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An Empirical Typology of College Women's Personal Role Conceptions

by

Robert Lawrence Fisher

A.B. (University of California) 1968

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

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Approved: Harrison G. Gough

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Harrison G. Gough, Ph.D. Dr. Gough is a man of great scholarship and also great common sense. But equally important to me, he is a man of warmth, who instructed me with tact and gentleness, and a rigorous researcher who apprenticed me by providing an excellent example.

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An Empirical Typology of College Women's Personal Role Conceptions

Robert Lawrence Fisher

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION: General Considerations in the Theoretical Approaches to the Construct of Femininity

This chapter reviews three broad approaches to the concept of femininity. First, psychoanalytically-founded theories of femininity will be highlighted. Second, the existing constitutional evidence concerning femininity will be summarized briefly. Third, implicit theory in the psychometric approach to femininity will be discussed. Social learning theory paradigms (e.g., Mischel, in Mussen, 1970) and cognitive-developmental theories of sex-role acquisition (e.g., Kohlberg, 1966) have been omitted from these general considerations in theoretical approaches to the construct. These approaches have simply been less influential for me than the ones to be reviewed in this section.

This chapter will serve as an orientation for both Chapter Two, in which a new, alternative model for the sex-roles is presented, and for Chapter Three, which outlines the development of a Q-sort deck consonant with the new model and explains the derivation and cross-validation of a typology of college women. This cross-validated typology is based solely on college women's self-descriptions and its significant relationships with an extensive battery of psychological

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tests are discussed in Chapter Four. Chapter Five summarizes the theories, methods and findings of this thesis, and suggests future research strategies in the study of the sex-roles.

The excellent contributions of Corinne Hutt (1973), Julia Sherman (1971) and Margaret Mead (1949) will serve as useful adjuncts for the reader interested in more detailed summaries of the research and theory in the field of psychology of women, and the sex-roles in general.

A. Psychoanalytically-founded theories of femininity

(1) Psychoanalysis: anatomy, identification, and bisexuality

The authors reviewed under this heading represent various but essentially psychoanalytic views of femininity. Conceptually, anatomical distinctions between the sexes, shifts in identification from one parent to another and the problem of bisexuality are the issues which constitute points of disagreement for the psychoanalytic authors mentioned below.

To begin, Freud (1933) emphasized the anatomical differences between the sexes (i.e., the penis and the vagina) as the starting point in the development of femininity. When the little girl discovers this

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difference, Freud felt she was traumatized. (The little girl feels castrated, perhaps punished for some unnameable wrong-doing.) Up to this point, the little girl was strongly identified with her mother. When she discovers her mother cannot give her the organ she lacks, and further that her mother does not have one herself, a severe conflict develops. If she continues her identification with her mother, she is identifying with an inferior being, yet she cannot identify with her father, since she is already inferior to him. Yet, later she turns to her father for love, out of the disappointment of her castration, and the discovery that she must compete with her mother for his love redoubles her resentment of her rival. Thus, the little girl enters upon the Oedipal phase of development with nothing to fear, since the "worst" has already happened. Freud has emphasized the critical importance of repression of the Oedipal fear of castration in the formation of the male superego. The little girl, since she can feel no threat of castration, need repress nothing, and consequently never really develops an adequate superego. The realization that she has no penis leaves the little girl with an envy of that organ. It is the course of her adjustment to this envy which determines the quality of her adult femininity.

The issue of anatomical distinctions between the

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sexes also extends to the clitoris. If a woman is to achieve healthy adult femininity, she must renounce clitoral primacy in favor of vaginal primacy for sexual pleasure. This renunciation is difficult and of long duration. At its base is the solution to penis envy. The locus of sexuality must be vaginal in order for the woman to accept her fundamentally passive and maternal role. Having a baby, especially a male baby, is the solution to the conflict set into play by penis envy, and recompense for the woman's "lost organ."

If the little girl does not admit to herself she has lost anything, or pretends that her clitoris is just as important as the lost penis, she may identify strongly with her father, and in some cases experience a kind of castration fear much like a little boy's. She will not renounce clitoral primacy, and may throughout life protest consciously or unconsciously that she is "just as good as any man." This Freud refers to as masculine protest. On a very deep level, penis envy in these women still exists and forms the basis of aggressive and competitive feelings toward men and, often, a hatred of women.

A third adjustment to penis envy and its attendant vicissitudes, is neurosis. It is not the intent, nor within the scope of this study, to review what Freud and others assert are the many neurotic

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manifestations of unresolved penis envy. It is sufficient to highlight the unstable and essentially inferior quality of the feminine superego which Freud claimed was a direct result of the anatomical differences between the sexes. Freud suggested (c.f. Fenichel, 1945, p. 469) that the character traits for which women have been most criticized (i.e., that they allow themselves to be guided in their decisions by their likes and dislikes, that they have a diminished capacity to submit to the necessities of life, and that they have less sense of justice than men) are due in large part to the faulty formation of their superego.

The shift in identification from mother to father was mentioned earlier in the description of penis envy. There are, as Brown (1965, Chapter 8) has noted, a number of definitions of identification, both as a process and a construct. Yet, the fundamental behavioral feature of identification is a shift in the child's attention from one parent to another. For little girls, this shift in attention does not bring either the fears or the satisfactions that Freud assumed for little boys. Girls do not appear to be satisfied with attending to what their mothers do until they are "competing" for their father's love. And even during this period of rivalry, the identification with the mother is not strong, due to the lack of castration fears.

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Helene Deutsch (1944) asserted that the interaction of four factors of the feminine psyche determined the differences in women's adjustment to their life situations. These factors were: narcissism, masochism, motherliness, and ties to former love objects. While the theoretical foundations of these factors are essentially instinctual and extrapolations of Freud's position, Deutsch emphasized what she viewed as the healthy aspects and interactions of each of them. She also noted that each factor had a neurotic and destructive side.

Melanie Klein (1948) cited the shift in identification from the father to the mother as the event of over-riding importance in the "peculiar conditions of the formation of the feminine superego," and used the shift to explain "how women can run so wide a gamut from the petty jealousy to the most self-forgetful loving-kindness."

Thompson (cited in Green, 1964) has emphasized that variations in parental attitudes toward the sex roles and their degree of satisfaction with sexual and social life have a marked and important bearing on many of the aspects of penis envy and identification outlined above. Further, Thompson is not convinced that penis envy is a literal wish to have a male organ on the part of females. Rather, Thompson asserts that the social prerogatives accorded to the possessor of the penis are what is envied by girls and women.

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Karen Horney (1939) goes further than Thompson, asserting that Oedipal manifestations of penis envy were totally a function of the warmth and security afforded by the family environment. Horney viewed such manifestations as a neurosis in itself and not, as Freud believed, a natural expression of the instinctual life.

It is evident that more recent psychoanalytic theorists have begun to emphasize the cultural and environmental features of feminine development, rather than limiting themselves to Freud's strongly instinctual (biological) position. However, one aspect of Freud's fundamentally biological orientation has received more constant attention by contemporary psychoanalytic authors. It is the construct of bisexuality. Freud had always assumed the inherent bisexuality of both sexes. Perhaps the most lucid discussion of the construct of bisexuality has been offered by Fenichel (1945).

Fenichel noted that, in the physiological realm, it has been asserted that since "female" hormones are found in men and "male" hormones are found in women, therefore the essential bisexuality of all humans is a fact. But he points out that these observed hormonal cross-overs have not been successfully linked to secondary sex characteristics. In the psychological realm, Fenichel suggests that the three important aspects of

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the construct of bisexuality are often blurred together.

a. Whether a person chooses an object of the same or opposite sex.

b. Whether a person has the sexual aim of actively introducing a part of his own body into that of his object, or whether he has the wish to have something introduced into his body.

c. Whether a person in general has an active, go-ahead kind of attitude in life, or a more passive, wait-and-see attitude.

Fenichel observed that these three aspects of "masculinity or femininity sometimes coincide in the same individual, but other cases vary independently of each other . . . actually what is called masculine and feminine depends more on cultural and social factors than on biological ones." (1945, p. 329) Here, Fenichel is not expressing his theoretical position so much as summarizing a trend in psychoanalytic theory, again, toward cultural and social determinants and away from biological ones.

(2) Analytical Psychology: Jung's union of opposites in female personality

Jung (1953) stressed the conceptual and functional

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interaction of masculinity and femininity in his theory of the structure and development of the psyche. In many ways, Jung's position will sound remarkably like Fenichel's observations concerning bisexuality in psychoanalytic writings. However, before I discuss Jung's position, it should be noted that the psychoanalytic movement has, by and large, assumed that repression of one's opposite-sexed tendencies is appropriate, and for some authors, necessary for psychological health.

Jung proposed that all members of our civilized, western culture embody unconscious collective sexual opposites, i.e., a male component in women (the animus), and a female component in man (the anima). The presence of these sexual opposites is determined by two aspects of psychic life. One of these aspects is the heritable readiness to structure emotional life which Jung refers to as an archetype. The other aspect is more personal, since it is the repressed, opposite-sexed tendencies which the person's culture requires be expelled from the conscious. Since these repressions are associated with the opposite sex and stem from earliest childhood, they are sometimes symbolized by the person in the form of their opposite-sexed parent. Yet, due to the archetypal determinants, the animus and anima are much "more" than parent symbols. In fact, before they are recognized, Jung

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asserts that the animus and anima are complexes with all the characteristics of separate personalities within the psyche.

For a woman, Jung asserts that the process of recognition of her animus must begin by engaging "him" in a dialogue, as befits a separate personality. Up to this point, the woman experiences her animus only as repetitive opinions or convictions which seem reasonable or incontestably true, yet somehow are beside the point when they are voiced. The woman must learn to listen to these opinions but, rather than accept or be swayed by them, she must learn to hold them at a distance and criticize them consciously. This process of dialogue originally occurs between the woman's animus and her persona (i.e., her femininity), the mask she presents to society to fulfill its expectations and demands. As the animus is recognized and his effect appraised, he begins to assume his rightful and psychodynamically healthy function as liaison between the woman's conscious and unconscious. The animus loses his psychic role as a personality when this liaison is accomplished. However, the functional role the animus now assumes is more consciously available to the woman. This availability is part of a much more general process which Jung describes as the union of opposites. In the present case, the union of opposites, the harmonious

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interaction of both male and female components of a woman's personality, is for Jung the major determinant of feminine personality functioning (Jung, 1953; von Franz, in Jung (Ed.), 1968).

B. Constitutional issues and evidence

Physiological differences between the sexes are numerous, and are more pronounced in adulthood than earlier in life (Sherman, 1971). Much has been made of these physical differences, as for example in psychoanalytic writings. Yet, the differences indexed by many authors (Anastasi, 1958; Tyler, 1965; Maccoby (Ed.), 1966; Beach (Ed.), 1965; Sherman, 1971) have one major contrast at their base: Measurements of women are compared to measurements of men, on a given variable. The implications of this apparently commonsense contrast are important and far-reaching for our understanding of the sex roles. This issue will be more fully discussed in the following section of this chapter. At this point, I simply wish to sound a cautionary note about any conclusions drawn from the fundamental contrasts made between men and women. Such contrasts apply to groups, not to individuals. In fact, as I shall attempt to show in the following section, such contrasts may actually obscure differences among members of one biological

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group.

Sherman's (1971, pp. 3-11) excellent review of the constitutional issues in empirical research on women is the source of much of the following discussion. Three broad issues will be presented: genetic-hormonal differences, embryonic development and physical differences.

It is often asserted that human females are the "weaker sex." However, this is true only of muscular strength. The claims that women are sick or "indisposed" more often than men are no longer credible. Peterson (1964, cited in Sherman, 1971) claims that when appropriate variables are controlled, men lose more work days than women because of illness. Since women tend to show greater resistance to infection (Washburn, Medearis, and Childs, 1965, in Sherman, 1971), it may be that they have less severe illnesses than men and lose fewer work days as a result. In fact, almost all diseases and disorders are less frequent causes of death for women (Childs, 1965; Sheinfeld, 1944; cited in Sherman, 1971). In addition, men show a higher death rate in the first six decades of life. Finally, there are far more male sex-linked disorders than female disorders (e.g., hemophelia, color-blindness). Thus, recent empirical findings do not support the notion of female weakness, except in a very narrow range of human life.

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The empirical findings on hormonal differences are scanty. As a science, endocrinology is still quite young, and there is little agreement on the best methods for measuring hormonal levels in the bloodstream. In addition, the effects of hormones vary with the age and previous experience of an organism, as well as previous influences of other hormones. The site of action for hormones is the cell, specifically the actions of enzymes within the cell (Hechter and Halkerston, 1965; cited in Sherman, 1971). Hormonal levels increase dramatically in puberty, especially androgens and estrogens. (During childhood, these hormones are found only in small quantities.) In girls, puberty brings increases in androgen levels as well as estrogen, however boys will have androgen levels twice that of girls. Until recently, the pituitary gland was thought to control the secretion of hormones and interactive systems of glands which produce them. It is now clear that the pituitary is, in turn, controlled by the hypothalamus. In addition, hormonal concentrations have been found in the brain itself (Sherman, 1971). These findings raise the fascinating question as to whether higher centers of the brain can control pituitary action. If cortical control of hormonal action is possible, the consequences, both for medicine and psychology, are staggering.

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Unless an as yet unidentified fetal testicular substance intervenes, an embryo will automatically develop into a female (Goy, 1968; Money, 1965; Diamond, 1968; Whalen, 1968; cited in Sherman, 1971). The morphological sequence of embryonic development is beyond the scope of this study. It is sufficient for the present to note that the pattern of structural development in the embryo is essentially and indisputably female unless androgens are present. In light of these findings, the question arises in the present author's mind as to just whose rib was used to create whom in the story of Genesis.

