AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Chelsa A. Hunter for the Master's degree in Clinical

Psychology presented on APRIL 11, 1996.

Title: AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADOLESCENT

GIRLS' AND BOYS' SELF-ESTEEM AND THEIR VIEWS OF

EGALITARIANISM.

Abstract approved:_____

     This study addressed the relationship between
adolescents' self-esteem and their views of egalitarianism.
The focus was primarily on girls, but race and gender were
also examined as exploratory variables. Four hundred and
fifty-one adolescents participated in the study. The average
age was 15.88 years old. A Pearson product moment
correlations were completed to evaluate the relationship
between scores on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory
(SEI) and the Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES). It was
hypothesized that the scores on the SEI and the scores on
the SRES would positively correlate. The results showed no
positive correlations for any of the groups. Further
analyses showed there was esentially no difference between
the groups on the SEI but that the Caucasian participants
scored significantly higher on the SRES than the African-
American participants. It was also found that the girls had
a stronger sense of egalitarianism than the boys. The
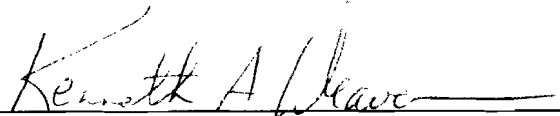implications of the results were discussed.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN

ADOLESCENT GIRLS' AND BOYS' SELF-ESTEEM

AND THEIR VIEWS OF EGALITARIANISM

————————

A Thesis Proposal

Presented to

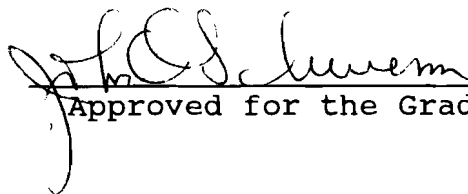the Division of Psychology and Special Education

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

————————

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

————————

by

Chelsa A. Hunter

May 1996

Kenneth A. Weaver
Approved for the Division of
Psychology and Special Education

[signature]
Approved for the Graduate Council

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to sincerely thank Dr. Lisa Reboy for allowing me to become involved in the ANYTOWN project and for providing so much help in the writing of this thesis. I would also like to thank Dr. Kurt Baker and Dr. Mikel Johnson for being a part of my thesis committee and for providing so many helpful suggestions. I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Ken Weaver for all of his help during the final stages of completing my thesis. Finally, I would like to express my thanks to my husband and family for their encouragement and support through this extremely busy time in my life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

No other social change has permeated society in recent years as deeply as the shift in gender roles. Changes in gender roles have impacted all aspects of modern life. Now one can see women in traditionally male roles, and to a lesser extent, men in traditionally female roles. Our institutions have faced, and continue to face, a demand for philosophical and structural adjustments away from the traditional perspective on female and male roles (King & King, 1993). Some are concerned that not enough has been done to facilitate changes in gender roles. Opportunities for women and men are still restricted on a gender basis. For example, in an era where women have the opportunity to travel in space, girls are still less likely to receive needed academic scholarships and less likely to enroll in higher level mathematics and science courses than boys (American Association of University Women, 1991).

With the apparent contradiction between professed changes and what many women actually experience, one wonders how adolescent girls perceive equality in society. Adolescence is a developmental period during which gender role development is of primary importance to personal adjustment (Renzetti & Curran, 1995). Adolescent girls

receive contradictory messages about appropriate gender role development. On one hand, they are told they should be feminine, yet being assertive and achievement oriented (traditionally masculine characteristics) are more often associated with success and are seen as more socially desirable (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972). They receive conflicting messages about achievement and popularity, wherein attaining the latter may mean sacrificing the former. According to Gilligan and Brown (1992), adolescent girls experience a fundamental conflict between staying in touch with their own feelings and beliefs and adjusting to the expectations of others.

Research has established that there is a relationship between gender role orientation and self-esteem. Hollinger and Fleming (1985), for example, reported a positive correlation between typically defined feminine characteristics such as communality and expressiveness and the problems of underachievement, fear of success, nonassertiveness, and low self-esteem. Much of this body of research has concentrated on adolescent girls' views of the differences between masculinity and femininity and how they view those differences impacting their own lives. Typically, adolescent girls who adopt more traditionally masculine characteristics are better adjusted and have higher self-esteem (Bem, 1974). This current study also examined the

relationship between adolescent girls' self-esteem and their views of gender roles. Specifically, this study examined the relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and their views of egalitarianism, a construct similar to gender role orientation. This relationship will be examined on the basis of the race and gender of the participants. Egalitarianism is discussed in further detail below.

Definition of Constructs

Gender Role Orientation

Sex refers to the biological basis of being male or female, whereas gender refers to the social dimension of being male or female (Basow, 1992). Gender role orientation is defined as the extent to which people believe or perceive that they possess gender- or sex-typed characteristics (Mullis & McKinley, 1989). The traits can be viewed in terms of one of the following categories: femininity, masculinity, androgyny, or undifferentiated (Prager, 1983). Femininity is characterized as emotionally expressive and places an emphasis on interpersonal relationships. The masculine gender role is often characterized as an orientation towards action, accomplishment and leadership (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). A person who has an androgynous gender role has a combination of feminine and masculine traits and a person who is undifferentiated has not formed a defined gender role (Bem, 1974).

