harmful to self-concept and self-evaluation.

Rational, Research Questions, and Hypothesis

Rational. The traditional male role is in flux. Society has established new norms and expectations. As men strive to integrate the societal changes into their personal definition, there is potential for conflict. Gender role conflict can have negative effects on interpersonal behavior, self-concept, and self-evaluation. It is important that psychology monitor the effects of societal change on men.

Research Questions. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among assertiveness, aggressiveness, gender role orientation, and self-concept in young

men. The research questions were:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship of self-concept to assertiveness and aggressiveness?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship of self-concept to gender role orientation?

Research Question 3: What is the relationship of self-concept to the interaction of assertiveness, aggressiveness, and gender role orientation?

Hypotheses. The following hypotheses were investigated:

Hypothesis 1: Young men reporting an assertive interpersonal style will report a higher self-concept than those reporting an aggressive interpersonal behavior style.

Hypothesis 2: Young men reporting a masculine or an androgynous orientation would report a higher self-concept than those reporting a feminine, or an undifferentiated orientation.

Hypothesis 3: Young men reporting a combination of a masculine or an androgynous orientation and an assertive interpersonal style would report a higher self-concept than any other combinations of gender role orientation and assertive or aggressive interpersonal style.

Variables were self-reported assertiveness, aggressiveness, gender role orientation, and self-concept. Variables were measured by the Interpersonal Behavior Survey, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Second Edition.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

This study began with 100 male volunteers between the ages of 18 and 25 attending two small Midwestern universities. Thirty-five of the volunteers did not meet assertive or aggressive categorization criteria and were eliminated from the research. The final number was 65. To attain volunteers the standard procedure for use of Student Participant Pool for Research established by Emporia State University's Division of Psychology and Special Education was followed. Participating students received research points as a means of fulfilling course requirements.

The mean age of the participants was 19; ages ranged from 18 to 25. The mean education was 13 years; education ranged from 13 to 16 years. The majority of the participants resided in cities from 10,000 to 50,000 population. Eighty-one and one-half percent of the participants were white, 12.3% were black, 1.5% were Asian, 1.5% were Hispanic, and 3% classified themselves as other.

Design

A 2 x 4 between subjects factorial design was used to compare mean global self-concept scores between the independent variables. The independent variables in this study were interpersonal style and gender roles. Subjects were classified as having an assertive or aggressive interpersonal style based upon the differences in their general assertive and aggressive T-scores taken from the Interpersonal Behavior Survey (Mauger & Adkinson, 1980). Gender role orientation was divided into four groups: a masculine group, a feminine group, an androgynous group, and an undifferentiated group. The subjects were classified masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated based on a median split of the normative sample as specified in the Bem Sex-Role Inventory Manual (Bem, 1981).

Instrumentation.

General aggressiveness and general assertiveness scores were taken from the Interpersonal Behavior Survey (IBS), short form. Data for gender role orientation were collected from the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI), short form. Self-concept scores were

acquired from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Second Edition (TSCS:2). Demographic data came from a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix A) developed by the researcher.

The Interpersonal Behavior Survey, short form. The Interpersonal Behavior Survey, a paper and pencil, self-report inventory, was developed to assess assertiveness and aggressiveness as two distinct classes of behaviors. The inventory measures general assertiveness and aggressiveness, subclasses of nine assertiveness scales and eight aggressiveness scales, components of interpersonal relationship style, and three types of instrumental validity. General Aggressiveness subscales include the Subscales Expression of Anger, Disregard for Rights, Verbal Aggressiveness, and Physical Aggressiveness. General Assertiveness subscales include Rational, Frankness, Praise, Requesting, Help, and Refusing Demands. It was designed to be used with individuals from grades 9 through 16 and adults (Hutzell, 1985).

The IBS consists of 272 true or false statements written in the present tense at a 6th-grade reading level. Sexist language is avoided in the statements (Franzoi, 1985). The short form of the IBS consists of 133 statements and allows for scoring of the general assertiveness and aggressiveness scales as well as nine assertiveness subscales, eight aggressiveness subscales, two validity scales, and zero relationship scales (Hutzell, 1985).