Physical sex differences are apparent for almost every bodily dimension, and these differences become more pronounced as each sex matures. The contrasts cited here are by no means an exhaustive list. They should serve to highlight the kinds of differences, which range from the apparently trivial to the profound. For example, females, at birth are more likely to have an index finger longer than their fourth (ring) finger, whereas the forearm of males is longer than that of females (Tanner, 1962; cited in Sherman, 1971). On the other hand, females' vital capacity--the volume of air exhaled after maximal inhalation--is less than males' vital capacity. It is a critical element for physical endurance (sustained energy output), and it is seven percent

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less for girls, and 35 percent less for women. Yet, adult women have a lower metabolic rate than adult men when activity level and body size are matched. Thus, women produce less energy than men and need less food per unit of body weight. Girls have more body fat and less muscle proportionately than do boys, and this difference maintains throughout life (Garn, 1957, 1958; cited in Sherman, 1971). Generally, the mechanisms which control physiological homeostasis have wider tolerances in women than in men. For example, women show greater physiological response to stress, but recover more quickly than men (Sontag, 1947; cited in Sherman, 1971). This difference is important for changes in environmental temperature. Women can more readily slow or speed their metabolic rate, thus producing less body heat or more, and adjusting more rapidly to temperature changes in the environment (Scheinfeld, 1944; cited in Sherman, 1971). Female infants sleep more and are generally less active than males (Anastasi, 1958; cited in Sherman, 1971). Also, differences are reported in the external appearance of male and female brains (Connolly, 1950; cited in Sherman, 1971). In addition, differences between the sexes have been reported in their reaction to unilateral neurosurgery (Lansdell, 1962, 1964; cited in Sherman, 1971). It is clear that the sexes are different from one another on numerous physical dimensions. The critical question in

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evaluating these differences (as well as those found in the genetic-hormonal areas, and in embryonic development) is "What shall we infer about an individual male or female, given what we know about males and females taken as groups?"

C. Implicit theory in the measurement of femininity

(1) A brief history of the measurement of masculinity-femininity (MF)

Psychometric explorations of femininity are based on the external strategy of scale development. That is, clearly identifiable criterion groups (males and females) respond to a domain of stimuli (usually true-false items, or other preference formats). A subset of these stimuli are identified which show significant differences in the responses of the criterion groups. The remainder of the stimuli are discarded, and the items which differentiate between the sexes are retained. These items are usually called a masculinity-femininity (MF) scale. Thus, items retained for an MF scale are presumably those which a female would answer in one way and a male would answer in the opposite way.

In 1922, Terman and Miles began their now classic search for an exhaustive set of stimuli which sig-

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nificantly differentiated between the sexes. Their findings were published as a volume in 1936. Terman and Miles identified seven domains in which males and females responded in significantly different ways. Scales were constructed in these domains, using the MF strategy outlined above. The scales were: Word Association, Inkblot Association, Information, Emotional and Ethical Response, Interests, Opinions, and Introversive Response. These scales constituted the Attitude-Interest Analysis Blank (AIAB). The AIAB was administered to hundreds of subjects from all age-groups, educational levels and occupational groups. The results of these studies provided "the most important impetus for the development of later MF scales" (Goldberg, 1970).

Four years before Terman and Miles published their lankmark work, Carter (1932, vide Strong, 1943) developed an MF scale from the item-pool of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). Shortly after, Strong constructed an SVIB MF scale, employing college and adult samples.

In 1934, Guilford constructed a factor analytic MF scale called Masculinity from the Nebraska Personality Inventory. Guilford identified a factor on which sex had a loading of .84. By 1943, this scale had been revised for inclusion in the Guilford and Martin Inventory of factors (Goldberg, 1970).

The Terman and Miles volume included some supple-

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mentary research on the attitudes of male homosexuals. This sample was divided into three groups: active male homosexuals, passive male homosexuals and a group whose behavior did not clearly fit into either of the preceding classifications. MF scores on the AIAB for the active and passive groups showed an interesting relation to scores of heterosexual samples. Generally, actives obtained scores higher than heterosexual males, while passives obtained scores which fell between those of heterosexual males and females. No clear pattern of scores was found for the unclassified group of homosexuals.

The work reported by Terman and Miles on homosexual attitudes led to the inclusion of the MF scales on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). Homosexual males were included by Hathaway and McKinley as one criterion group in the construction of MMPI MF (1940). It is interesting to note that MMPI MF has never been revised (Hathaway, 1956).

In 1946, Kuder revised his Preference Record-Vocational and added an MF scale. In a later (1956) revision, it was deleted. Bell's (1947) Personal Preference Inventory contained an MF scale (Goldberg, 1970).

Gough's (1952) Femininity Scale, an MF scale, developed from the item pool of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), is perhaps the most thoroughly researched and valid of the criterion

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group MF scales mentioned (Megargee, 1972, pp. 90-93). Gough also included homosexuals in his criterion groups, and a recent study conducted by Wilson and Green (1971) demonstrates Fe's utility in detecting female homosexual preferences.

From the 1950's to the present, MF has become "the single most popular construct for inclusion in new personality inventories" (Goldberg, 1970). In addition, pictorial and graphic stimuli have been employed by Welsh (1959) and Franck and Rosen (1949) in attempts to construct reliable and valid MF scales which do not rely on semantic or linguistic aspects of a subject's response.

Historically, the major innovations in the conceptualization of MF scales appear to be these. Most scales share the classic sex difference strategy employed by Terman and Miles. For example, the seven AIAB subscales SVIB MF, MMPI MF, CPI-Fe and the Franck Drawing Completion Test, were all constructed to differentiate the responses of women from those of men. The second major innovation in MF scale construction was added to MMPI MF. In addition to discriminating between males and females, the scale was constructed to diagnose male homosexual preferences by employing a carefully screened group of homosexual men as one criterion group for selection of items. The third innovation was added to CPI-Fe. In addition to making the classic male-female discrimination, and being sensitive to

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homosexual preferences, Fe was constructed so that high-scoring women and low-scoring men would be described by others as feminine and masculine, respectively.

The innovations outlined above are the product of differences in the purpose of the MF scales discussed. Figure 1 lists five widely used MF scales and provides a brief description of their aims.

FIGURE 1. FIVE WIDELY USED MF SCALES AND THEIR PURPOSES

MF Scale	Purpose
AIAB	Exploration of the psychology of MF.
SVIB	Application of MF to occupational preference and satisfaction; counselling orientation.
MMPI	Diagnosis of sexual inversion; application of MF to psychopathological domain; clinical orientation.
CPI	Identification of everyday implications and manifestations of MF; interpersonal orientation.
FRANCK	Assessment of unconscious sex role identifications.

The research on MF scales will not be reviewed in depth in this study. However, several authors (e.g., Goldberg, 1970; Tyler, 1965; Edwards and Abbott, 1973) have made observations on this body of research which will articulate some of the methodological and conceptual problems of MF scales. For example, the MF scales do not generally show convergent validity (Edwards and

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Abbott, 1973). This is not a problem so long as it is assumed that each MF scale is measuring a different aspect of the sex role domain. Interpretation of MF scores by skilled test users often has this assumption at its base. When scales are compared whose item content and item format are similar, correlations between MF scales are generally larger (Goldberg, 1970). The magnitude of a correlation between two MF scales also seems to be a function of the composition of the sample. Intercorrelations are distinctly higher in mixed-sex samples than in single-sex samples (Goldberg, 1970).

Many authors of MF scales, from Terman and Miles onward, have warned that these scales, because of the method employed in their construction, tend to exaggerate differences between the sexes (Anastasi, 1961; Tyler, 1965). Anastasi (1961) asserts that "the behavior of men and women has much in common." Barrows and Zuckerman (1960) seem to have summed up much of the caution and commentary on MF scales: "It seems apparent to the investigators that masculinity-femininity is not a clearly defined construct."

Why should MF be so difficult to define? Surely so obvious an anatomical and biological discrimination should imply strong predictive relationships to other psychological variables. And, why is it that, even when large-sample correlational studies are done, MF scales fail to show adequate convergent validity?

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These scales share a common methodological procedure in their development, yet they are not highly correlated with one another. And, why is it that some MF scales fail to cross-validate (vide Edwards and Abbott, 1970)?

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(2) The implications of the MF paradigm for conceptualization of femininity

The construction of MF scales stems from a single assumption, namely that a dichotomous biolgical criterion variable will give rise to a meaningful psychological continuum. This assumption is extremely complex. The purpose of this section is to discuss the issues involved in such an assumption, and to suggest some answers to the questions raised in the last section.

It is clear that the intent of MF scales is not simply to predict the biological sex of the respondant. Goldberg (1970) has suggested that, in view of the results obtained with MF scales, they should be replaced with a single item: "I am a male: True or False." The present author disagrees. The purpose of MF scales has been exploratory. Yet, most test authors do not attempt theoretical interpretations of the content of items which have been identified by criterion group scoring. One notable exception is Gough (1952, 1957, 1968) who has conceptualized CPI Fe as a dimension ranging from initiation (male) to conservation (female). Thus, femininity is seen as a psychological function, expressing itself as a desire for continuity of values from generation to

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generation, long-term physical endurance (e.g., as in parturition) and abiding concerns with protecting and nurturing life. Interpretations of item content, and non-test correlates, such as Gough's, require a personal disposition toward theorizing which many test authors do not seem willing to employ. Theories are invaluable for the organization of research findings, as well as the construction of personlity scales and inventories. However, as Goldberg (1970) has so cogently observed, few test authors (Gough and Cattell are exceptions) have offered theoretical rationales for the inclusion of traits to be measured in their tests.

The MF method of scale development assumes some sort of link between biological sex and psychological characteristics. Stated another way, MF scales were intended to discover psychological differences between the biological sexes. However, the paradigm for this discovery involves anchoring measurements of women to measurements of men. That is, only items which men and women respond to "oppositely" shall be used for measurement. Conceptually, this method of measurement seems to stem from a long history of ideas concerning the "essential" nature of man and woman; namely that they are opposites. (This and other such ideas will be discussed more fully in the next chapter.) But, as Terman and Miles (and many other researchers who followed) have said, men and

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women are also very much alike. And these similarities are obscured by the MF paradigm.

Another important consequence of the methods employed in developing MF scales is their reciprocal interpretation. That is, the scale is a bipolar continuum and, therefore, that which is not masculine is feminine, and vice versa. However, as Gonen and Lansky (1968) point out:

> ". . . masculine traits do not preclude feminine traits. The present study demonstrates that, contrary to common usage in MF scales, the two dichotomies masculine and non-masculine, and feminine and non-feminine are often conceptualized (by subjects) independently of one another."

Finally, the MF method of scale development implies that women are more like each other than they are like men, and vice versa. In essence, the construction of an MF scale maximizes the variance between the sexes and minimizes the variance within each sex. Employing such a measurement technique for research on individual differences means running the risk of reliably measuring only across-sex variability. This effect may result in the attenuation of intercorrelations of MF scales when single-sex samples are used. Furthermore, minimizing the variance within each sex may make MF scales extremely vulnerable to variation in sample characteristics unless validation samples are extremely large and representative. Larger, representative validation samples will provide

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more stable estimates of the two critical aspects of MF variance: cross-sex and within-sex variation. Gough's (1952) Fe employed both large and representative samples for validation. As a consequence, it provides highly reliable normative levels for men and women, as well as reliable differences (in the expected directions) between the sexes (Megargee, 1972).

The hypothesized vulnerability of MF scales to fluctuations in sample characteristics may also explain their lack of convergent validity. A scale whose validation sample was large and representative may not be correlated highly with one whose validation sample was large but more homogeneous. Of course, the hypothesized vulnerability to sample differences could also explain failure of some MF scales to cross-validate at all.

Another possible explanation of the lack of convergent validity is the multifaceted aspect of masculinity and femininity. For example, the predictive (or diagnostic) implications of high scores in the feminine direction on CPI-Fe MMPI-MF and SVIB-MF II are markedly different. One reason for these differences is certainly the nature of the samples employed (see especially Megargee, 1972; Dahlstrom, Welsh, and Dahlstrom, 1972; and Strong, 1943). Each sample was also collected at a different period in the

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history of America. Thus, the scales can be conceived as a "snapshot" of the cultural mores of the times in which they were developed. That is, the social expectations for women in the 1930's were not the same as those in the 1940's or the 1950's. Therefore, each scale must represent a different "kind" of femininity at the very least. What is needed for research with MF scales is not a correlation matrix, but a profiling of subjects. That is, a characterization of women, who for example, score above the population mean on Fe, MF, and MF II, which can be compared with a characterization of women who are at the mean, or below it on all three scales. If the designation of scores is high, medium (or mean) and low for three scales, there are sixteen possible groups for comparison. This research strategy would tell us a great deal more about "femininity" than the intercorrelations of the three scales.

But, why is the MF construct still so hard to define clearly? I wish to suggest that the anchoring of measurements of both sexes to each other obscures more than the similarities across the sexes. Of necessity, anchoring also obscures the differences among members of one sex. The methodological trade-off is clear. Construct a scale which is sensitive to differences between the sexes, and sensitivity to differences among members of each sex is lost. If

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the scale is maximally sensitive to differences among members of each sex, differences between the sexes are obscured.

There may be more than one kind of femininity present among biological females. If so, no single MF scale would detect these different kinds of femininity. Further, unless MF validation samples are large and representative, MF scales would be measuring something extremely confounded. For example, if there are a number of kinds of both masculinity and femininity, and sampling techniques are inadequate to ensure including them all, the resulting scale taps only the items to which all represented kinds of femininity respond "true" and all represented kinds of masculinity respond "false." The method used for developing MF scales essentially homogenizes the responses of each biological sex. Thus, it is probable that no single scale ensures adequate depiction either of the individual or of groups. Further, even a battery of non-convergent MF scales may not ensure thorough coverage of the hypothesized kinds of femininity (masculinity).