Feminine sex-typed individuals typically are less aggressive and assertive than masculine or androgynous individuals (Sadker & Sadker, 1985; Schwartz, 1980). Gender role development is affected by several social factors in one's personal life. These factors will be discussed in a later section of the paper.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is defined as an attitude that causes one to respond to another individual independently of the other individual's sex. One who possesses this attitude believes that the sex of an individual should not influence the perception of an individual's abilities or the determination of an individual's rights, obligations, and opportunities. Consequently, an individual who is high in sex-role egalitarianism does not discriminate against or relate differently to another on the basis of the other's sex (Beere, King, Beere, & King, 1984).

Self-esteem

The concept of self-esteem is defined as the evaluation individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves (Coopersmith, 1981). An attitude of approval or disapproval indicates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967). Attitudes toward the self, like other orientations and dispositions, may be either conscious or

unconscious. Presumably, attitudes toward the self are like other attitudes in that they carry positive and negative affective connotations and are intertwined with intellectual and motivational processes. Thus, people need not be aware of their attitudes toward the self, but these attitudes will nonetheless be expressed in the person's voice, posture, gestures, and performance (Coopersmith, 1981).

Self-esteem is usually divided into two different concepts, self-acceptance and self-regard. Self-acceptance refers to a passive willingness to accept oneself as one is despite any weaknesses and is generally thought to be more typical of women. Self-regard in contrast refers to an active affirmation of one's worth and capabilities and is typically associated with men (Monaco & Gaier, 1992).

Development of Gender Roles

The development of a gender role is affected by several social factors as a person matures. Research suggests that much of children's self-concept, especially their gender role identity, is derived from their interpretation of the attitudes and behaviors of those around them. Accordingly, children's gender role acquisition is to a large extent directed by modeling and imitation of the appropriate behaviors and traits for their sex (Parsons, Ruble, Hodges, & Small, 1972). Not all socializing forces promote traditional feminine characteristics in all girls, but

documented patterns indicate family, schools, and peers can and often do influence the development of particular gender roles.

<u>Family</u>

From the beginning parents influence how their children will act and what they will consider as being appropriate behavior. Typically, girl babies are treated differently than boy babies. For example, Rubin, Provenzano, and Luria (1974) interviewed 30 first-time parents within 24 hours after childbirth and found that parents of boys and girls had already begun to view their infants differently. Those with daughters saw their babies as softer, finer featured and more delicate than did those with sons; those with sons saw them as firmer, stronger, better coordinated, hardier and more alert.

Parents demonstrate the largest difference in treatment of boys and girls in areas specifically related to gender roles, such as clothing and chores. Parents give children different toys, dress them differently, and assign them different tasks according to the children's sex (McHale, Bartko, Crouter, & Perry-Jenkins, 1990). For example, a study of household tasks performed by boys and girls between the ages of 2 and 17 years found that boys were more likely to mow the lawn, shovel snow, take out the garbage, and do other yard work; girls were more likely to clean the house,

wash dishes, cook, and babysit for younger children (White &
Brinkerhoff, 1981).

Differential treatment promotes the development of
different qualities and characteristics in children. Chore
assignment, for example, may affect the development of
different personal qualities. Domestic chores, typically
assigned to girls, facilitate the development of nurturing
and prosocial behavior while chores more typically assigned
to boys facilitate the development of independence and
problem solving abilities (McHale et al., 1990).

Girls and boys are also given different toys. A study
of the rooms of 120 boys and girls two years of age and
younger revealed that girls were provided with more dolls,
fictional characters, children's furniture, and the color
pink; boys were provided with more sports equipment, action
dolls (e.g., G.I. Joe and Power Rangers), tools, vehicles of
all sizes, and the colors blue, red, and white (Pomerleau,
Bolduc, Malcuit & Cossette, 1990). Different toys elicit
different types of parent-child interactions: play with
"feminine" toys elicits closer physical proximity and more
verbal interactions; play with "masculine" toys
elicits low proximity and low levels of questions and
teachings (Caldera, Huston, & O'Brien, 1989). Thus, boys and
girls may develop different patterns of interpersonal

interaction as a function of play with different toys.
Parents also play a very large role in the development
of gender roles simply through modeling. The most basic
difference modeled by mothers and fathers is in respect to
child care. Nearly all children are cared for primarily by a
woman, signaling that child care and nurturance in general
may be "women's work" regardless of whether both parents
work outside the home (Basow, 1992). Children learn about
the roles of women and men from observing their mothers and
fathers. Employed mothers are likely to have less sex-role
stereotyped children because the mothers have provided a
less traditional model (Bem, 1974; Hoffman & Nye, 1974;
Renzetti & Curran, 1995). Having an employed mother to serve
as a role model is a strong predictor of high-level
aspirations in daughters (Altman & Grossman, 1987; Frieze,
1975; Tangri, 1972). Furthermore, children whose parents
hold strongly egalitarian beliefs and whose lifestyle
reflects those beliefs tend to have greater knowledge of
non-sex typed objects and occupations than do other children
(Weisner & Wilson-Mitchell, 1990). Modeling may have a
larger impact on girls' development for a significant amount
of data suggests that girls rely more heavily on models and
family support than do boys (Monaco & Gaier, 1992).

Finally, parents also affect girls' self-perceptions of
academic success. Parents may provide girls with too little

encouragement for independence, autonomy, and separation, too much over-protection, and not enough conflict and hostility (Hoffman, 1972). When these parental patterns occur, girls are more likely to develop lower self-confidence, lower personal expectancies, excessive dependency, and an over-developed affiliation need (Holland & Andre, 1994).