The IBS appears to have reasonable internal consistency, ranging from .52 to .88, and test-retest reliabilities, ranging from the .70s to the mid .90s. Reliability estimates were derived from a college sample (Franzoi, 1985; Hutzell, 1985). Validity based on correlations with other self-report methods is good, correlations from .45 to .65. Validation against observable behaviors is lacking. The survey is best used in studies using only the general assertiveness and aggressiveness scales (Franzoi, 1985).

An assertive and aggressive response style is based upon the difference between the general assertive and aggressive T-scores. A difference of at least 8 T-score points should be present before the results are interpreted as indicating a real response style (Mauger & Adkinson, 1980).

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory, short form. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory,

developed by Sandra Bem, was published in 1974. Modifications in the scoring systems were published in 1978, and the short form of the BSRI was published in 1981 (Bieger, 1985). Sandra Bem assumed femininity and masculinity were distinct thus allowing for the possibility of an androgynous individual (Lippa, 1985). She developed the BSRI to carry out research on the construct of psychological androgyny (Bieger, 1985).

The BSRI is a paper and pencil test designed to measure sex-role orientation in individuals from high school through adult. The short form of the test consists of 30 items which an individual rates on a seven-point Likert Scale as to how true a personality characteristic is about the self. The BSRI results in one of four sex-role classifications: high masculine with scores high on masculine and low on feminine, high feminine with scores high on feminine and low on masculine, androgynous with scores high on both masculine and feminine, and undifferentiated with scores low on masculine and feminine (Bieger, 1985; Larson, 1981).

Because of its increased internal consistency and its convenience in scoring, the BSRI short form is recommended for use over the original long form. It is reported to have good test-retest reliability with coefficients from .76 to .94, and good internal consistency with coefficients from .75 to .90. Validity data are described meager but promising. The normative data were obtained from Stanford University undergraduates. Use of the instrument beyond a college population would not be recommended (Bieger, 1985; Payne, 1985).

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Second Edition. Development of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale began in 1955. The goal was to develop an instrument that would contribute to the criterion problem in mental health research (Fitts, 1965). The TSCS was designed to portray an individual's concept of self-worth and determine how realistic that concept is (Walsh, 1984). The finished scale is usable as a research instrument and in counseling, assessment and diagnosis, and personnel selection (Fitts, 1965).

The TSCS:2 consists of 82 self-descriptive statements scored by an individual on a 5-point Likert Scale. The TSCS:2 items are used to provide four validity scores, two summary scores, six self-concept scores and three supplementary scores (Fitts & Warren,

1996). Hand scoring of the Scale, though cumbersome, is available. Also available is a computerized scoring and interpretation (Arachambault, 1992).

The TSCS:2 is self descriptive and may be used in either group settings or individual settings. The Adult Form was designed to be used with persons 13 years of age or older who can read at approximately a third grade-level or higher. There is also a Child Form consisting of 76 items. The child form was standardized for ages 7-14 who could read at at least a second-grade level (Fitts & Warren, 1996).

Strong support is available for the total score of the TSCS:2 but not for the Subscales. Studies of internal consistency and stability of total scores have reported coefficients of around .90. Test-retest reliability for the Subscales are reported between .47 and .82 (Fitts & Warren, 1996). Unlike the original test-retest coefficients for the TSCS Subscales which were based on a small sample of college students in 1965 (Arachambault, 1992), the TSCS:2 's test-retest were evaluated using responses from 135 high school students (Fitts & Warren). More studies are needed. Correlations between the TSCS and other self-esteem scales have ranged from .51 to .75 giving strong support to TSCS's total test validity. Factor analysis have not supported the validity of the multidimensionality of the scales (Arachambault). Correlational studies between the TSCS:2 and other adult self esteem scales are needed.

Demographic questionnaire. A demographic questionnaire developed by the researcher was used in the study. Questions about the participants age, race, education, and population of home residence were asked.