This section of the chapter is not a blanket condemnation of MF scales nor the MF paradigm. MF scales have demonstrated utility in research on birth control and family planning (see Kapor-Stanulovic, 1970; cited in Gough, 1973), choice of vocational

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specialty (Strong , 1943) and a host of other areas. The position taken here stems from indications in these findings that combinations of MF scales, or MF scales in combination with other measures seem to be most effective and significant in predictive contexts. This sort of result suggests that a multidimensional paradigm should be substituted for the unitary MF dimension. The conceptual problems of the unitary MF paradigm have been discussed briefly. Perhaps new understandings of men and women can be gained if we cut measurements of the sexes loose from each other and try again.

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CHAPTER TWO: A BRIEF OUTLINE OF A NEW MODEL OF THE FEMALE ROLES

Introduction

This chapter will deal with three new theoretical assumptions. The first, that all social transactions begin with one fundamental discrimination: "Am I observing a biological male or female?" Second, everyday life reminds us ceaselessly that there is more than one kind of femininity (as well as masculinity). And third, that the nature-nurture issue in femininity need not be an endless conundrum, rather each has a contribution to a dynamic interacting set of problems which each women (and man) must solve. The solutions to these problems are the sex roles, and there are more than one within each biological group.

A. Commonsense observations in everyday life

Most of us take special care to dress, act and speak in a sex-appropriate manner. The instances in which we are not sure of our own sex-role behavior, or that of others, are generally rare. There is good reason for the rarity of such experiences. They produce anxiety even when they are not of long duration. Generally, they are avoided or quickly corrected.

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Consider, for a moment, your own reaction to a male child pretending that he is a girl. Imagine him wearing a dress and mimicking his female age mates. Now imagine that the little boy is your son. The reaction of adults to this sort of situation varies, but the essential point, that anxiety is generated, should be clear. (It should be noted that, if a little girl mimics the behavior of age-mate boys, anxiety is also generated in adults, although it may be handled in less immediate ways. Perhaps a more appropriate example for girls occurs in early adolescence, when they may have crushes on or mimic their female gym teachers.)

Given the assertion above, namely that sex appropriate behavior is rarely violated, it may seem a bit absurd to discuss "everyday" manifestations of such violations. Yet, it is the lack of violations which is so interesting, and which makes any we observe so fascinating. And, if the rarity of this sort of event were not sufficient, the anxiety it generates in us should certainly alert us that something important has occurred.

When George Sand scandalized mid-nineteenth century Paris by dressing in men's clothes and exercising male social prerogatives, she called attention to an important aspect of the same problem. As a more current example of this problem, consider the general

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consternation expressed when "unisex" styles first appeared. Most commentary about long hair on men and women centered on the difficulty of discriminating young men from young women (i.e., "You can't tell the boys from the girls!") In addition, persons who first adopted these styles seemed disposed to use this confusion for the purposes of social rebellion. Yet what exactly is at stake in such a rebellion? The power of this sort of rebellion lies in its ability to throw us back on the most basic of social judgments. That is, are we observing a male or female?

From the determination of biological sex stems a vast, powerful and as yet dimly understood array of inferences, predictions, sets, expectations and feelings. The current upheaval in role definitions for women (and men) is another example of the powerful sequelae of biological sex. Many of the assertions and demands made by feminists are clarified if we assume the primacy of biological sex in social transactions. These assertions and demands may be simplified to read, "The biological sex of an individual shall not be the starting point in evaluating her behavior." It should also be clear why the demands of feminists are so difficult to accede to, for both sexes. It is precisely the biological sex of an individual from which we begin making all our observations of them. Therefore, in order to live a

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"liberated" life, an individual must endure the anxiety which she has, by social custom, so carefully learned to avoid. It is the anxiety of not being certain what she means by her own liberated behavior, nor knowing what meaning others (men and women) will attach to it.

The dynamic problem outlined above for women is also true for men who wish to free themselves from conventional role definitions.

There is a situation in which sex-appropriate behavior can be violated without anxiety on the part of the agent or observer. However, this situation is clearly not of an everyday nature, and it is discussed here simply to stimulate thought. A female impersonator clearly violates sex-appropriate behavior. Yet this violation occurs in the context of a performance. The standard by which this performance is judged appears to be whether or not we can detect the real biological sex of the apparent female on stage. In such a context, a man who performs so well that we cannot detect his biological sex is deemed a good impersonator. (It is interesting to note that a common feature of these performances involves "proving" that the impersonator is a man, usually by removing a wig at the end of the show.) This entertainment phenomenon sounds remarkably like the unisex situation discussed earlier, with one important exception. An

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impersonator's biological sex is never in doubt; consequently we need never feel anxious. In fact, since we are secure in the knowledge of his biological sex, we can afford to scrutinize his performance in an effort to detect where he makes a false step, where he does not act or appear as a woman. Such detection, or lack of it, is considered entertaining. As with many forms of entertainment, we see here a situation which would be tremendously anxiety-provoking if it occurred in more everyday, uncontrolled contexts. It is interesting to note that anxiety is alleviated in a female impersonator's performance simply because we know he is a man.

One domain of the broad range of sets, inferences, and predictions which stem from the determination of biological sex is "femininity." At first brush, the meaning of the word "femininity" elicits an almost presumptive response from most persons. But, what do we mean by "femininity"? And, more importantly, how shall we understand or describe it? One approach is simply to ask other people about it. Inevitably, one is struck with the problem of what to ask. For instance, if we ask, "What is femininity?" the answers will probably be remarkably similar, and could lead us to believe that most everyone understands the construct in roughly the same way. This approach is a way of assessing what is commonly called the sex-role

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stereotype. On the other hand, if we ask, "Is person 'X' feminine?" or ask people to compare a number of persons' femininity, any consistency we might have observed in the sex-role stereotype definitions would most certainly evaporate. This last approach is an "individual differences" strategy.

The problem of what to ask other people is further exacerbated by whom we ask. If we ask adult males, "What is femininity?" their answers may be consistent, and yet they may differ in important ways from the answers of adult females. The same is likely to be true of our second question, "Is person 'X' feminine?" I have tried these procedures in an informal way in my teaching sections, and while the results are not in a publishable form, the impression I got was that the stereotype of femininity is known to all and shows little variation, yet differential judgments of others show a marked variation in content. This variation seems to have its source not only in differences among persons judged, but to a large degree in a kind of differential weighting by the judges of traits or qualities. Thus, two persons judged to be "feminine" may have different trait weightings which yield the same relative judgment. However, the personological implications of these different weights for the two individuals may be quite far-reaching. For example, a woman whose physique does not fit the current

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standards of attractiveness may be judged feminine because she genuinely enjoys the company of men and is friendly towards them. Another woman, who by contemporary standards has the "ideal" physical characteristics may be cold and aloof toward men. Yet, she may be seen by others to possess the same relative "level" of femininity as the first woman, when both are compared to a standard group of women. Note that this discussion of judgments has been limited to adults. When the person being judged is a child, or an elderly person, the weightings of the traits mentioned above certainly shift and are also certain to combine in different ways. In other words, we cannot safely presume that femininity is any one trait, nor even one set of traits. Nor can we presume that there is one kind of femininity, since it is manifestly obvious that even in one woman's life cycle, different combinations of traits and behaviors participate in our perception of her femininity at different stages in her life.

I have avoided an aspect of the process of judging femininity in others. The judgment of femininity in males (or for that matter, masculinity in females) certainly requires research, for its implications are surely as far-reaching and probably quite different in form from those discussed here. It is not within the scope of this study to deal with these aspects of judgment and attribution.

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We have been examining the process of judgment up to this point. Although the questions posed concerning judgment may be important, there is another set of questions addressed to another aspect of femininity which requires attention. That is, "What is the experience, on an everyday basis, of being an adult female?"

Obviously, this last question is even more complex than the ones posed earlier. In the first place, women are obviously different from one another, as discussed above. Also, we usually assume that women are psychologically different from men in important ways. One central, and seemingly indestructible notion concerning the differences between the sexes is the concept of oppositeness. Another allied notion is that of psycho-sexual complementarity. These pervasive ideas are reflected in contemporary prose, music and thought and seem to have quite ancient roots. For example, they are reflected in most Romance languages by the predominant use of male and female gender. Aristotle's playful poem (cited in Greer, 1971, p. 101) asserting that men are women "with their inside out," and "women are but men turned outside in," is another example which predates ancient Rome. The works of Plato supply us with an explanation of love and interpersonal attraction (see the dialogue titled The Symposium) which supposes that

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humankind was once both male and female in a single being, and that these beings were divided by the Gods. More recently, the powerful psychodynamic implications of genital oppositeness and the symbolism of opposites have been discussed by Freud. As noted in the Introduction, Jung emphasized the functional and theoretical interaction of psychic opposites and proposed their union as a healthful condition for all humankind. Also, as discussed in the Introduction, the predominant method of assessing femininity in psychology employs a bipolar dimension of MF, with the two sexes presumably occupying opposite poles. In short, no matter what we ask concerning femininity, we imply masculinity, or a notion of oppositeness. As I have tried to demonstrate, the idea of opposites has a profound effect on the kinds of questions we ask. It also implies that appropriate control groups for research on women should be composed of men.

The problem of oppositeness in this research has been "tabled," but with one critical difference. Nowhere are men employed as a control, and there are no comparisons of responses to standard stimuli between the biological sexes included in this study. The assumption of the present author was that a new approach in research on women should be tried: namely, an assessment of variations in women's responses to sets of standard items alone. While the merits of the

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sex-difference paradigm may be argued, the position taken here is that new information may be available to us if we change our method of research. The sex-difference approach to understanding femininity may not be "right" but it is trivial and wasteful to attempt to prove it is "wrong." What is proposed here is simply a different way of going about studying the problem.

It seemed appropriate to begin my investigations by asking about the personal experience of being female. The research strategy employed was one of self-report. This choice is arbitrary, but not completely so. The current writings on women emphasize the importance of asking individual women what their experiences have been. Thus, the importance of having self-reports is taken for granted as a crucial first step. Later, other approaches to understanding differences among women will be suggested (see Chapter Five, Section A). It is also crucial to be able to compare these self-reports in some statistically meaningful and reliable way. The method of choice in obtaining these self-reports should be one which is: (1) sensitive to individual differences, (2) of a standard format such that easy and reliable comparisons among individuals or groups can be made, and (3) sufficiently broad in its coverage of psychological and social issues.

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B. How Measurement and Model Interact

The method of measurement chosen for this study is the Q-sort. This method, if properly employed, can be extremely sensitive to individual differences because it permits a large number of potential descriptions to be generated from a relatively small number of standard items. In addition, the format of these descriptions can be easily compared in both quantitative and qualitative ways. The content of the items can be chosen in a number of ways, and for this study, the basic item pool was reduced by employing stringent statistical criteria (see Chapter Three, Section A).

There is one further reason for choosing the Q-sort method for this research. The reason is the new model of the sex-roles proposed here. Many of the theories of sex-role assume biologically inherent determinants or alternatively, culturally learned determinants. (Freud is an example of the former, and Margaret Mead an example of the latter.) The nature-nurture conflict rages in most branches of social science, psychology being no exception. The model proposed in this section assumes that both nature (i.e., some set of things which are genetically inherited) and nurture (some set of things which are learned) interact within each person to yield the sex role. For convenience, the

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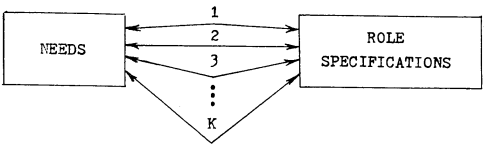
inherited portion will be referred to as needs; while the culturally learned portion will be labelled role specifications. The putative singular female sex role is conceptualized as a set of solutions to a dynamic interacting set of problems.

Each woman has a consciously experienced set of needs. She also has a number of role specifications that she has evolved in her relations with others in her culture. The role specifications and needs are the interacting elements in a dynamic problem for each woman. Her solution is her unique sex role.

Stated simply, neither the needs, nor the role specifications constitute the sex role. Rather, a sex role is the answer to the question, "How do I get what I need, given the rules I wish to live by?" Figure 2 shows the relation described above.

Figure 2

A New Model of the Sex Roles



The answer to the question above need not be the same from woman to woman, nor even the same at all

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ages in a single woman's life. There is some evidence that the solution to this set of problems does shift during a woman's life cycle (see Neugarten and Guttman, in Neugarten, 1964).

The emphasis in the current formulation of the model is on consciously experienced needs and consciously experienced role specifications which are salient to the individual. The problem of unconscious needs and unconscious role specifications (Vide Miller and Swanson, 1960) has been set aside for future research. Further, the current study is addressed only to role specifications. A similar research design will eventually be used to explore the structure of personally salient needs. This effort will be based on Maslow's need hierarchy, and will require another Q-sort composed of items addressed to the everyday experience of such needs.

The proposed model has been discussed to this point in terms of uniqueness (the idiographic). However, the model also contains the assumption that both needs and role specifications can be mapped and reduced to a small and manageable set of types in each case. While personal uniqueness is assumed, it is also assumed that in some way, groups of salient needs and role specifications will emerge which will be coherent, yet different from one another. This coherence is the nomothetic aspect of the model, and

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should be demonstrable statistically as well as descriptively.

The method of measurement chosen for this study is admirably suited to both idiographic and nomothetic analysis. In addition, variations in the content of role specifications from person to person can be effectively monitored and appraised by a variety of univariate and multivariate statistical methods. Chapter Three of this study is testimony to the flexibility of Q-sort data for statistical analysis of group comparisons.

For example, mapping the role specification domain of the model requires grouping the self-reports of women on the Q-sort deck developed for this research. These self-reports can be correlated with one another, and factor analyzed, or factor analyzed for item dimensions, or grouped according to rational or hypothesized item content. But equally important, the Q-sort method supplies the respondent with a way to describe herself which is rich and varied. The items can be arranged to convey a continuum of evaluative response, rather than the more common binary, true-false response format.