School

The education system may promote gender differences, especially during adolescence. Girls and boys are treated differently in the classroom (American Association of University Women, 1991). Brophy and Good (1974) found that boys in contrast to girls receive more positive and negative attention from teachers. Teachers asked boys more questions, gave them more individual instruction, provided more corrective feedback, praised and encouraged boys more than girls (Brophy, 1985; Leinhardt, Seewald, & Engel, 1979; Simpson & Erikson, 1983). While boys are more likely to be rewarded for independence and creativity, girls are more likely to be praised for obedience and compliance (Boudreau, 1986). Teachers also use more indiscriminate criticism with boys; they criticize both the academic quality of their work and also criticize their social actions. In comparison, over two-thirds of the negative evaluations of girls were

directed at the academic quality of the girls' schoolwork (Parsons, Ruble, Hodges, & Small; 1976).

The differences between teacher interactions with boys and girls may communicate that the teacher expects more and better thinking from boys. Thus, boys are more likely to learn to respond to unsolved problems as a challenge, while girls are given the message that failure is beyond their control (Basow, 1992). These differences produce relatively more feelings of control among boys and relatively more feelings of helplessness among girls (Dweck, Goetz, & Strauss, 1980).

Peers

Peers become one of the largest influences on behavior during the adolescent years. In many cases, peer pressure is stronger and more effective than parental or other adult pressure, particularly during adolescence (Basow, 1992). With these pressures being brought to bear, girls who are most susceptible to the influence of others, or more "other-directed," may modify their achieving behaviors to be more congruent with the values of their peers (Fitzpatrick, 1978). Bright female adolescents may find their peer group does not view academic achievement congruent with their gender hence girls who were high academic achievers may stop achieving because friends look down upon it (Stein & Bailey,

1973). Similarly, Bakken, Hershey and Miller (1990) reported gifted female adolescents believe being identified as gifted will cause their peers to perceive them as being too serious and incapable of having a good time. Passivity, a typical feminine characteristic, may also be encouraged by peers. Connor, Serbin, and Ender (1978) found 9- to 14-year-old girls expect less disapproval from their peers for passive behavior and more disapproval for aggressive behavior than do their male classmates. In summary, children are strongly affected by socializing agents--parents, teachers, and peers--and generally learn gender roles early and well.

Development of Self-esteem

Many of the factors that affect gender role development also affect an adolescent girl's self-esteem. Studies consistently find a positive relationship exists between adolescents' perceptions of self-worth and the amount of support and positive regard provided in relationships with parents and friends (Camporo, 1995).

As stated earlier, the components that make up self-esteem differ for men and women. One reason may be that women and men use different standards by which to evaluate themselves. That is, women may compare themselves to the typical or ideal woman, and men may compare themselves to

the typical or ideal man. There is evidence that adolescents who feel successful in the realm they consider appropriate (sociability for many girls; achievement, leadership, and strength for many boys) have high self-esteem (Tucker, 1983). In addition, the basis of self-esteem for men and women may differ (Josephs, Markus, & Tafarod, 1992). Women are more likely to have a sociocentric or connected self schema in which relationships with other people are crucial and are included within the self. Men are relatively more likely to have an individualistic, separate schema with "other" distinct from the self. These differences are thought to arise from different sources--from boys' early experience of having to differentiate themselves from their mothers, while girls experience similarity and continuance with their mothers (Chodorow, 1978; Eagley, 1987). A third factor may be differences created from an imbalance in social power with women having to be attuned to dominate others who control their fate (Miller, 1986). Therefore, when adolescents are considering their future selves, girls and boys have different thoughts about their most probable and most promising selves (Curry, Trew, Turner, & Hunter, 1994). These gender-based thoughts could affect their self-esteem in a positive or negative manner depending on whether they see their futures selves as positive or negative.

Relationship Between Gender Roles and Self-Esteem

Pleck (1975) theorized that early adolescence is a period during which conformity to traditional gender role norms results in positive social adjustment. However, others have proposed that adolescent preference for masculine traits (regardless of gender) is a better predictor of personal adjustment (Lerner, Sorell, & Brackney, 1981; Massad, 1981; Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987). This latter position is best exemplified by Lerner et al. (1981) who suggested an individual's self-definition should be compatible with the demands of society. Lerner et al. (1981) have indicated masculine traits and behaviors in American culture are more highly valued and rewarded than are feminine traits. Consequently, individuals who have demonstrated effective functioning (e.g., high self-esteem) in society would possess both masculine and feminine traits with greater value placed on masculine traits for both women and men.

Current research utilizing adolescent subjects has provided some support the Lerner et al. position (1981). Lamke (1982), for example, examined the relation between gender role orientation and self-esteem in 12 to 15-year-old adolescents and concluded masculinity significantly predicted self-esteem, especially for early adolescent girls. In addition, Massad (1981) reported higher levels

of masculinity in both younger and older high school students were associated with increased self-esteem and peer acceptance for boys, whereas both high levels of masculinity and femininity were associated with higher self-esteem and peer acceptance for girls.

Bem (1974) proposed that men and women who are balanced in masculinity and femininity (androgynous) tend to be better adjusted than men high in masculinity and women high in femininity. For Lubiniski, Tellegen, and Butcher (1983), Bem's proposition suggested a relationship between masculine and feminine traits for higher levels of personal adjustment. Payne (1987) examined this relationship between masculine and feminine traits and found a lack of support for this view in predicting personal adjustment of young adults. Thus for Payne, masculinity did not emerge as more important than femininity in terms of personal adjustment, especially when adjustment was assessed with a broad array of self-report measures.

In summary, with respect to gender role orientation, individuals who display masculine characteristics are more likely to be 'socially adjusted' in our culture. This is true for boys and girls. The highest levels of adjustment, though seem to be among those whose gender role orientation is one of androgyny.