Procedure

Prior to any data collection an Application for Approval to Use Human Subjects was submitted to the Institutional Review Board at Emporia State University. Following approval the male participants were selected as described earlier in this chapter.

Upon arrival the participants were given an Informed Consent Document (see Appendix B) and a research packet. The participants were instructed to keep the informed consent separate from the packet. They were asked to read the informed consent document and sign it. The documents were then collected.

The research packet contained a demographic questionnaire, the Interpersonal Behavior Survey-short form, the Bem Sex Role Inventory,short form, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Second Edition. A dictionary and a thesaurus were made available. For sorting purposes the research packets were numbered from 100 to 200. To protect their anonymity the participants were instructed not to put their name on any form in the packet. Directions for each test were read to the group. The participants were directed to complete the forms at their own pace, place the forms back in the packet when completed, and return the packet to the researcher. They were told they could leave as soon as they were finished. The researcher did not leave the room until all packets were returned. Administration time did not exceed 45 minutes.

Each set of instruments was scored by hand. The four sex-role classifications on the BSRI, the general aggressiveness and general assertiveness scales on the IBS, and the general self-concept score on the TSCS:2 were used for statistical analysis. Mean age and education, and resident population were computed using information from the Demographic questionnaire. Data on the ethnic distribution of the participants were made available.

Summary

With the feminist movement has come new norms and new expectations for men. As men strive to integrate these changes into their personal definition, there is potential for role conflict which can effect self-concept. Research has shown that assertiveness is often positively correlated with self-concept. There is also support for a positive relationship between self-concept and both a masculine and an androgynous gender role orientation. There is little research available that has explored the relationship existing among assertiveness, aggressiveness, gender role orientation and self-concept. Using data obtained from the Interpersonal Behavior Survey, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, the present study provided information about this association.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

A total of 100 volunteers filled out the Interpersonal Behavior Survey (IBS), the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Second Edition (TSCS:2), and a background information questionnaire. Of the 100 participants, 35 did not meet the criteria for either an assertive or aggressive interpersonal response style as outlined by the IBS scoring manual. Those 35 were eliminated from the study.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship among self-reported assertiveness, aggressiveness, gender role orientation, and self-concept among young men. The research questions were: 1) What is the relationship of self-concept to assertiveness and aggressiveness? 2) What is the relationship of self-concept to gender role orientation? 3) What is the relationship of self-concept to the interaction of assertiveness, aggressiveness, and gender role orientation? A factorial 2x4 analysis of variance was used to analyze data. The independent variables were interpersonal style and gender roles, the dependent variable was self-concept. The IBS classified the participants into two preferred interpersonal styles, assertive or aggressive. The BSRI was used to place participants into four gender role groups (role: feminine, masculine, androgynous, or undifferentiated). The TSCS:2 provided a total self-concept score.

Analysis of variance (see Table 1) revealed statistical significance for the interpersonal style main effect $F(1, 57) = 8.42, p < .01$, and the gender roles main effect, $F(3, 57) = 3.18, p < .05$. Significance was not found in the interpersonal style by gender roles interaction effect, $F(3, 57) = .64, p > .05$.

Participants who endorsed an assertive interpersonal style rated their total self-concept ($M = 306.86$) significantly higher than those endorsing an aggressive interpersonal style ($M = 275.50$). The effect magnitude was $\omega^2 = .24$. A Tukey Multiple Range Test, set at the .05, level revealed participants endorsing a feminine sex role rated their self-concept ($M = 310.88$) significantly higher than those endorsing an undifferentiated sex role ($M = 271.54$). Participants endorsing an androgynous sex role

Table 1

Analysis of Variance for Self-Concept Scores by Interpersonal Style and Gender Roles

Source of Variation	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Interpersonal Style	5178.80	1	5178.90	8.42**
Gender Roles	5861.33	3	1953.78	3.18*
Interpersonal Behavior by Gender Roles	1179.17	3	393.06	.64
Error	35055.17	57	615.00	

*p < .05

**p < .01

rated their self-concept ($M = 307.00$) significantly higher than those endorsing a masculine role ($M = 282.2381$) or an undifferentiated role ($M = 271.54$). The effect magnitude was $\omega^2 = .22$. There was no significant difference between those endorsing a feminine role and those endorsing either a masculine or an androgynous role. There was no significant difference between those endorsing a masculine role and those endorsing an undifferentiated role. Table 2 contains means and standard deviations for the interpersonal style main effect, the gender roles main effect, and the interaction means.