Thus, the model of the sex-roles proposed and the method of measurement utilized are intimately linked. The method supplies an opportunity for individual expression on the part of the respondent,

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and many useful alternatives for data analysis to the researcher. The model permits women (and men) to vary, within their broad biological group, to be different from one another, and yet at one level, similar and coherent. Finally, the model gives recognition to an aspect of sex-role theory which has been neglected. It is the aspect of choice, awareness and decision. The person in this model knows her needs and what she wishes to live by. Her choices may not be straightforward, her awareness at times painful, and her decisions difficult, but she is not a prisoner of her inheritance, nor reflexively conformist. She supplies solutions to the problems unique to her.

C. The relationship of the MF paradigm to the new model

The model proposed in the previous section retains one important feature of the MF paradigm: namely the use of biological sex as a criterion variable. The first section of this chapter asserts that biological sex is the starting point for a vast array of reactions to others. Stated another way, the biological sex of an individual is an important <u>sign</u> as to how to behave <u>toward</u> others. This sign is obviously with all of us from birth, and so it is

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assumed that sex role behavior, no matter how variable, is linked inextricably to this most fundamental of signs. To enumerate, being a female is assumed to be a sign to others as to how to react, what to teach, what to withhold, what to reward, and how to love.

It should also be clear that the scalar aspect of the MF paradigm has been abandoned. The focus of the proposed model is the exploration of differences among members of each biological group. Specifically, the current study is an attempt to articulate the differences among identifiable groups (types) of college women in their self-descriptions of role conceptions. Eventually, an identical strategy will be employed to explore the role conceptions of college men. However, at this stage, no contrasts of the biological sexes will be attempted. Indeed, the notion of contrasting self-descriptions of role conceptions across the sexes, employing the proposed model seems inappropriate. Even if we assume that both sexes share a role specification, we cannot know how to equate manifestations of these specifications in each sex. For example, male and female dominance, or masochism, or narcissism manifest themselves in strikingly different ways. Thus, the same items cannot be used across sexes; but more to the point, it isn't sensible to try to equate items addressed to male and female dominance, in order to contrast the sexes.

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What seems more sensible to contrast are the types of salient needs males and females employ in self-description. While role conceptions may be assumed to be different across the sexes, the present author sees no reason to assume that this need domain cannot be applied to both sexes. After a "need" Q-sort deck has been developed, it will be possible to compare individuals who are of: 1) different biological sexes; 2) different role specification "types"; and 3) similar or identical need "types." This sort of comparison is the first step to articulating the solutions (i.e., sex roles) to the dynamic problems discussed in the previous section. Assume that a man and a woman have the same set of salient needs, and suppose we can identify the role specifications by which they live. Then we might be better able to understand their personality test scores (e.g., on MF scales) or how they are described by others. More importantly, we might be better able to discuss their particular solution to the problem of being female or male in western society. Another exploration of this model might be two women with the same need type, and different role specification types. Or, two men with different need types and the same role specification type. It should be apparent that the new model does permit considerable flexibility in reconceptualizing the sex role domains. But in addition, the new model also

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permits comparisons across the sexes without necessarily anchoring measurement of one sex to that of the other. This is a clear departure from the MF paradigm, while the option of comparison across the sexes has been retained.

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CHAPTER THREE: METHOD AND RESULTS

A. Phase 1: Item pool coverage in CWA-I and item selection for CWA-II

The primary intent in writing items for CWA-I was to give coverage to critical themes in the writings and research on the role specifications of women. In addition, an attempt was made to write items that would be consonant with the common everyday manifestations of these themes. This effort often yielded "subtle" items, items whose content would not be easily inferred from the abstract or formal statement of the theme. It is, of course, an empirical question as to whether any item (subtle or not) intended to give coverage to a theme actually forecasts behavior relevant to the domain intended by the theme. This question of predictive validity can only be answered by further research. The themes utilized in this thesis served as guides for, but not as starting points for formal formulations of hypotheses. To facilitate reading and comprehension, all items were phrased in a simple declarative style (see Appendix I).

The domain of feminine role specifications was mapped into 14 regions or themes; as follows:

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1. Assertiveness and aggression
2. Biology
3. Dominance
4. Effectiveness and intelligence
5. Fashions and cosmetics
6. Hostility
7. Leisure activities
8. Masochism
9. Motherliness
10. Narcissism
11. Poise and social presence
12. Positive aspects of the public feminine role
13. Sex
14. Ties to former love objects.

The intent and background of each theme will be briefly discussed. Appendix II lists the 138 items in CWA-I, grouped by the theme each was based upon.

1. Assertiveness and aggression

The intent of these items was to present a number of styles in which self assertion and aggression seem to manifest themselves in women. Many authors have assumed that women "typically" handle self assertion and aggression in passive modes. Thus item content for this theme included being soft-spoken, having difficulty telling others what she wants, and preference for others making decisions. Other authors discuss a more active

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style of self assertion and aggression. Item content therefore also included being confident that her desires will be respected, feeling it is important to win arguments, and that her competitiveness keeps others from getting to know her.

The styles of handling assertiveness and aggression outlined above have been discussed by Freud (1933), Thompson (in Green, (Ed.), 1964) and Maslow (in Ruitenbeek, (Ed.), 1966). Empirical studies of age-related assertive and aggressive behavior styles in girls have been summarized by Sears (in Beach, (Ed.), 1965).

The writings on women's liberation, especially Millet (1970) and Greer (1971) argue strongly against the psychoanalytic idea that "anatomy is destiny," and the resulting inferences concerning women's psychological passivity and inferior super-ego development.

The concept of an activity-passivity dimension traditionally has been associated with sex role behavior, women alledgedly being more passive. Similarly, assertiveness and aggression have often been considered to be weakly, if at all present in feminine psychology.

2. Biology

Menstruation, parturition, specific hormonal balances and shifts, menopause, small stature and less physical strength are all biological aspects of sex differences which are characteristic of women. (For a

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more complete listing and discussion of these differences see Chapter One, Section B.) Items written for this theme were intended to tap attitudes toward bodily functioning, waking up, feelings about minor illness, menstruation, childbirth and death.

Women's attitudes and feelings toward their bodily processes have been written about, usually under the heading of medical pathology, since Hippocrates. Since then, interest in biological (especially genetic and endocrine) explanations of aspects of the adult personality and social role of women has not abated (see Bardwick, 1971, and Waxenberg and Grimm in Goldman and Milman (Eds.), 1969), although the emphasis on medical pathology has all but disappeared.

3. Dominance

Items written for this theme were addressed to two sub-themes or styles of dominance which appear in the research and writings on women. "Dominance A" will be defined as delegation of dominance. Megargee, Bogart and Anderson (1966) note that high-dominant women, when paired with low-dominant men, will simply delegate the dominant role in the dyad to the man. "Dominance B" will be defined as direct dominance. Maslow (in Ruitenbeek, (Ed.), 1966) has discussed the manifestations of direct, healthy dominance-feeling in women and its relation to sexuality. "Dominance B" is directly executive, while "Dominance A" is an indirect,

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oblique relegation of social power which may imply that the woman had a high-dominant position to delegate in the first place. Item content for "Dominance A" includes keeping quiet when others are discussing a problem and difficulties with decision-making and concentration. Item content for "Dominance B" includes speaking her mind, enjoying organizing and directing others, and self-confidence and decisiveness.

The distinction this author makes between dominance and theme 1 (assertiveness and aggression) may not be clear. Dominance reflects an underlying personal certainty about the rightness or appropriateness of one's plans, ideas, or feelings for others. Assertiveness and aggression are stylistic vehicles by which these plans, ideas, or feelings are expressed or defended to others. While it might be argued that dominance subsumes assertiveness and aggression, the distinction between them, especially in the field of psychology of women, is too often blurred.

A host of authors and researchers have addressed themselves to dominance in women. (D'Andrade, in Maccoby, 1966; de Beauvoir, 1953; Freud, 1933; Greer, 1971; Millet, 1970; Sears, in Beach, 1965; and Thompson, in Green, 1964). Many of them have not made the distinction discussed in the preceding paragraph. For this reason many of their names and works are cited under both themes 1 and 3.

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4. Effectiveness and intelligence

Effectiveness and intelligence are defined for this theme as abilities such as seeing the heart of problems, being problem-centered rather than person-centered, persistence, preference for analytical thinking, and talent for improvising in the face of unexpected developments in order to achieve a desired goal. These abilities are not assumed by the present author to be the exclusive province of either sex, however they traditionally have been associated with men. Assertions about the superiority and inferiority of women's effectiveness and intelligence through the ages have been extensively catalogued by de Beauvoir (1953), Millet (1970), and Greer (1971). Extensive reviews of empirical research on sex differences (Tyler, 1965; Anastasi, 1958; Maccoby, 1966; and Sherman, 1971) indicate a growing interest in specifying differential indices of effectiveness and intelligence (as well as other variables) across the sexes.

Items written for the theme of effectiveness and intelligence include following through on projects she plans, believing she has the skills and abilities required for professional work, and preference for working under a deadline. Two items were addressed to the attitudes of men toward intelligent women, and differences in social advantages between the sexes.

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5. Fashions and cosmetics

This theme is defined as attitudes toward and sensitivities and dispositions to be aware of fashions, especially clothing, aspects of personal hygiene, and use of cosmetics generally. Although the authors on women's liberation, especially Greer (1971), devote considerable attention to these aspects of the feminine role, very little empirical research in psychology is devoted to this theme. Of the few studies which do exist, most seem to be addressed to the psychoanalytic derivations which link female modesty on the one hand, and female "over-valuation" of their physical attributes on the other, with unconscious recognition of their lack of a penis. That is, women are modest, since they do not wish their "castration" to be revealed, and by the same token their "physical vanity" is supposed to be a compensation for the same genital "deficit." (see Freud, 1933; also see Ford, 1945; MacLean, 1965; and Devereux, 1960; all cited in Sherman, 1971). One notable exception to these formulations is a study by Aiken (1963) which links differences in fashion preferences to scores on Gough's Femininity (Fe) scale of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI).

6. Hostility

Feelings and attitudes toward the expression of anger, and the consequences of it, were given coverage

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by this theme. Again, this author distinguishes between hostility, dominance, and assertiveness and aggression, although they are often treated as part of the same concept in theories and research on women. Hostility is simply anger. It may be a generalized "stance" toward others, stemming from unconscious conflict, or specifically and consciously linked to everyday events. In any case, dominance, assertiveness and aggression, and hostility are often used interchangeably. A woman may feel hostility, yet it is the manner in which she expresses it (or chooses not to) which is the nexus of this theme. The authors and works cited under themes 1 and 3 provide an adequate overview of the problematical nature of women's expression of hostility.

Holding a grudge, not concealing annoyance, "making-up" quickly after an argument, and wishes for more courage in expressing anger are examples of the content of these items.

7. Leisure activities

The role of leisure and play, and their relationship to work were the focus of this set of items. The work of Ravenna Helson (especially 1965; also 1966, 1967, and 1971) which in part discusses the leisure and childhood activities of creative and artistic women is germane to this theme. However, more research is needed on the leisure activity patterns of other groups of women.

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Such research will be greatly facilitated by promising and reliable instruments addressed to leisure activities such as McKechnie's (1972).

Items addressed to preferences for group and solitary leisure activities, as well as items concerned with attitudes toward leisure time spent with men and women, were included for this theme.

8. Masochism

For this theme masochism is conceived of as self-rejection, fueled by eroticization of personal suffering or injury. These dynamics are certainly characteristic of some women, just as they are characteristic of some men. However, the theme is more often attributed to women, and some authors (e.g., Freud, T. Reik, and Helene Deutsch) hypothesize it as a basic ingredient of feminine psychology. Thus, a first collection of items must contain at least some items expressing a masochistic content. Whether or not all women are masochistic, or whether only those with neurotic problems are (see Hecht, 1950, for a discussion of neurotic masochism) is a question whose answer lies outside the boundaries of this study. The theme of masochism is included only as a heuristic for item preparation. Items for this theme touch upon extreme loyalty, even to men who mistreat her, generally unpredictable relationships with men, and the belief that suffering will always be a part of her life.

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9. Motherliness

Motherliness is defined as a woman's ability and preference to subordinate her individual interests to those of the species. While the species is often represented by a child, the maternal attitude can manifest itself toward other persons, animals, or even things. While this theme, again, may be present and express itself in men, it is powerfully associated with women, and has been depicted in myth, song, art, and literature for millennia. Authors such as Freud, Melanie Klein, and Helene Deutsch have emphasized the essential role of maternal attitudes and expression in the psychology of women. Items written for the theme of motherliness tap behavior such as comforting others who are upset, attitudes toward having children, and sympathetic, accepting, appreciative dispositions. In addition items were added concerning adopting children, and preferences for boy babies rather than girl babies (see Freud, 1933).

10. Narcissism

Narcissism for this theme, is conceived as overly high valuation of self, guiltless, non-hostile disregard for the wishes and needs of others and deployment of energy and interest toward the self and away from the world. The role of narcissism in the psychology of women has been emphasized by Freud (1914) and Helene Deutsch (1944). Although these authors, and others, have discussed the dynamics of narcissism for both sexes, and have also discussed the healthy

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function of narcissistic concerns for both sexes, narcissism has frequently been associated with women. Items written for this theme focus on women's worrying about their figures and weighing themselves. In addition, items addressed to looking at her reflection as she passes store-front windows, asserting that she is vain, and keeping up a suntan were included. (Keeping up a suntan was later dropped from CWA-II, although its statistical characteristics warranted its inclusion. The racially biased content of this particular "manifestation" of narcissism led to its exclusion from CWA-II.)

11. Poise and social presence

This theme is defined as knowledge, valuing, and espousal of social skills, especially those skills which seem to be involved in meeting others for the first time. In addition, self-confidence in these skills and their effective use were assumed to be at the nexus of this theme.