Development of Self-Esteem in Adolescent Girls

Research has shown children's self-esteem decreases during the transition from childhood to adolescence (Basow, 1991). However, the drop appears to be greater for girls. A national study of more than 3000 4th through 10th grade students found gender differences in self-esteem increase once students leave elementary school (American Association of University Women, 1991). A survey of 2400 girls and 600 boys in the 4th through 10th grades suggested the gender gap continues to widen during adolescence (Freiberg, 1991). At the ages of eight and nine, 60% of the girls and 67% of the boys reported feeling confident and positive about themselves. Among high schoolers, however, the percentage who reported feeling positive about themselves had dropped to 29% for girls and 46% for boys, leaving a considerably larger gap between the two groups.

During adolescence and early adulthood, boys have higher self-esteem than girls (Keltikangas & Juhasz, 1991; Richards, Gitelson, Petersen, & Hurtig, 1991). Adolescent girls consistently report more unhappiness and emotional distress than do adolescent boys. More specifically, adolescent girls describe themselves as sadder, more lonely, and more vulnerable than adolescent boys, as well as having more crying spells and temper outbursts. They also report

more shame and less satisfaction about their bodies and the physical changes of adolescence than do adolescent boys (Gleser, Seligman, Winget, & Rauh, 1977; Offer, Ostrov, & Howard, 1981; Rauste-von Wright, 1989; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975).

What is responsible for girls' drop in self-esteem and self-confidence during the transition to adolescence? Gilligan and Brown (1992), who have interviewed many girls making this transition, argue that as girls move from childhood to adolescence, they become aware that there is a conflict between the way they see themselves and the way others (teachers, authorities) view them. They suddenly confront a message of female inferiority, exclusion and subordination. They receive conflicting messages about achievement and popularity, wherein attaining the latter may mean sacrificing the former. The fundamental conflict is between staying in touch with their own feelings and beliefs and adjusting to expectations of others. They often respond to this conflict by submerging their own feelings and accepting the view of reality conveyed by adult authorities. By discrediting their own feelings they experience increased self-doubt, which often leads to lowered self-esteem.

From the literature reviewed previously, girls, especially during adolescence, struggle more with self-esteem. The previously reviewed literature also shows

there is a positive correlation between masculinity and self-esteem in women. This research displays a potential conflict for girls because socialization forces support adherence to feminine gender roles, but at the same time girls recognize that success is gained through masculine characteristics. Traditional gender role prescriptions have been noted in the self-descriptions of adolescent girls and boys, and the feminine gender role has been implicated in the poor emotional control, low self-esteem, and negative body image that characterizes adolescent girls in comparison to adolescent boys (Offer et al., 1981). For women, the range and type of experiences during high school take on a special significance because during this period they often weigh their various roles and adjust their aspirations accordingly. If the social environment is successful in reducing the discrepancy between what are often seen as conflicting roles, women may place greater emphasis on achievement and set higher levels of aspirations.

One note of caution is that much of this research is based on the development of Caucasian girls. Adolescent African-American girls have higher self-esteem than Caucasian girls (American Association of University Women, 1991).

Egalitarianism and Self-Esteem

In conclusion, the literature is replete with data suggesting a relationship between gender role orientation and self-esteem. Generally, the more feminine-typed a girl is, the lower her self-esteem is likely to be. Highly egalitarian individuals do not ascribe to traditional gender roles for themselves or others; low or non-egalitarian individuals do. No research has been conducted that explores the relationship between egalitarianism and self-esteem.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between egalitarianism and self-esteem in adolescents. The focus is primarily on girls. Race was examined because of the documented differences between African-American and Caucasian girls. Gender was also examined as an exploratory variable to determine whether the relationship is the same or different for boys. Self-esteem was measured using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI, 1981) and egalitarianism was measured using the Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES, 1993). The SRES was chosen because it measures a more global perspective of gender roles while other measures, such as the Bem Sex Role Inventory, evaluate gender roles on the more personal and less social level. It is hypothesized that scores on the SEI and the SRES will be positively correlated for Caucasian

girls and the African-American participants. Secondly, it is hypothesized that the scores on the SEI and the SRES will show no correlation for the Caucasian boys.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

Four hundred and fifty-one adolescents participated in this study. The average age was 15.88 years old (range of 13 to 19 years of age, $\underline{SD}$ = .96). Thirty-seven percent ($\underline{N}$ = 170) of the participants were male while 63% ($\underline{N}$ = 281) were female. For the follow-up studies only the Caucasian and African-American participants were utilized. There were 65 Caucasian boys, 52 African-American boys, 112 Caucasian girls and 84 African-American girls.

The adolescent participants were attending ANYTOWN camps. ANYTOWN is a program wherein teens address issues of oppression, prejudice, and multiculturalism. Each camp is a week long program that offers human relations workshops and experiential learning activities on how to live and work with people from diverse backgrounds. The nature of the camp ANYTOWN, which addresses issues of racism and sexism, may have adolescents attending who have been expose to issues about gender and race and therefore are more aware of these issues in our society. Participants were from a geographically diverse area: Birmingham, AL; Charlotte, NC; Des Moines, IA; Detroit, MI; Greensboro, NC; Jacksonville, FL; Kansas City, MO; Nashville, TN; St. Louis, MO; and Tulsa, OK.

Each participant went through a selection process before being able to attend the camp. The selection process began in the respective state departments of education. Each department sent flyers about the camp and applications for the school counselors and educators to distribute to each district. Interested students then completed the application and included two letters of reference. Applications were then evaluated by a selection committee.