The lack of significance in the interpersonal style by gender roles interaction effect indicated that the interaction of interpersonal behavior style and gender role orientation did not have an effect on the participants level of self-concept. Self-concept appeared to be affected by a chosen interpersonal style and by a gender role endorsement, but not by the interaction of any of the sub-groups within the independent variables.

Table 2

Summary of Means and Standard Deviation of Self-Concept Scores by Interpersonal Style and Gender Roles

<u>Gender Role</u>	<u>Interpersonal Style</u>								
	Assertive			Aggressive			<u>Total</u>		
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Feminine	5	311.80	22.92	3	309.33	31.01	8	310.88	24.01
Masculine	7	296.43	23.40	14	275.14	29.69	21	282.14	29.03
Androgynous	19	312.16	20.03	4	282.50	16.66	23	307.00	22.33
Undifferentiated	4	293.75	26.92	9	261.67	27.51	13	271.54	30.39
<u>Total</u>	35	306.86	22.29	30	275.50	29.72			

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Numerous studies have examined the relationship of self-concept to assertiveness and aggressiveness or self-concept to gender role orientation. However, there is little research available on the relationships among assertiveness, aggressiveness, gender role orientation, and self-concept. The present study was designed to provide additional information about these relationships.

Sawrie, Watson, and Biderman (1991) maintain assertiveness is dependent upon integration of aggression into the personality. Aggression has been described as a shifting trait; an immature grandiosity which can mature to adaptive assertiveness which fosters movement towards nonassertive actions (Fry & Gabriel, 1994; and Sawrie, et al., 1991). Based on this research the first hypothesis was young adult men reporting an assertive interpersonal behavior style would report a higher self-concept than those reporting an aggressive interpersonal style. The hypothesis was supported by the data in this study. Those endorsing an assertive style had self-concept scores significantly higher than those endorsing an aggressive style.

The second hypothesis was young adult men reporting a masculine or an androgynous role orientation would report a higher self-concept than those reporting a feminine or an undifferentiated role orientation. The hypothesis was not supported. Self-concept scores of young men reporting an androgynous orientation were significantly higher than those endorsing a masculine role or an undifferentiated role. Self-concept scores of young men reporting a feminine role orientation were significantly higher than those reporting an undifferentiated role. There was no significant difference in self-concept scores between those endorsing a feminine role and those endorsing a masculine or an androgynous role. There was no significant difference in self-concept scores between those endorsing a masculine role and those and those endorsing an undifferentiated role. These results could be due in part to the small cell size of some roles. It could also be indicative of attitudinal changes in young men do to societal expectations.

Those reporting an androgynous style would appear to feel comfortable with whom they are. Their mean self concept score was 307 which placed them in the 65th percentile according to the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: Second Edition manual (Fitts and Warren, 1996). This is supported by Sharpe and Heppner (1991), who reported individuals having a balance of masculine and feminine traits enjoy a healthier psychological functioning than those oriented to one extreme or another.

Those endorsing a feminine role orientation had a mean self-concept score of 310.88, which placed them in the 72nd percentile (Fitts & Warren, 1996). Because of the small number ($n = 8$) of participants endorsing a feminine role, the mean could easily have been affected by a single high score of 351. It may also indicate that those who openly endorsing a feminine role orientation are comfortable with that role and with themselves.

The mean score for those endorsing an undifferentiated role orientation was 271.54 which placed them in the 18th percentile (Fitts & Warren, 1996). Those endorsing an undifferentiated role appear to be unhappy with who they are. This dissatisfaction may stem from a lack of personal commitment to any particular role. This group would seem to be unsure of who they are.