The social sphere is one of the aspects of female roles where organizational ability, social skills, poise, and related knowledge are used in active ways. Sears (in Beach, 1965) has labelled this aspect of rule-awareness pro-social, and has in his review of relevant literature, noted that it appears early in the woman's life cycle. However, the social, interactive, poised aspect of pro-social behavior is also evident in the

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stereotypic "folklore" on women (magazines, talk-shows, movies and books). Items written for this theme touched upon regret over self-disclosure, avoidance of social contact, defensive comic behavior, and ease in getting others to talk about themselves.

12. Sex

The studies of Kinsey, Pomeroy, Martin and Gebhard (1965) and Katherine Davis (1929) are classic in the field of human sexuality. Setting aside the methodological criticism leveled at these studies, they still represent an invaluable groundbreaking for more open and realistic appraisals of the role of sexuality in human life. Of all the themes which recur in writings and research on women, sexuality is perhaps the most difficult to write acceptable items about. Even with the recent advances in empirical knowledge, there are vast areas of human sexuality we know nothing about. In addition, much of what has been labelled pathological in women's sexuality has been shown to be physiologically normal. The excellent contributions of Masters and Johnson (1966, 1970) in this regard still beg the question raised by Miller (1969) concerning the ability to learn voluntary control of the putative involuntary functions of the autonomic nervous system. Further, Masters and Johnson have addressed themselves to specifying physiological response cycles and have only recently (1970) begun to discuss the impact of

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socialization and human feeling on these cycles. While knowledge of sexual physiology is vital, contextual aspects of human sexual life have yet to be integrated into these physiological findings (also see Sherfey, 1966, on this issue).

Thus items for the sex theme were written with restraint and caution. These items were addressed to various subjective ways in which sexual feelings, attractiveness to men, intimacy, and periods without sexual partners can be experienced. This item list is by no means exhaustive, and is acknowledged to touch on only a few of the issues which classic authors (such as Kinsey and Katherine Davis) and contemporary authors (such as de Beauvoir, 1953; Greer, 1971; and Millet, 1970) have emphasized.

13. Positive aspects of the public feminine role

Bakan (1966), and more recently Gough (1973) have discussed constructs which emphasize the genuine contributions and strengths which derive from the "feminine role." Specifically, Bakan has labelled feminine functions as communion. Communion can be translated variously as cooperation, fusion, expression and acceptance. (For an excellent discussion of Bakan's position, and its conceptual import for research on the psychology of women, see Rae Carlson, 1972). Gough, in his formulation of CPI-Fe and the Personal Values Abstract scale Femininity (Fy), has

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called the feminine function conservation--patterns of interest and preference indicative of nurturance and the conservation of human relationships. Much of the controversy concerning the adverse effects of the socialization of women obscured or downgrades these genuine contributions and strengths. On an everyday level, women have been viewed as incapable of being objective, independent or logical, and as being possessed of a high order of personal sensitivity, warmth, and expressiveness (Broverman, et al, 1971), This theme is addressed to the positive features of this stereotype, i.e., communion and conservation. Sensitivity to social subtleties, taking life disappointments in stride, insights about the inner feelings of children, and emphasis on personal feelings rather than abstract principles of justice, are examples of item content for this theme.

14. Ties to former love objects

This theme is defined as the tendency to commemorate certain feelings, wishes and occasions which express past love and caring. This commemorative feature of female psychic life is presumed to be somewhat independent (or functionally autonomous) of a woman's present situation. Deutsch (1944) has emphasized this theme, and to a certain extent, it is implied in Gough's (1973) and Bakan's (1966) formulations of feminine functions. Being flattered by the attentions

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of older men, living close to her family, nostalgic feelings about love-affairs that never worked out, and remembering the birthdays and anniversaries of others; these represent the item content for the theme, ties to former love objects.

The items written on the above 14 themes comprise most of those in the College Women's Attitudes Q-sort Deck, Form I (CWA-I). There were, in addition, two items reflecting notions implicit in diagnostic tests of femininity such as the Franck Drawing Completion Test (Franck and Rosen, 1949). The total preliminary deck consisted of 138 items. Sixty-six undergraduate women enrolled in introductory psychology courses at the University of California Berkeley described themselves with CWA-I. They were requested to sort the statements into nine piles, with frequencies of 6, 12, 17, 22, 24, 22, 17, 12 and 6 cards, respectively. These nine piles range from the "most characteristic" six statements (assigned a value of "9") through statements about which the respondent felt "neutral" (assigned a value of "5") to statements which the respondent felt were "least characteristic" of her (assigned a value of "1"). Respondents were urged to be as honest as they could in describing themselves, and also to describe themselves as they were: not as they would like to be. All women who participated in any phase of this research were assured, in accordance with University of California

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policies of informed consent with human subjects, that their self-descriptions were to be kept in strictest confidence, that all names would be removed from their recording sheets and replaced by identification numbers, and finally that no individual results would be released or published in any form. They were also informed that they could terminate their participation in the procedure at any time, without penalty, and that all personal, identifiable information collected would ultimately be burned.

The placement values of all 138 items in CWA-I (ranging from 1-9) were averaged and correlated for the 66 self-descriptions. A three-stage item selection procedure was then instituted. Items whose placement values approximated 5 (i.e., neutral) were listed. Ultimately, this procedure required selecting items whose average placement values fell between 4.5 and 5.5. Then, the standard deviations of this subset of items were rank-ordered, from largest to smallest. The range of these standard deviations was 3.2 to 6.2. Finally, the correlation matrix of items which had (1) central placement; and (2) highest standard deviations were examined to determine the extent of their inter-correlation. Only those items which achieved the final desideratum of having statistically insignificant correlations with one another were included in the College Women's Attitudes

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Q-sort Deck, Form II, (CWA-II).

By employing these stringent statistical criteria, the resultant deck (CWA-II) contained 50 items which were maximally variant and uncorrelated. Kunert (1965) has discussed the importance of these three desiderata in the construction of Q-sort decks. However, the first step--selecting centrally placed items--may seem a bit strange. The argument for selecting these items over others is straightforward. Since centrally placed items with maximal variance are more likely to be employed across the whole range of placement positions (i.e., 1-9), they are also likely to be of most use in differentiating self-descriptions. Items which, on the average, tend to be sorted as highly characteristic or uncharacteristic will of necessity have (1) restricted variance, and (2) less sensitivity in differentiating self-descriptions. That is, everyone in a sample is likely to sort such items as characteristic or uncharacteristic. Since the purpose of this research was to explore differences among women, selecting centrally placed items seemed sensible and appropriate.

B. Phase 2 -- A typology of self-descriptions in the second sample

Subjects for this phase of the study were

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obtained from College of Marin[1] and Mills College[2]. In all, 104 women participated in Phase 2 of the study, 70 from College of Marin, and 34 from Mills College.

Just as in Phase 1 of this study, subjects in Phase 2 were informed of their rights as subjects and assured that any information collected from them would be held in strictest confidence; and again, procedures for insuring confidentiality were described in detail. A brief introduction to the study was given emphasizing the author's interest in investigating differences among women and describing the tests and procedures (see Appendix IV) to be employed in the research. In addition to CWA-II, each subject was requested to complete: an Adjective Checklist (ACL) (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965) self-description; the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough, 1957); the MMPI (Hathaway and McKinley, 1943); and

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[1]The author wishes to acknowledge the generous assistance of Mrs. Jean Ansley in permitting this research to be conducted in two of her classes during the spring of 1972 at the College of Marin, Kentfield, California.

[2]The author wishes to acknowledge the kind cooperation of Dr. Gordon Bronson in permitting subject recruitment from his class during the spring and summer of 1972 at Mills College, Oakland, California.

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Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers, 1962); a personal data blank (PDB); and Rotter's (1966) Social Attitude Scale or locus of control scale (LOC).

Appendix IV lists and describes the procedures used for both Phase 2 and Phase 3 of this study. Here is a brief rationale for including each of the procedures listed in the preceding paragraph:

ACL: The ACL is a more or less standard tool for gathering self-report data (c.f. Anastasi, 1968). It was included to serve as a descriptive adjunct to other variables in the test battery, both in the form of individual adjectives endorsed, and the standard scale scores.

CPI: The CPI was included to give coverage to dimensions of normal social and intrapsychic functioning, and possible relations of these dimensions to any emerging typology in this study.

MMPI: The MMPI was employed in this study in order to assess dimensions of psychopathological functioning and their relation to a typology.

MBTI: The MBTI was used to assess dimensions relevant to Jung's theory of type (Jung, 1923). The purpose here is to permit a later comparison between a derived typology of feminine reactions and one based on Jungian categories.

PDB: The PDB was designed for this research. This procedure requests information traditionally

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found to be important in personality research and research on birth control and family planning.

LOC: The LOC scale was included in this test battery to discover whether any of the derived types were characterized by significant deviations on perceived locus of control.

Deriving the Typology

There are numerous methodological choice-points in deriving a typology based on self-descriptive data such as the CWA-II Q-sorts. These choice-points will be listed and discussed in Chapter IV, Part A.

In this section, I will simply present the steps taken to derive a workable typology, and discuss some statistical and qualitative indices of how different the types are from one another. It may be useful to refer to Figure 3, which diagrams these steps and outlines the data analysis of this study.

Three approaches were attempted in deriving a typology from the second sample (Phase 2) CWA-II self-descriptions:

1. An inverse factor analysis typology based on the intercorrelations of 104 CWA-II sorts.
2. Two cluster analysis typologies; the first based on CWA-II item clusters, the second based on the euclidian distances of CWA-II sorts from

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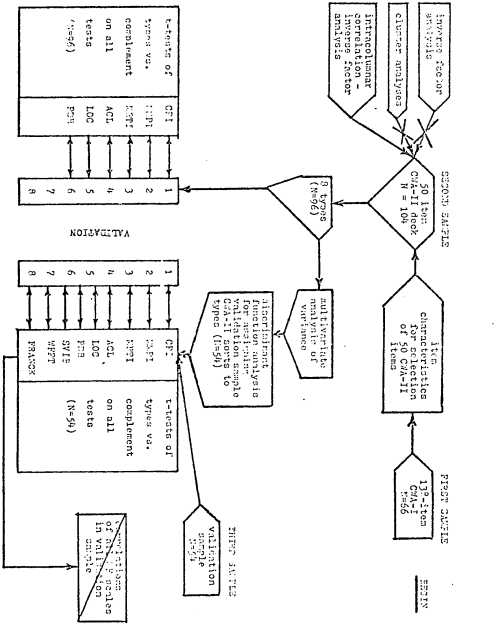
Figure 3. Diagram of research design and data analysis -- "An empirical typology of college women's personal role conceptions."



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each other (Tryon and Bailey, 1970, p. 88 and p. 143).

3. A method based on intracolumnar correlation ("recorrelating the correlations" in a matrix). This procedure was performed twice on the intercorrelations of 104 CWA-II sorts, and an inverse factor analysis performed on the "recorrelated matrix."

The first approach in deriving a typology yielded 32 person-factors. (The term person-factor will be employed to distinguish this kind of factor analysis from those kinds which first derive item-factors from a procedure and then compute persons' loadings on the item-factors. A person-factor, in this study, was a dimension based on a group of persons whose self-descriptions were correlated with one another and not correlated with the self-descriptions in other person-factors.) The 32-factor solution was deemed unworkable for two reasons. First, most of the person-factors contained only one or two persons, making statistical comparisons across factors unreliable. Second, it was felt that 32 factors would confuse, rather than clarify, thinking about differences among women.

Approach Two was an attempt to derive a typology whose multidimensional structure was not necessarily based on the orthogonal dimensions common to most factor

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analyses. In other words, there was no reason to assume that a multidimensional model of female personal role conceptions need be constructed by "forcing" dimensions to be uncorrelated with one another. The cluster analysis approach provides a number of useful and informative solutions for grouping data without assuming orthogonal dimensions.

The first cluster analysis attempted was simply an item-factor (or item cluster) analysis of CWA-II and a computation of persons' "loadings" on these item clusters. This first cluster analysis yielded two item clusters which turned out to be roughly orthogonal (uncorrelated). Of the 50 items in CWA-II, only seven items were employed by the analysis in assigning persons to "types." The rest were automatically excluded from computations because their communalities were less than .20. Thus, only two type dimensions (item clusters) were identified, and 86% of the descriptive information contained in the CWA-II items would have been lost in using this solution. (The fact that most items have communalities of such a uniformly low level demonstrates the functional effectiveness of the item selection techniques outlined in Part A of this chapter. CWA-II items are quite uncorrelated, making it difficult to factor this procedure in any meaningful way.) For the reasons outlined above, this two-cluster solution was deemed

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inadequate as a typology.

The second cluster-analysis approach involved computing the euclidian distances of persons' self-descriptions across all 50 items in CWA-II and clustering these distances by a series of iterations. This analysis assumes that self-descriptions which are similar will be close to each other in hyper-space, and distant from other clustered self-descriptions. Once these euclidian distance clusters were derived, they were compared for item content. This comparison involved averaging the self-descriptions and selecting the "most characteristic" and "least characteristic" averaged items in each cluster for examination. The comparison showed that the item content across these euclidian clusters was virtually identical, and therefore the clusters were not sufficiently different to be types by any commonsense definition of the term.

Approach 3 employed the method of intracolumnar correlation ("recorrelating the correlations"). This analysis simply takes the matrix of correlations of persons' self-descriptions and treats these correlations as a set of "scores." These scores are then correlated again, thus yielding a "recorrelated" matrix. If this procedure is carried on indefinitely, it is possible to produce a matrix with "ones" located in distinct regions, or clusters of cells, and "zeroes" in the remainder of the cells. Obviously, a decision

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must be made as to when to stop recorrelating a matrix. In the present study, two recorrelations were performed. After the first recorrelation, an inverse factor analysis of the matrix yielded 21 person factors. This was judged to be too many person factors. After the second recorrelation, another inverse factor analysis was performed, which yielded 12 person factors. Inspection of the eigen values for this solution suggested that the matrix could be adequately summarized with seven person factors. A solution was preset for this number of factors. These seven factors accounted for 87% of the communality and had the following numbers of persons in each: 49, 21, 17, 9, 4, 2, and 2. Since the last three factors accounted for only 15% of the communality, and since a total of eight persons (4, 2, and 2) were assigned to these three factors, only the first four factors were employed in subsequent analyses. The first four factors accounted for 72% of the communality, and had a total of 96 out of the 104 persons in the sample assigned to them.