Instruments

The participant surveys consisted of several measures as well as demographic information. The measures used in the current study included the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and the Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory - Adult Form. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) (Coopersmith, 1981) consists of 25 items adapted from the short form of the SEI (see Appendix B). Items include statements such as, "I can make up my mind without too much trouble" or "Most people are better liked than I am." For each of the statements listed, respondents indicate whether the statement is "Like Me" or "Unlike Me." Two general rules are used when scoring the SEI. First, negative items are scored correct (for example, "I get upset easily at home") if they have been answered "Unlike Me." Second, positive items are scored correct (for example, "I'm pretty sure of myself") if they

have been answered "Like Me." To arrive at a Total Self

Score, the number of self-esteem items answered correctly is

summed and multiplied by the total raw score by four. This

results in a maximum possible Total Self Score of 100. The

short form was developed based on an item analysis of the

School Form and includes the 25 School Form items that

showed the highest item total score correlations. Because

the abbreviated form was used, there are no subscales or a

lie scale. The Adult Form is used with persons over 15 years

of age. The total score correlation of the School Form and

the Adult Form exceeds .80 (Coopersmith, 1981).

The Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale. Sex role attitudes

were assessed using the short form (BB) of the Sex Role

Egalitarianism Scale (SRES) (King & King, 1993). The SRES

was developed to measure attitudes toward equality of men

and women and contains items that require judgements about

both men and women assuming non-traditional roles (see

Appendix C).

It consists of five domain subscales:

> Marital Roles: the items address beliefs about men and
> women in their spousal roles.

> Parental Roles: the items address beliefs about
> maternal and paternal roles.

> Employment Roles: the items address beliefs about men
> and women in their workplace roles.

> Social-Interpersonal-Heterosexual Roles: the items
> address beliefs about men and women in a variety
> of social relationships.

Educational Roles: the items address beliefs about
    educational alternatives available to men and
    women.

The short form consists of 25 items selected from those
appearing on the full form with an equal representation of
five items from each of the five SRES domains. For each SRES
item, respondents read a statement and indicated on a five-
point Likert scale the degree to which they agreed (1) or
disagreed (5). The scale's possible score range is 25 to
125. Higher scores indicate a more egalitarian position.

The short version of the SRES scale was chosen for two
reasons. First, using the long scale would significantly
lengthen the survey and hence increase the probability that
participants would not earnestly complete it. Second,
psychometric analysis indicates the short form has high
reliability and correlates well with the long form. An
analysis of factorial validity has yielded evidence that the
short form egalitarianism construct is unidimensional
for samples of men and women separately and combined,
and various estimates of reliability (internal consistency,
test-retest, and alternate forms) have been uniformly high.
The coefficient alpha for internal consistency was .94 and
for stability, .88. Finally, performance on the short form
correlates highly with performance on the long form (r =
.95) (King & King, 1993).

<u>Procedure</u>

All participants completed a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix A), an informed consent document (see Appendix D) and a questionnaire containing the SEI and the SRES.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Several Pearson-Product moment correlation coefficients were used to assess the relationship between egalitarianism and self-esteem. Initially the data were analyzed only by gender. Then the data were broken down further and gender by race (Caucasian or African-American) was examined. The results for each correlation are summarized in Table 1.

Possible scores for the SEI range from 100 to 200. A higher score is reflective of a higher self-esteem. The mean of the SEI scores was 169.85 for all participants with a standard deviation of 19.2. The possible scores for the SRES ranged from 25 to 125. A larger score indicates more egalitarian views with respect to gender roles. The mean of the SRES scores was 96.75 for all participants and the standard deviation was 10.6.

Results indicated a non-significant relationship between self-esteem and views of egalitarianism for either boys or girls. There was no correlation between the two measures for African-American participants and there was no correlation between the two variables for the Caucasian participants, therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Table 1

Correlations between Self-Esteem and Egalitarianism

	Gender					
	Girls		Boys		Total	
	n	r	n	r	n	r
Race						
Caucasian	112	.02	65	-.05	177	-.01
African-American	84	.01	52	.25	136	.12
Total participants	281	.02	170	.08	451	.05

The groups were further broken down to assess any correlation between race and gender. Caucasian and African-American girls showed a correlations of .02 and .01, respectively, between the two measures. Caucasian and African American boys displayed correlations of -.05 and .25, respectivly, between the two measures. None of the correlations were significant at the .05 level so no relationships were found. Therefore, the hypothesis which stated there would be a positive correlation between self-esteem and egalitarianism was not supported.

To illuminate the null result, two 2 (gender) X 2 (race) analyses of variance were conducted on the SEI and SRES scores respectively. For the SEI, neither of the effects nor the interaction were statistically significant. For the SRES, the main effects for gender and race were significant, $\underline{F}(1, 278) = 30.71$, $\underline{p} < .001$, and $\underline{F}(1, 278) = 7.53$, $\underline{p} < .01$, respectively. Girls ($\underline{M} = 99.17$, $\underline{SD} = 8.15$) were more egalitarian than the boys ($\underline{M} = 91.97$, $\underline{SD} = 13.02$). Caucasian participants ($\underline{M} = 98.02$, $\underline{SD} = 10.73$) were more egalitarian than the African-American participants ($\underline{M} = 94.20$, $\underline{SD} = 10.58$).

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The present study was an attempt to understand the relationship between adolescent girls' and boys' self-esteem and their views of egalitarianism. The research did not support the hypothesis that there would be a positive correlation between self-esteem and egalitarianism for Caucasian girls and African-American participants. The hypothesis which stated that there would be no correlation between the scores for Caucasian boys was supported.