A large amount of research found the masculine role fosters psychological well being and health and self-esteem in those who incorporate the role into the personality (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Faulkender, 1991; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Whitley, 1983). Cournoyer and Mahalik (1995) and Sharpe et al. (1995) further proposed younger men tend to live by the images, values and motives that are central to masculinity. Based on this research, one would expect those who endorsed a masculine role orientation to report high self-concept score. Those endorsing a masculine role orientation had a mean score of 282.24 which placed them in the 31st percentile (Fitts and Warren, 1996). These scores were in contrast to the above research. This contrast could be indicative of this particular sample of young men. It could support the research of Good and Wood (1995), who proposed attempts to live up to expectations of the traditional male role creates gender role conflict which may be harmful to mental health.

The third hypothesis, young adult men reporting a combination of a masculine or an

androgynous orientation and an assertive interpersonal behavior would report a higher self-concept than any other combination of gender role orientation and assertive or aggressive interpersonal style, was unsupported. Possible reasons for the results are unclear. The Interpersonal Behavior Inventory specifications resulted in a small sample size which may have attributed to the lack of significant difference among the cells. It may be there is no effect on self-concept in relationship to the interaction of gender role orientation and assertive and aggressive behavior. The results could be indicative of this particular sample. Further research with a larger and more diverse sample is warranted.

In drawing implications from the present study certain limitations should be kept in mind. Results may be indicative a transitions within the male population. They may well be more indicative of this study's sample of predominantly white men from small Midwestern communities. The entire subject pool was college based. The loss of subjects due to criteria set by the Interpersonal Behavior Inventory may have resulted in a skewed sample.

The instruments record only what the participants are willing to reveal about themselves and how they choose to portray themselves. The scoring method used in the Interpersonal Behavior Survey proved to be problematic in classifying assertive and aggressive types. Thirty-five of the participants could not be classified according to manual specifications so were eliminated from the study, resulting in a small sample group. Of the 65 who remained there were marked differences among the scores of those within each category (e.g. a participant could be labeled aggressive with an assertive T-score of 55 and an assertive T-score of 63 or could be classified aggressive with an an assertive T-score of 29 and an aggressive T-score of 38). Thus, those in each category could not be labeled assertive or aggressive in their interpersonal behavior but were described as endorsing one style or another. This problem should be addressed in future research using the IBS.

In summary, interpersonal style and gender role orientation were individually important as components in high total self-concept. As predicted, those endorsing an assertive interpersonal style scored higher in total self-concept than those endorsing an aggressive style. Those endorsing an androgynous role reported higher self-concept scores which supported earlier studies. An unexpected result was the low percentile scores in

total self-concept among those who endorsed a masculine role orientation. Could this be indicative of a subtle attitudinal transition occurring in young men, or was it merely indicative of the sample used in this study? With the present concern over how young men are adjusting to and functioning in a feminist influenced society, this is a question worthy of further study.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Demographic Questionnaire

Background Information

Please fill out the following about yourself.

What is your age? _____

Which race best describes you?

Asian _____

Black _____

Hispanic _____

Native American _____

White _____

Other _____ (please indicate) _____

How many years of college have you completed?

Less than one year _____

One year _____

Two years _____

Three years _____

More than three years _____

What is the population of your home residence?

Appendix B
Informed Consent Document

Informed Consent

The Division of Psychology and Special Education supports the practice of protection for human participants taking part in research and related activities. The following information is provided so you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study.

You are invited to participate in a research project that will broaden the understanding of gender roles among young adult men. The results will increase the knowledge base of psychology and related fields.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to terminate your participation, you are welcome to do so at any point without reprimand. There is no risk involved in completing this study.

Information obtained in this study will be identified only by a code number. Your name will be used only to indicate that you participated in the study and are eligible to receive extra credit for participating.

You will be asked to complete a Background Information sheet, read the directions on the questionnaires and inventories, and mark your responses, where appropriate, with pencil.

I, _____, have read the above information and have
(please print name)

decided to participate. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time, without prejudice, after signing this form should I choose to discontinue participation in this study.

(signature of Participant)

(date)

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Orientation, and Self-Concept in Young Men

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