As well be discussed in Chapter IV, Part B, a typology should ideally have types which are different from one another in meaningful, and verifiable, and replicable ways. The typology derived from the seven factor solution (reduced to four factors) should contain types which were significantly different from one another in three ways: 1) The types should be

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different in the way they describe themselves on CWA-II across all 50 items, in a purely statistical sense; 2) the CWA-II item-content of each types; self-descriptions should be different, especially at the level of averaged "most-" and "least-" characteristic items for each type; and 3) non-test relationships of each type should be different, when contrasted to the sample complement (i.e., all other types combined).

In order to group subjects into types, it was necessary to inspect each woman's loadings on the four person factors and assign her to the factor on which she had the highest loading. Generally, the highest positive loading is employed in this procedure. However, in many cases in this study the highest loading among the four factors was negative. The conceptual implications of employing negative loadings in assignment to types are complex and will be discussed in Chapter IV, Part B. The 96 women in the sample were assigned to one of the four person factors on the basis of highest factor loading, regardless of sign. Then, in keeping with the three criteria of differences across types, three analyses were performed. First, a multivariate analysis of variance, employing the 50 CWA-II items as dependent variables and the types as levels, was performed. The F-ratio for this multivariate test of equality of the mean vectors for the four levels was 1.28, $p \leq .08$.

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This was deemed an unacceptable level of confidence. Second, inspection of the averaged most- and least-characteristic items for each type revealed an unacceptable number of overlapping items across types. Third, the non-test relationships were very sparse. (The test battery yields scores on 127 variables; some types had only three variables achieving significant t-values when compared to the complement.)

At this stage in the analysis, it was suspected that women who had high positive and negative loadings on the four factors were quite different groups, and that they might be "opposites" whose CWA-II self-descriptions, as well as other test scores, might be cancelling each other out. Therefore, women with high positive and negative loadings on each person factor were grouped together, yielding eight types. The types had 31, 18, 5, 16, 13, 4, 5, and 4 women in each of them. These numbers represent 31 persons with high positive loadings on factor 1, 18 persons with high negative loadings on factor 1; 5 persons with high positive loadings on factor 2, 16 persons with high negative loadings on factor 2, and so on. Again, the three criteria for establishing that these groupings (types) were different were applied. A multivariate analysis of variance identical in approach to the one reported above was performed. The results of this analysis showed that the types were remarkably

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and very significantly different from one another (multivariate F significant well beyond the .0001 level). Second, the content of the averaged most- and least- characteristic CWA-II items was quite different from type to type (see Table 1). Finally, the non-test relationships in the battery were sufficiently numerous and distinctly different when contrasted to the sample complement.

RESULTS: Test Battery Relationships to the Types

The pivotal groupings for all subsequent data analyses in this study are derived from 96 women's self-descriptions on CWA-II. It should be noted here that the majority of subjects in samples where CWA-II was employed completed the procedure in 20-30 minutes.

In order to cross-validate the typology derived, it was necessary to collect an additional (third) sample of women, each of whom should describe themselves with CWA-II and complete the same test battery that the second sample did. Therefore, 55 women enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses[1] at the University of California, Berkeley, completed the same procedures used in the second sample. In addition

[1]The author wishes to acknowledge the help and patience of Dr. Jane Brooks in permitting subject recruitment from her class during the fall of 1972 at the University of California, Berkeley, California.

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these women completed procedures which are addressed to various aspects of MF (see Appendix). The additional procedures were included in the battery in an effort to explore their relationships to the typology, and so that their intercorrelations could be examined (see Table 12).

The next step in cross-validation required a method by which the new cases collected could be assigned to the types derived for the previous sample. Once accomplished, the non-test relationships of each type could be compared for the second and third sample. The new cases were assigned to their appropriate CWA-II type in the following manner: First, the mean placement values of each of the 50 CWA-II items was computed for each type. Then, each new case was plotted and its euclidian distance measured from the set of 50 means for each of the eight types. An analog was assigned for each of the distances, for each new case. Thus, each new case received eight analogs, which corresponded to its euclidean distances from each type. The smallest analog indicated the shortest distance, and therefore, each new case was assigned the type which it was "closest to" in euclidian space. The number of cases in each of the eight types was: 15, 27, 3, 5, 3, 2, 4, and 1. Since only one woman was assigned to type 8 by this method, it was impossible to cross-validate type 8 in this study.

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The significant test-battery relationships of types for both second and third samples are summarized in Tables 2-9. In all cases, the tabled results represent significant t-values when a type was compared to the sample complement (all other types in the sample combined). Tables 2-9 show these significant test battery relationships for each type, in both the second and third sample. Table 9 is a summary of the significant relationships for type 8, second sample only, for the reason mentioned in the last paragraph. Thus, cross-validation comparisons were possible with 7 of the 8 types. Of these 7 possible cross-validations, inspection of Tables 2-9 will show that the types 1, 2, 3, and 4 have cross-validated strongly. Types 5 and 6 have one or two cross-validated findings, and type 7 has none. What follows is an attempt to summarize the psychological implications of the cross-validated findings for the first four types. In other words, for each type where sufficient cross-validated results were found, an interpretive psychological summary will be given, based on the results shown in Tables 1, and 2-9. (Tables 2-9 also show the adjectives endorsed by each type. Table 10 summarizes the adjectives endorsed by 75 percent or more of both total samples, second and third. Table 11 compares the means and standard deviations on all variables in the test battery for the second and third samples. Figures

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TABLE 1

MODAL CHARACTERISTIC AND UNCHARACTERISTIC CWA-II Q-SORT ITEMS FOR THE EIGHT TYPES DERIVED FROM THE SECOND SAMPLE

TYPE 1

Characteristic

(Average Placement Value)

(5.42)	2.	Worries quite a lot about her figure.
(5.35)	5.	Is usually nervous before parties or other social gatherings.
(5.26)	23.	Wishes she had more to say in conversations with new acquaintances.
(5.13)	24.	Feels rejected if others criticize her.
(5.00)	47.	Is a tense, anxious person who worries a lot.

Uncharacteristic

(2.87)	49.	Is good in athletics.
(2.90)	10.	Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.
(2.93)	14.	Is vain.
(2.97)	37.	Would prefer to have boy babies rather than girl babies.
(3.06)	9.	Imagines she might be a good detective.

TYPE 2

Characteristic

(5.72)	16.	Is confident that men will find her attractive.
(5.67)	33.	Takes life's disappointments in stride.

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Table 1 (cont.)

Characteristic (Type 2, cont.)

(5.39)	49.	Is good in athletics.
(4.89)	28.	Her sexual needs seem to fluctuate.
(4.83)	4.	Rarely holds a grudge.

Uncharacteristic

(2.56)	47.	Is a tense, anxious person who worries a lot.
(2.61)	15.	Feels self-conscious when dancing.
(2.67)	14.	Is vain.
(2.94)	40.	Has difficulty making decisions.
(2.94)	46.	Dislikes women who are forward or assertive.

TYPE 3

Characteristic

(6.00)	5.	Is usually nervous before parties or other social gatherings.
(5.80)	4.	Rarely holds a grudge.
(5.60)	13.	Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.
(5.60)	23.	Wishes she had more to say in conversations with new acquaintances.
(5.40)	7.	Pays little attention to minor complaints or illness, such as colds, headaches, etc.

Uncharacteristic

(1.80)	31.	Does not conceal her annoyance when others irritate her.
(2.40)	34.	Has difficulty concentrating; is easily distracted.

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Table 1 (cont.)

Uncharacteristic (Type 3, cont.)

(2.60)	1.	Finds it hard to get going in the morning.
(2.60)	14.	Is vain.
(2.60)	16.	Is confident that men will find her attractive.
(2.60)	17.	Is flattered by the attentions of older men.
(2.60)	22.	Believes a certain amount of suffering will always be a part of her life.

TYPE 4

Characteristic

(5.56)	2.	Worries quite a lot about her figure.
(5.18)	12.	Is animated and comic in an attempt to relieve her own uneasiness.
(5.12)	21.	Enjoys trading playful insults and banter, especially with men.
(5.00)	1.	Finds it hard to get going in the morning.
(4.87)	13.	Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.
(4.87)	19.	Prefers to work under a deadline.
(4.87)	34.	Has difficulty concentrating; is easily distracted.

Uncharacteristic

(2.69)	6.	Has been so busy at times that she has been almost uninterested in sex.
(2.69)	42.	Avoids wearing revealing or provacative clothes.
(3.00)	10.	Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.

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Table 1 (cont.)

Uncharacteristic (Type 4, cont.)

(3.00)	44.	Likes to spend her free time by herself.
(3.13)	5.	Is usually nervous before parties or other social gatherings.

TYPE 5

Characteristic

(6.00)	45.	Sometimes enjoys being both desirable and hard-to-get with men.
(5.46)	13.	Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.
(5.15)	11.	Prefers men who will not let her "get away with things."
(5.08)	2.	Worries quite a lot about her figure.
(5.08)	18.	Likes to be pampered when she's sick.

Uncharacteristic

(1.85)	6.	Has been so busy at times that she has been almost uninterested in sex.
(2.38)	10.	Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.
(2.69)	19.	Prefers to work under a deadline.
(2.77)	20.	Seldom wears perfume.
(2.77)	49.	Is good in athletics.

TYPE 6

Characteristic

(5.75)	12.	Is animated and comic in attempt to relieve her own uneasiness.
(5.50)	13.	Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.

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Table 1 (cont.)

Characteristic (Type 6, cont.)

(5.50) 25. Enjoys organizing and directing others.

(5.50) 47. Is a tense, anxious person who worries a lot.

(5.50) 49. Is good in athletics.

Uncharacteristic

(2.25) 32. Her relationships with men seem to have unpredictable ups and downs.

(2.50) 21. Enjoys trading playful insults and banter, especially with men.

(2.75) 34. Has difficulty concentrating; is easily distracted.

(2.75) 41. Feels that men have more social advantages than women.

(2.75) 44. Likes to spend her free time by herself.

TYPE 7

Characteristic

(6.40) 40. Has difficulty making decisions.

(6.00) 4. Rarely holds a grudge.

(5.80) 43. Wishes she had more courage in expressing her anger.

(5.40) 22. Believes a certain amount of suffering will always be a part of her life.

(5.20) 2. Worries quite a lot about her figure.

(5.20) 3. Men often mistake her friendliness for sexual interest.

(5.20) 26. Is loyal, almost to a fault.

(5.20) 34. Has difficulty concentrating, is easily distracted.

(5.20) 36. Has many close friends.

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Table 1 (cont.)

Uncharacteristic (Type 7, cont.)

(1.80)	13.	Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.
(2.00)	9.	Imagines she might make a good detective.
(2.40)	50.	Worries about possible accident or injury to loved ones and members of her family.
(2.80)	21.	Enjoys trading playful insults and banter, especially with men.
(2.80)	30.	Tends to keep quiet when people are discussing a problem.

TYPE 8

Characteristic

(5.75)	13.	Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.
(5.75)	16.	Is confident that men will find her attractive.
(5.75)	28.	Her sexual needs seem to fluctuate.
(5.75)	33.	Takes life's disappointments in stride.
(5.75)	45.	Sometimes enjoys being both desirable and hard-to-get with men.
(5.50)	18.	Likes to be pampered when she's sick.

Uncharacteristic

(1.50)	20.	Seldom wears perfume.
(2.75)	4.	Rarely holds a grudge.
(2.75)	10.	Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.
(2.75)	14.	Is vain.
(2.75)	46.	Dislikes women who are forward or assertive.

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TABLE 2

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS IN

CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 1

Second Sample		Third Sample	
Type 1, N=31		Type 1, N=15	
Score higher than complement on:		Score higher than complement on:	
CPI	Femininity (PVA) (22.9) (10)	CPI	Achievement via Independence (26.1) (01)
MMPI	Depression (23.5) (05)	MBTI	*Introversion (16.3) (05)
	Psychasthenia (uncorrected) (20.6) (01)		Feeling (16.9) (05)
	Psychasthenia (K-corrected) (33.3) (05)	ACL STANDARD SCALES	
	Schizophrenia (uncorrected) (18.9) (05)		*Need: Succorance (58.9) (05)
	Social Introversion (35.1) (01)		*Need: Abasement (55.4) (10)
	Anxiety (16.5) (01)	Lower than complement on:	
	Taylor Manifest Anxiety (22.5) (01)	CPI	Acquiescence (Dicken) (13.4) (10)
	Depression (Dempsey) (10.2) (05)	MMPI	Schizophrenia (uncorrected) (11.4) (10)
	Ego Control (Block) (17.4) (05)		Hypomania (uncorrected) (17.3) (10)
ACL STANDARD SCALES			Hypomania (K-corrected) (20.6) (10)
	Number unfavorable adjectives (55.7) (10)		Anxiety (8.8) (10)
	Need: Deference (52.0) (05)	MBTI	*(50 + E) - I (44.7) (10)
			Thinking (4.5) (10)

Table 2 (cont.)

ACL STANDARD SCALES (cont.)
Need: Succorance (58.1) (01)
Need: Abasement (58.2) (01)

MBTI Introversion (17.8) (01)
Sensation (12.9) (01)
Judgment (13.2) (05)
(50 + S) - N (50.4) (01)

Lower than complement on:

CPI Dominance (21.6) (01)
Capacity for status (17.1) (01)
Sociability (20.2) (01)
Social Presence (34.2) (01)
Self acceptance (19.3) (01)
Sense of well-being (32.0) (05)
Good Impression (11.5) (01)
Medical Student scale (11.2) (01)
Hogan Empathy (full scale) (21.5) (01)
Hogan Empathy (CPI items only) (34.8) (01)
Dicken Social Desireability (15.4) (10)
Modernity (19.3) (05)

MBTI (cont.)
(50 + T) - F (37.5) (05)

Age (20.2) (10)

Year in College (3.0) (10)

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Table 2 (cont.)