Theoretical Implications

The results clearly show that in the three groups, the first hypothesis was not supported by the data. Based on the participants of this sample, gender role egalitarianism plays no role in personal self-esteem. This is surprising, yet there may be a variety of reasons for this result.

Most of the research on the subject of gender role orientation and self-esteem cited in this study has been appraised using as the Bem Sex Role Inventory, which assesses a person's gender role orientation on a personal level (Bem, 1974). In this research project, gender role orientation was evaluated on a more global or social level. That is, unlike the Bem Sex Role Inventory, the SRES assesses a participant's general beliefs about men and women and not their beliefs about themselves. On a personal level

each person (especially girls) may acknowledge differences in gender roles, but when thinking about roles on a social level they are more likely to say all people should be treated as equals.

The type of participants may also have affected the results. These are a group of adolescents who choose to attend a camp that addresses issues of sexism and racism. Compared to the general population of adolescents, these persons may already be comfortable with their gender role or have higher self-esteem. Both of those factors would reduce variability in the data and reduce the size of the correlation between the variables. African-American and Caucasian girls appeared to have equal self-esteem scores that counters the research literature (American Association of University Women, 1991) and may have also affected the results. Finally, gender role egalitarianism may play no role in personal self-esteem.

The results also showed that there was a significant difference between the Caucasian participants' scores on the SRES and the African-American participants' scores on the SRES. That the Caucasian participants SRES scores should be higher than the African-American participants SRES scores because the Caucasian participants have not experienced discrimination to the extent the African-American participants probably have. The girls also had a stronger

sense of egalitarianism than boys. These girls may have this stronger sense because they have yet to experience gender discrimination and therefore, at this time in their lives, believe that all people are treated equal.

Research Implications

A limitation of this study was the non-random sample. The sample was derived from a group of 10 camps and there was no way to control for all of the personal characteristics of each participant.

The second limitation of this study is linked to the data collection. No controls were in place to keep participants from fabricating the answers on the questionnaire and since many of the questions were about socially acceptable or unacceptable behavior some of the participants may have tried to portray their beliefs in a way they considered to be socially acceptable. For further research the long forms of the SEI and the SRES should be used so the lie scales will be in place to control for fabrication.

The unexpected results of this study were interesting in many ways. Further research should be done to better determine if a relation between gender role orientation and self-esteem exits and what the nature of that relationship may be.

REFERENCES

Altman, S.L., & Grossman, F.K. (1987). Women's career plans and maternal employment. <u>Psychology of Women Quarterly, 4,</u> 365-376.

American Association of University Women (1991). <u>Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America.</u> Washington, DC: The Greenberg-Lake Analysis Group.

Bakken, L., Hershey, M., & Miller, P. (1990). Gifted adolescent females' attitudes toward gender equality in education and intergender relationships. <u>Roeper Review, 12,</u> 261-264.

Basow, S. (1992). <u>Gender: Stereotypes and roles</u> (3rd ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Beere, C.A., King, D.W., Beere, D.B., & King, D.W. (1984). The Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale: A measure of attitudes toward equality between the sexes. <u>Sex Roles, 10,</u> 563-576.

Bem, S.L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. <u>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 42,</u> 155-162.

Boudreau, F.A. (1986). Education. In F.A. Boudreau, R.S. Sennot, & M. Wilson (Eds.), <u>Sex roles and social patterns</u> (pp. 213-229). New York: Praeger.

Brophy, J.E. (1985). Interactions of male and female students with male and female teachers. In L.C. Wilkinson &

C.B. Marrett (Eds.), Gender influences in classroom interaction (pp. 43-49). New York: Academic Press.

Brophy, J., & Good, T. (1974). Teacher-student relationships: Causes and consequences. New York: Holt, Rhinehart, & Winston.

Broverman, I., Vogel, S.R., Broverman, D.M., Clarkson, F.E., & Rosenkrantz, P.S. (1972). Sex role stereotypes: A current appraisal. Journal of Social Issues, 28, 59-78.

Caldera, Y.M., Huston A.C., & O'Brien, M. (1989). Social interactions and play patterns of parents and toddlers with feminine, masculine, and neutral toys. Child Development, 60, 70-76.

Camporo, L.B. (1995, March). Girls' parent-child relationships, friendships, and global self-worth: A bio-psychosocial perspective. Poster session presented at Society for Research in Child Development, Indianapolis, IN.

Chodorow, N. (1978). The reproduction of mothering: Psychoanalysis and the sociology of gender. Berkley, CA: University of California Press.

Connor, J.M., Serbin, L.A., & Ender, R.A. (1978). Responses of boys and girls to aggressive, assertive and passive behaviors of male and female characters. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 133, 59-69.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco: Freeman.

Coopersmith, S. (1981). <u>Self-esteem inventories.</u> Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Curry, C., Trew, K., Turner, I., & Hunter, J. (1994). The effect of life domains on girls' possible selves. <u>Adolescence, 29,</u> 134-150.

Dweck, C.S., Goetz, T.E., & Strauss, N.L. (1980). Sex differences in learned helplessness: IV. An experimental and naturalistic study of failure generalization and its mediators. <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38,</u> 441-452.

Fitzpatrick, J.L. (1978). Academic underachievement, other direction, and attitudes toward women's roles in bright adolescent females. <u>Journal of Educational Psychology, 70,</u> 645-650.

Freiberg, P. (1991, August). Self-esteem gender gap widens in adolescence. <u>APA Monitor,</u> p. 29.

Frieze, L.H. (1975). Women's expectations for and causal attributions of success and failure. In M.T. Mednick, S.S. Tangri, & L. Hoffman (Eds.) <u>Women and achievement</u> (pp. 175-188). New York: Wiley.

Gilligan, C. & Brown, L. (1992). <u>Meeting at the crossroads: Women's psychology and girls development.</u> Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gleser, G., Seligman, P., Winget, C., & Rauh, J.L. (1977). Adolescents view their mental health. Journal of Youth Adolescence, 6, 249-263.

Hoffman, L.W., & Nye, F.I. (1974). Working mothers: An evaluative review of consequences for wife, husband, and child. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Holland, A., & Andre, T. (1994). The relationship of self-esteem to selected personal and environmental resources of adolescents. Adolescence, 29, 345-360.

Hollinger, C., & Fleming, E. (1984). Internal barriers to the realization of potential: Correlates and interrelationships among gifted and talented female adolescents. Gifted Child Quarterly, 28, 135-139.

Josephs, R.A., Markus, H., & Tafarod, R.W. (1992). Gender differences in the source of self-esteem. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 63, 391-402.

Keltikangas, L.J., & Juhasz, J.A. (1991, July). Dealing with depression: Rumination and the perservation of transient dysphoria among adolescents. Paper presented at the 99th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, CA.

King, L.A., & King, D.W. (1993). Sex-role Egalitarianism Scale manual. Sigma Assessment Systems, Inc.: Research Psychologists Press Division.

Lamke, L.K. (1982). Adjustment and sex-role orientation in adolescence. <u>Journal of Youth Adolescence, 11,</u> 247-259.

Leinhardt, G., Seewald, A.L., & Engel, M. (1979) Learning what's taught: Sex differences in instruction. <u>Journal of Educational Psychology, 71,</u> 432-439.

Lerner, R., Sorell, G., & Brackney, B. (1981). Sex differences in self-concept and self-esteem of late adolescents: A time-lag analysis. <u>Sex Roles, 7,</u> 709-722.

Maccoby, E.E., & Jacklin, C.N. (1974) <u>The psychology of sex differences.</u> Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Massad, C.M. (1981). Sex-role identity and adjustment during adolescence. <u>Child Development, 52,</u> 1290-1298.

McHale, S.M., Bartko, W.T., Crouter, A.C., & Perry-Jenkins, M. (1990). Children's housework and psychosocial functioning: The mediating effects of parents' sex-role behaviors and attitudes. <u>Child Development, 61,</u> 1413-1426.

Miller, J.B. (1986). <u>Toward a new psychology of women</u> (2nd ed.). Boston: Beacon Press.

Monaco, N.M., & Gaier, E. L. (1992). Single-sex versus coeducational environment and achievement in adolescent females. <u>Adolescence, 27,</u> 579-594.

Mullis, R.L., & McKinley, K. (1989). Gender-role orientation of adolescent females: Effects on self-esteem

and locus of control. Journal of Adolescent Research, 4, 506-516.

Offer, D., Ostrov, E., & Howard, K.I. (1981). The adolescent: A psychological self-portrait. New York: Basic Books.

Orlofsky, J.L., & O'Heron, C.A. (1987). Stereotypic and nonstereotypic sex-role trait and behavior orientations: Implications for personal adjustment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53, 1034-1042.

Parsons, J.E., Ruble, D.N., Hodges, K.L., & Small, A.W. (1976). Cognitive-developmental factors in emerging sex differences in achievement-related expectancies. Journal of Social Issues, 32, 47-61.

Payne, F.D. (1987). "Masculinity," "femininity," and the complex construct of adjustment. Sex Roles, 17, 359-374.

Pleck, J.H. (1975). Masculinity-femininity: Current and alternative paradigms. Sex Roles, 1, 161-177.

Pomerleau, A., Bolduc, D., Malcuit, G., & Cossette, L. (1990). Pink or blue: Environmental stereotypes in the first two years of life. Sex Roles, 22, 359-367.

Prager, K.J. (1983). Identity status, sex-role orientation, and self-esteem in late adolescent females. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 143, 159-167.

Rauste-von Wright, M. (1989). Body image satisfaction in adolescent girls and boys: A longitudinal study. <u>Journal of Youth Adolescence, 18,</u> 71-83.

Renzetti, C.M., & Curran, D.J. (1995). <u>Women, men, and society</u> (3rd ed.), Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon

Richards, M.H., Gitelson, I.B., Petersen, A.C., & Hurtig, A.L. (1991). Adolescent personality in girls and boys: The role of mothers and fathers. <u>Psychology of Women Quarterly, 15,</u> 65-81.

Rubin, J., Provenzano, F., & Luria, Z. (1974) The eye of the beholder: Parents' view on sex of newborns. <u>American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 44,</u> 512-519.

Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (1985, March) Sexism in the school room of the 80s. <u>Psychology Today, 22,</u> 20-29.

Schwartz, L. (1980). Advocacy for the neglected gifted: Females. <u>Gifted Child Quarterly, 24,</u> 113-117.

Simmons, R.G., & Rosenberg, F. (1975). Sex, sex roles, and self-image. <u>Journal of Youth Adolescence, 4,</u> 229-258.

Simpson, A.W., & Erikson, M.T. (1983). Teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication patterns as a function of teacher race, student gender and student race. <u>American Educational Research Journal, 20,</u> 183-198.

Stein, A.H., & Bailey, M.M. (1973). The achievement orientation in females. <u>The Academic Bulletin, 80,</u> 345-366.

Tangri, S.S. (1972). Determinants of occupational role innovation among college women. <u>Journal of Social Issues,</u> <u>28,</u> 177-199.