MMPI Lie scale (2.8) (05)
K scale (12.7) (01)
Hysteria (21.5) (05)
Barron Soundness (22.9) (10)
Barron Originality (41.3) (10)
Social Desireability (Wiggins) (25.9) (01)
Leadership (Oettell) (23.3) (01)
Originality (total of 5 Gough scales)(55.5) (01)
Role Playing scale (McClelland) (17.4) (01)

ACL STANDARD SCALES
Number adjectives checked (53.2) (05)
Defensiveness (43.5) (05)
Number favorable adjectives checked (46.8) (01)
Self-confidence (41.1) (01)
Need: Achievement (43.6) (05)
Need: Intraception (47.5) (10)
Need: Affiliation (42.9) (05)
Need: Dominance (41.3) (01)
Need: Heterosexuality (48.5) (05)
Need: Exhibition (46.1) (05)

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Table 2 (cont.)

ACL STANDARD SCALES (cont.)
Need: Change (47.5) (05)

MBTI Extraversion (9.5) (01)
Intuition (17.8) (05)
(50 + E) - I (41.6) (01)

Year in College (1.5) (05)

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TABLE 3

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS IN

CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 2

Second Sample Type 2, N=18	Third Sample Type 2, N= 22
Higher than complement on:	Higher than complement on:
CPI Dominance (30.1) (01)	ACL STANDARD SCALES
Capacity for status (22.2) (01)	*Need: Intraception (54.9) (10)
Sociability (27.3) (01)	
Social Presence (41.4) (01)	MBTI *Intuition (18.7) (05)
Self acceptance (24.5) (01)	Perception (16.9) (10)
Sense of well-being (36.0) (05)	
Responsibility (28.3) (10)	Year in College (3.8) (05)
Tolerance (23.6) (10)	Married (1.6) (05)
Achievement via conformance (27.8) (05)	
Intellectual efficiency (41.2) (01)	Age (24.7) (01)
Psychological mindedness (13.4) (10)	
Medical Student (17.7) (01)	
Dicken social desireability (19.3) (01)	
Modernity (22.4) (05)	

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Table 3 (cont.)

MMPI K scale (18.1) (01)
Ego strength (Barron) (48.0) (01)
Barron originality (47.2) (05)
Leadership (Oettell)(35.9) (01)
Social desireability (Wiggins) (33.8) (01)
Barron soundness (29.8) (01)
Originality (total of 5 Gough scales) (66.3) (01)
Originality (Gough) (28.1) (01)
Role playing (McClelland)(21.8)(01)

ACL STANDARD SCALES
Defensiveness (51.2) (05)
Number favorable adjectives checked (57.0) (01)
Self-confidence (56.6) (01)
Lability (54.5) (10)
Personal adjustment (51.3) (05)
Need: Achievement (54.2) (01)
Need: Dominance (55.0) (01)
Need: Endurance (49.9) (05)
Need: Intraception (53.1) (10)

Lower than complement on:

ACL STANDARD SCALES
Number unfavorable adjectives (48.3) (10)
*Need: Succorance (46.8) (01)
*Need: Abasement (45.3) (10)

MBTI
Judgment (10.2) (10)
(50 + J) - P (43.3) (10)

Single (1.4) (05)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
versatile	76

$\bar{x}$ = 107.6
sd = 32.8

Table 3 (cont.)

ACL STANDARD SCALES (cont.)

Need: Affiliation (50.0) (05)
Need: Exhibition (55.4) (05)
Need: Autonomy (55.3) (05)
Need: Change (57.2) (01)

MBTI

Intuition (17.6) (05)

Year in college (2.3) (10)

Lower than the complement on:

CPI: Femininity (22.9) (10)
Femininity (PVA) (20.4) (01)

MMPI

Hypochondraisis (uncorrected) (4.5) (05)
Depression (18.5) (01)
Psychasthenia (uncorrected) (10.5) (01)
Psychasthenia (K-corrected) (28.6) (01)
Schizophrenia (uncorrected) (12.0) (05)
Social introversion (19.9) (01)
Anxiety (6.3) (01)

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Table 3 (cont.)

MMPI (cont.)

Taylor Manifest Anxiety (11.1) (01)
Depression (Dempsey) (4.6) (01)
Self maintenance (Cuadra) (26.8) (05)

ACL STANDARD SCALES

Number unfavorable adjectives checked (45.6) (01)
Need: Succorance (44.2) (01)
Need: Abasement (41.9) (01)
Need: Deference (42.1) (01)

MBTI Introversion (11.5) (10)
Sensation (5.2) (05)
(50 + S) - N (37.6) (05)

LOCUS OF CONTROL (10.5) (10)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
good looking	83
independent	78
self-confident	78
strong	83
$\bar{x}$ =	116.2
sd =	24.3

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TABLE 4

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS

IN CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 3

Second Sample Type 3, N=5	Third Sample Type 3, N=3
Higher than the complement on:	Higher than the complement on:
MMPI Social introversion (34.6) (10)	MMPI Masculinity-Femininity (44.7) (10)
ACL STANDARD SCALES	ACL STANDARD SCALES
Defensiveness (56.2) (05)	*Need: Deference (59.0) (10)
Self-control (58.8) (05)	Lower than the complement on:
Personal adjustment (53.6) (10)	CPI Dominance (19.3) (01)
Need: Endurance (55.0) (05)	Medical Student (10.7) (05)
Need: Order (56.2) (05)	ACL STANDARD SCALES
Need: Deference (56.8) (10)	Self confidence (36.3) (10)
Lower than the complement on:	Lability (44.7) (10)
MMPI Psychopathic deviate (uncorrected) (14.8) (10)	*Need: Heterosexuality (36.0) (05)
Psychopathic deviate (K-corrected) (20.2) (05)	*Need: Exhibition (35.3) (05)
	*Need: Aggression (39.7) (10)

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Table 4 (cont.)

ACL STANDARD SCALES

Need: Heterosexuality (42.4) (05)
Need: Exhibition (41.4) (10)
Need: Aggression (41.4) (05)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
foresighted	100
modest	100
patient	100
peaceable	100
tactful	100
thrifty	100

$\bar{x}$ = 112.3
sd = 13.1

N.B.: An asterisk indicates that a finding cross-validated.

Year in College (2.3) (10)

WELSH FIGURE PREFERENCE TEST--MALE-FEMALE (ALLEN-GOUGH REVISION) (10.3) (10)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
jolly	100
moderate	80
persevering	80
quiet	80
rational	100
self-controlled	80
silent	80
steady	80
worrying	80

$\bar{x}$ = 124.6
sd = 14.5

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TABLE 5

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS

IN CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 4

Second Sample Type 4, N=16	Third Sample Type 4, N=5
Higher than the complement on:	Higher than the complement on:
CPI Social presence (39.7) (10)	CPI Acquiesence (Dicken) (17.4) (10)
Femininity (PVA) (23.2) (10)	MMPI F scale (12.4) (05)
MMPI Hypochondraisis (uncorrected)(8.9)(10)	Schizophrenia (uncorrected) (23.0)(10)
Self maintenance (Cuadra) (30.3) (10)	Hypomania (uncorrected) (25.8) (01)
ACL STANDARD SCALES	Hypomania (K-corrected) (28.2) (01)
Number unfavorable adjectives checked (59.5) (01)	ACL STANDARD SCALES
Need: Aggression (57.9) (01)	Number adjectives checked (67.0) (10)
LOCUS OF CONTROL (13.7) (05)	*Number unfavorable adjectives checked (63.4) (01)
Divorced (1.8) (01)	Lability (59.0) (05)
Not remarried (1.9) (01)	Need: Heterosexuality (58.6) (10)
Lower than the complement on:	Need: Exhibition (62.8) (05)
CPI Self-control (21.8) (05)	Need: Autonomy (73.0) (01)
	*Need: Aggression (65.4) (01)

Table 5 (cont.)

MMPI K scale (12.9) (10)
Ego control (Block) (13.4) (05)

ACL STANDARD SCALES
Defensiveness (42.8) (10)
Number favorable adjectives (46.5)(10)
Self-control (41.1) (01)
Personal adjustment (42.7) (05)
Need: Endurance (42.7) (05)
Need: Order (42.6) (05)
Need: Intraception (44.6) (01)
Need: Nurturance (43.6) (05)
Need: Deference (44.6) (10)

ACL STANDARD SCALES (cont.)
Need: Change (60.6) (05)

*Divorced (1.6) (01)

Lower than the complement on:
CPI Responsibility (21.6) (01)
Socialization (30.8) (10)
*Self-control (18.2) (01)
Tolerance (18.8) (05)
Good impression (10.6) (05)
Achievement via conformance (22.0)(01)
Intellectual efficiency (36.8) (05)
Socialization (PVA) (19.6) (10)
Dicken social desireability (15.0)(01)

MMPI Lie scale (1.8) (10)
*K scale (11.0) (05)
Role playing (McClelland)(16.4)(10)

ACL STANDARD SCALES
*Self-control (42.0) (10)
*Personal adjustment (36.4) (05)

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Table 5 (cont.)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
affected	80
arrogant	80
egotistical	80
fault-finding	80
fickle	80
frivolous	80
hasty	80
high strung	80
impulsive	80
inventive	80
nervous	80
peculiar	80
self-confident	80
sophisticated	80
spontaneous	100

$\bar{x}$ = 143.0
sd = 33.7

ACL STANDARD SCALES (cont.)

*Need: Intraception (43.2) (05)
*Need: Nurturance (34.4) (01)
*Need: Deference (33.6) (01)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
sarcastic	75
stubborn	75
temperamental	75

$\bar{x}$ = 120.8
sd = 43.2

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TABLE 6

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS

IN CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 5

Second Sample
Type 5, N=13

Higher than complement on:

CPI Psychological mindedness (13.6) (10)
Flexibility (15.4) (10)

MMPI Psychopathic deviate (K-corrected) (26.1) (05)

ACL STANDARD SCALES
Need: Heterosexuality (59.8) (01)
Need: Exhibition (57.5) (01)

MBTI Extraversion (15.8) (05)
(50 + E) - I (54.8) (05)

Number of Children Expected (2.6) (10)

Lower than complement on:

CPI Responsibility (24.1) (10)
Communality (24.1) (05)

Third Sample
Type 5, N=3

Higher than complement on:

CPI Sociability (31.7) (05)
Modernity (27.3) (05)
Hogan Empathy (full scale)(29.3)(05)
Hogan Empathy (CPI items only)(45.0)(10)
Medical student scale (20.3) (10)

MBTI *Extraversion (20.0) (05)
*(50 + E) - I (62.0) (05)

SVIB Masculinity-Femininity II (40.3)(10)

Franck Drawing Completion (23.3) (05)

Lower than complement on:

MBTI *Introversion (8.0) (05)

Year in college (2.0) (10)

Table 6 (cont.)

MMPI Self maintenance (Cuadra) (26.9) (10)

MBTI Introversion (10.9) (10)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
nothing	
$\bar{x}$ = 103.8	
sd = 28.7	

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
pleasure-seeking	100
soft-hearted	100
thorough	100
$\bar{x}$ = 131.7	
sd = 24.7	

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TABLE 7

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS

IN CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 6

Second Sample
Type 6, N=4

Higher than complement on:

CPI Sociability (27.5) (10)
Communality (27.0) (10)
Acquiescence (Dicken) (18.5) (05)

ACL STANDARD SCALES
Need: Nurturance (57.2) (10)
Need: Affiliation (55.2) (05)

MBTI Extraversion (19.2) (05)
(50 + E) - I (61.5) (05)

Lower than the complement on:

CPI Flexibility (10.2) (10)

MMPI Social introversion (21.7) (10)
Repression (12.0) (05)
Barron complexity (17.0) (10)
Originality (Gough) (19.5) (10)

Third Sample
Type 6, N=2

Higher than complement on:

CPI *Communality (28.0) (05)

MMPI Ego control (Block) (21.0) (10)

MBTI Sensation (15.0) (05)
(50 + S) - N (56.5) (05)
Judgment (19.5) (10)
(50 + J) - P (62.5) (10)

Welsh Figure Preference Test-
Male-Female (Allen-Gough Revision)
(21.0) (10)

Lower than the complement on:

CPI Capacity for status (18.0) (10)
Self acceptance (16.0) (05)

MBTI Intuition (8.5) (05)
Perception (7.0) (10)

Table 7 (cont.)

MBTI Introversion (7.7) (05)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
clever	75
conservative	75
enterprising	75
impatient	100
initiative	100
original	75
self-punishing	75
talkative	75
tense	75
thorough	75
versatile	75
$\bar{x}$ =	122.7
sd =	27.8

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
*conservative	100
mannerly	100
obliging	100
self-controlled	100
$\bar{x}$ =	119.5
sd =	3.5

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TABLE 8

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS

IN CROSS-VALIDATION OF TYPE 7

Second Sample Type 7, N=4	Third Sample Type 7, N=4
Higher than complement on:	Higher than complement on:
MMPI Depression (29.7) (01)	MMPI Repression (48.0) (10)
Psychopathic deviate (uncorrected) (21.7) (10)	LOCUS OF CONTROL (14.7) (10)
Psychopathic deviate (K-corrected) (27.5) (10)	Lower than complement on:
Anxiety (20.0) (10)	MMPI Masculinity-Femininity (37.0) (05)
Depression (Dempsey) (13.5) (01)	Franck Drawing Completion (16.2) (10)
ACL STANDARD SCALES	
Need: Abasement (67.2) (01)	
Need: Deference (61.2) (01)	
Year in college (3.0) (05)	
Lower than complement on:	
CPI Social presence (32.0) (05)	
Socialization (30.2) (10)	
Socialization (PVA) (19.0) (05)	

Table 8 (cont.)