Tucker, L.A. (1983). Muscular strength and mental health. <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45,</u> 1355-1360.

Weisner, T.S., & Wilson-Mitchell, J.E. (1990). Nonconventional family life-styles and sex typing in 6-year-olds. <u>Child Development, 61,</u> 1915-1933.

White, L., & Brinkerhoff, D. (1981). The sexual division of labor: Evidence from childhood. <u>Social Forces,</u> <u>60,</u> 170-181.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Demographic Information

Demographic Information

1. What is your age? _____

2. What is your gender? _____Male _____Female

3. What kind of community do you live in:

   _____Urban _____Suburban _____Rural/Small Town

4. What is your race/ethnic heritage? (Please check all

   that apply.)

   _____African American

   _____Hispanic/Latino/a

   _____Caucasian/European American

   _____Native American

   _____Asian/Pacific Islander

   _____Middle Eastern

   _____Southeast Asian/Indian/Pakistani

   _____Multiracial -please tell us:_____

   _____Other - please tell us:_____

Appendix B: Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Like Me	Unlike Me	
_____	_____	1. Things usually don't bother me.
_____	_____	2. I find it very hard to talk in front of a group.
_____	_____	3. There are lots of things about myself I'd like to change if I could.
_____	_____	4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
_____	_____	5. I'm a lot of fun to be with.
_____	_____	6. I get upset easily at home.
_____	_____	7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.
_____	_____	8. I'm popular with persons my own age.
_____	_____	9. My family usually considers my feelings.
_____	_____	10. I give in easily.
_____	_____	11. My family expects too much of me.
_____	_____	12. It's pretty tough to be me.
_____	_____	13. Things are all mixed up in my life.
_____	_____	14. People usually follow my ideas.
_____	_____	15. I have a low opinion of myself.
_____	_____	16. There are may times when I would like to leave home.
_____	_____	17. I often feel upset with my work.
_____	_____	18. I'm not as nice looking as most people.

Like Unlike
Me   Me

_____ _____19.If I have something to say, I usually say it.

_____ _____20.My family understands me.

_____ _____21.Most people are better like than I am.

_____ _____22.I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.

_____ _____23.I often get discouraged with what I am doing.

_____ _____24.I often with I were someone else.

_____ _____25.I can't be depended on.

Appendix C: Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale

Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale

Indicate how you feel about the following statements by circling your answer.

1=Strongly Agree   2=Agree   3=Unsure   4=Disagree   5=Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 Home economics courses should be as acceptable for male students as for female students.

1 2 3 4 5 Women have as much ability as men to make major business decisions.

1 2 3 4 5 The husband should decide whether a couple will go to a party.

1 2 3 4 5 High school counselors should encourage qualified women to enter technical fields like engineering.

1 2 3 4 5 A woman should be careful not appear smarter than the man she is dating.

1 2 3 4 5 Cleaning up dishes should be the shared responsibility of husbands and wives.

1 2 3 4 5 A husband should leave the care of young babies to his wife.

1 2 3 4 5 Men and women should be treated equally when applying for student loans.

1 2 3 4 5 Women are more likely than men to gossip about people they know.

1 2 3 4 5 The family will run better if the father, rather than the mother, sets the rules for the children.

1 2 3 4 5 A husband should not have many household responsibilities.

1 2 3 4 5 It is a mother's responsibility, not a father's, to plan a child's birthday party.

1 2 3 4 5 When a child wakes at night, the mother should take care of the child.

1 2 3 4 5 When men and women date, it is best if they base their social life around the man's friends.

1 2 3 4 5 Men and women should be give an equal chance for professional training.

1 2 3 4 5 It is more appropriate for a mother to change a baby's diaper.

1 2 3 4 5 It is worse for a woman to get drunk than a man.

1 2 3 4 5 When it comes to planning a party, women are better judges of whom to invite.

1 2 3 4 5 Women are just as capable as men to run a business.

1 2 3 4 5 The entry of women into traditionally male jobs should be discouraged.

1 2 3 4 5 Expensive job training should be given mostly to men.

1 2 3 4 5 It is wrong for a man to enter a traditionally female career.

1 2 3 4 5 Important career decisions should be left to the
husband.

Appendix D:Participation Consent Form

Participation Consent Form

Please read this consent form. If you have any questions ask the experimenter and he or she will answer your questions.

You are invited to participate in a study investigating the relationship between self-esteem and views of egalitarianism. You will be completing a questionnaire about your views concerning other people. Please be as honest as you can, all information is confidential.

Information obtained in this study will be identified only by code number. Your name will be used only to indicate that you participated in the study. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to terminate your participation, you are welcome to do so at any point in the questionnaire. There is no risk or discomfort involved in completing the study.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, feel fee to ask the experimenter. If you have any additional questions, please contact Chelsa Hunter, 316-341-5801.

Thank you for your participation.

I, _____, have read the above information and have decided to participate (please print name).
I understand my participation is voluntary and 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

THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED BY THE EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR TREATMENT OF HUMAN SUBJECTS FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS.

I, Chelsa A. Hunter, hereby submit this thesis to Emporia
State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements
for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the
University may make it available to use in accordance with
its regulations governing materials of this type. I further
agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of
this document is allowed for private study, scholarship
(including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit
nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain
will be allowed without written permission of the author.

_____
                                Signature of Author

_____
                                         Date

An examination of the relationship
between adolescent girls' and boys' self-
esteem and their views of egalitarianism.
_____
                                 Title of Thesis

_____
Signature of Graduate Office Staff

_____
                                  Date Received