ACL STANDARD SCALES

Self-confidence (32.8) (01)
Need: Achievement (39.6) (10)
Need: Dominance (33.4) (01)
Need: Exhibition (35.2) (01)
Need: Autonomy (41.0) (05)
Need: Aggression (43.0) (10)

LOCUS OF CONTROL (8.5) (10)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
evasive	80
foresighted	80
inhibited	100
forgetful	80
slow	80
suggestible	100
	$\bar{x}$ = 107.8
	sd = 34.1

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
dreamy	75
easy-going	75
persevering	75
persistent	75
relaxed	75
wholesome	75
worrying	75
	$\bar{x}$ = 100.2
	sd = 34.5

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TABLE 9

SIGNIFICANT TEST BATTERY MEANS

FOR TYPE 8, SECOND SAMPLE ONLY

Second Sample

Type 8, N=4

Higher than complement on:

MMPI Ego strength (Barron) (50.2) (10)

ACL STANDARD SCALES

Self-control (57.7) (10)

Personal adjustment (55.0) (10)

Year in college (3.0) (10)

Married (1.2) (01)

Lower than complement on:

MMPI Paranoia (8.2) (10)

Psychasthenia (K-corrected) (27.0) (05)

Schizophrenia (K-corrected) (25.0) (10)

Anxiety (6.5) (10)

Manifest Anxiety (Taylor) (12.2) (10)

Single (1.7) (01)

N.B.: The third sample had only one case assigned to type 8, hence no group comparison was possible.

Table 9 (cont.)

ACL ADJECTIVES	%
calm	100
charming	75
cool	75
dependent	75
informal	75
polished	75
prejudiced	100
progressive	75
simple	75
wholesome	75
	$\bar{x}$ = 105.7
	sd = 16.7

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TABLE 10

ACL ADJECTIVES ENDORSED BY 75%

OR MORE OF THE SECOND AND THIRD SAMPLES

SECOND SAMPLE	%	THIRD SAMPLE	%
active	82	*adaptable	94
adaptable	79	*affectionate	91
affectionate	93	alert	78
appreciative	88	ambitious	78
capable	86	*appreciative	89
cheerful	83	*capable	94
considerate	86	*cheerful	78
cooperative	88	civilized	76
curious	84	clear-thinking	80
dependable	93	conscientious	80
emotional	83	*considerate	93
enthusiastic	76	*cooperative	76
feminine	85	*curious	89
forgiving	84	*dependable	93
friendly	97	*emotional	76
gentle	80	*enthusiastic	78
good-natured	81	fair-minded	78
healthy	83	*forgiving	78
honest	84	*friendly	87
interests-wide	75	*gentle	89
kind	83	*good-natured	82
reasonable	79	*healthy	91
reliable	80	helpful	85
responsible	78	*honest	91
sensitive	88	idealistic	80
sentimental	76	intelligent	93
sincere	84	*interests-wide	89
thoughtful	77	*kind	85
understanding	88	pleasant	76
warm	88	*reasonable	83
		*reliable	80
N.B.: An asterisk (*) indicates an adjective which appears in both lists.		*responsible	89
		*sensitive	83
		severe	85
		sympathetic	83
		*thoughtful	80
		*understanding	85
		*warm	76

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TABLE 11

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON ALL VARIABLES IN THE TEST BATTERY FOR THE SECOND (N=104) AND THIRD (N=55) SAMPLES

	Second Sample		Third Sample	
CPI	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Dominance	24.9	5.98	28.5	6.33
Capacity for status	19.3	4.13	22.2	3.47
Sociability	23.3	5.28	25.2	4.95
Social presence	37.5	5.63	38.8	4.92
Self acceptance	21.8	3.46	23.2	4.66
Sense of well-being	33.6	4.79	34.2	5.18
Responsibility	26.3	4.99	29.3	4.55
Socialization	34.8	5.43	35.4	5.78
Self-control	25.3	6.10	27.2	7.80
Tolerance	21.5	5.13	22.8	4.55
Good impression	13.6	4.73	15.7	4.96
Communality	25.3	2.00	25.0	1.95
Achievement via conformance	25.3	4.77	27.5	4.56
Achievement via independence	21.9	4.62	24.1	3.38
Intellectual efficiency	37.4	5.78	41.0	4.53
Psychological mindedness	12.1	2.96	13.1	2.54
Flexibility	13.5	3.98	14.1	3.72
Femininity	24.0	2.92	23.6	3.20
CPI Special Scales				
Modernity (PVA)	20.7	3.75	23.3	3.35
Socialization (PVA)	23.1	4.05	23.1	4.64
Femininity (PVA)	22.1	2.77	21.2	3.05
Medical Student scale	14.2	4.13	16.1	4.07
Hogan Empathy (full scale)	23.6	3.96	25.3	3.21
Hogan Empathy (CPI items only)	37.6	5.76	40.6	4.52

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Table 11 (cont.)

CPI Special Scales (cont.)				
Anxiety (Leventhal)	5.6	2.04	5.5	2.32
Acquiescence (Dicken)	15.0	3.20	14.8	3.62
Social Desireability (Dicken)	16.4	3.86	19.3	3.71
MMPI				
Lie Scale	3.3	1.69	3.1	1.83
F Scale	6.5	3.29	7.8	4.58
K Scale	14.5	3.92	15.1	3.85
Hypochondriasis	7.0	4.67	5.3	4.40
Hypochondriasis (K-corrected)	14.5	4.34	13.1	3.89
Depression	22.0	4.99	22.8	5.35
Hysteria	23.1	4.58	23.2	3.82
Psychopathic deviate	18.1	4.34	17.8	4.44
Psychopathic deviate (K-corrected)	23.9	4.06	23.9	4.03
Masculinity-femininity	39.5	3.84	40.9	3.77
Paranoia	10.9	2.98	10.7	2.82
Psychasthenia	17.1	6.84	15.8	7.84
Psychasthenia (K-corrected)	31.6	4.60	30.9	5.91
Schizophrenia	16.2	8.25	15.4	9.92
Schizophrenia (K-corrected)	30.7	6.14	30.4	7.95
Hypomania	20.0	4.61	19.4	5.29
Hypomania (K-corrected)	22.9	4.23	22.5	4.94
Social introversion	28.5	8.39	28.4	7.94
MMPI Special Scales				
Anxiety (Welsh)	13.2	7.20	12.4	8.35
Repression (Welsh)	16.0	3.87	15.8	4.23
Ego Strength (Barron)	43.8	6.83	46.5	7.23
Leadership (Oettell)	28.1	7.19	29.7	6.66

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Table 11 (cont.)

MMPI Special Scales (cont.)				
Self maintenance (Cuadra)	28.6	3.93	28.3	4.55
Taylor manifest anxiety	18.6	7.88	17.4	9.18
Social desirability (Edwards)	28.6	5.51	29.2	6.45
Ego control (Block)	15.9	4.63	14.4	5.50
Depression (Dempsey)	8.3	4.12	8.2	4.86
Soundness (Barron)	24.6	6.01	26.1	6.20
Complexity (Barron)	23.9	7.39	28.2	7.46
Originality (Barron)	43.5	7.68	48.7	9.42
Originality (Gough)	24.1	5.45	25.5	4.55
Originality (sum of 5 Gough scales)	59.8	10.31	64.5	7.89
Role playing (McClelland)	18.9	3.45	19.3	3.76
ACL Standard Scales				
Number of adjectives checked	56.2	10.23	58.0	10.82
Defensiveness	46.6	9.48	47.5	10.74
Number of favorable adjectives checked	50.6	9.55	53.0	10.67
Number of unfavorable adjectives checked	52.7	10.89	51.2	9.75
Self confidence	46.4	10.33	49.5	12.34
Self-control	48.5	10.04	50.1	9.68
Lability	51.0	8.91	52.3	7.05
Personal adjustment	47.2	8.55	47.2	10.09
Need: Achievement	46.8	9.17	50.0	11.10
Need: Dominance	46.3	10.70	49.4	13.04
Need: Endurance	46.5	8.14	48.4	10.38
Need: Order	47.0	8.70	48.2	9.89
Need: Intraception	49.9	8.75	52.1	9.28
Need: Nurturance	48.2	9.49	46.8	10.50
Need: Affiliation	45.7	9.63	43.9	11.38
Need: Heterosexuality	52.3	10.71	50.3	11.03
Need: Exhibition	50.0	11.28	51.1	12.49
Need: Autonomy	50.7	9.82	54.1	13.39

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Table 11 (cont.)

ACL Standard Scales (cont.)				
Need: Aggression	51.1	10.88	51.8	11.63
Need: Change	51.0	11.17	51.3	10.55
Need: Succorance	53.0	10.37	52.5	12.03
Need: Abasement	52.2	11.49	49.4	14.12
Need: Deference	48.8	10.41	47.0	11.51
Counseling readiness	50.9	9.21	55.4	10.53
MBTI				
Extraversion	12.8	5.61	12.7	5.47
Introversion	13.9	6.12	14.0	5.15
Sensation	9.1	7.37	6.4	5.38
Intuition	13.9	6.12	14.0	4.87
Thinking	6.8	4.99	7.7	8.76
Feeling	14.5	4.58	14.4	5.04
Judgment	11.2	6.36	12.1	6.27
Perception	15.6	6.74	15.0	6.68
50 + Extraversion minus Introversion	48.8	11.56	48.6	10.41
50 + Sensation minus Intuition	44.2	12.90	39.3	9.90
50 + Thinking minus Feeling	42.3	9.26	42.3	9.68
50 + Judgment minus Perception	45.6	12.95	47.1	12.83
Personal Data Blank				
Age	21.1	4.56	22.4	5.34
Year in college	1.9	1.14	3.4	1.05
Single, 1 = yes, 2=no	1.2	.40	1.3	.46
Married, 1=yes, 2=no	1.8	.36	1.7	.43
Separated, 1=yes, 2=no	2.0	.17	2.0	0.00
Divorced, 1=yes, 2=no	2.0	.17	2.0	.19
Remarried, 1=yes, 2=no	2.0	.10	2.0	.14
Age when married	21.0	2.21	19.7	2.12

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Table 11 (cont.)

Personal Data Blank (cont.)				
Number of children	1.9	.76	2.4	1.23
Ideal number of children	2.5	.82	2.3	.88
Number of children expected	2.2	.79	1.9	.46
Rotter Locus of Control	11.8	3.80	11.1	4.14

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TABLE 12

CORRELATION MATRIX OF SCALES

ADMINISTERED TO THE THIRD SAMPLE OF WOMEN (N=54)

	Fe	Fy	Mf	WMF	AGMF	SVIB-M	Franck
1. CPI Femininity (Fe)	----						
2. PVA Femininity (Fy)	.97A	----					
3. MMPI Masculinity-femininity (Mf)	.29B	.31B	----				
4. WFPT Male-female (WMF)	-.04	.01	-.20	----			
5. WFPT Allen-Gough MF (AGMF)	-.04	.00	-.23C	.96A	----		
6. SVIB Masculinity (SVIB-M)*	.17	.12	-.04	.10	.06	----	
7. Franck Drawing Test (Franck)	-.01	-.03	.03	-.20	-.29B	.04	----

*reflected so that higher scores indicate femininity; on the other six tests higher scores are intended to indicate femininity.

A, $p \leq .01$
B, $p \leq .05$
C, $p \leq .10$

4 to 7 show the averaged CPI and MMPI profiles of types 1, 2, 3, and 4, for both the second and third samples. Finally, Table 12, as mentioned earlier shows the correlation matrix of all MF scales administered to the third sample.)

Type 1

Women assigned to Type 1 have great faith--perhaps too much faith--in the integrity and benevolence of others. They depend on others, seek support from them, and superficially at least, expect to find it. To attain this support, these women tend to be submissive and self-effacing. They view themselves as weak and even unworthy of the help and support they seek from others, and in consequence face the world with anxiety and foreboding. Their behavior is often self-punishing, perhaps in an attempt to forestall criticism and rejection from without. A basic problem, it is clear, lies in the domain of self-acceptance. They are acutely aware of their own failings and deficiencies and see themselves as needing reassurance from others. When such help is forthcoming, life is complicated because of their doubts that the nurturance was in fact merited.

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Type 2

These reflective, serious women value imagination in themselves and others, are interested in new ideas and enjoy problem-solving. They are independent, resourceful and self-sufficient. At the same time they are possessed of prudence and circumspection. They are confident, especially of their attractiveness to men, and since they do not fear others, they are alert and responsive to them. As might be expected, they have excellent intellectual talents and derive pleasure from using them. Their manner will be one of quiet confidence without vanity, of effectiveness without fanfare, and briskness without bruskness. Decisive, optimistic and poised, these women report that they take disappointments in stride, rarely hold a grudge, and do not dislike women who are forward or assertive.*

Type 3

These women tend to be inhibited, apathetic and dispirited. They think too much, and this disposition dampens their vitality. Lacking confidence, and doubting themselves, they will tend to shrink away from any encounter in which they will be visible, or the center of attention. On the positive side, these women are

---

* Some of the poise and maturity noted for this type may be a function of experience or age, since they are further along in their college education than the complement.

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conscientious, dependable, and persevering. It is possible that some of their self-denial and inhibition stems less from fear of others or sense of inferiority to them than from a preference for anonymity and freedom from the stress of external demands. These women will attend modestly to their affairs, seeking little, and yielding always to any reasonable claim by another. They are essentially conforming persons, but not necessarily lacking in courage or tenacity.

Type 4

These women are impulsive, and deficient in control of hostile and aggressive feelings. They are rebellious, poorly disciplined, and apt to behave in thoughtless and even arrogant ways. They will seem to get a grim satisfaction from attacking the complacent beliefs and attitudes of others. Strongly competitive, these women seek to win and vanquish, viewing others as rivals. In an appropriate situation, they may drive on to worthy attainments, but often their behavior will be merely self-aggrandizing and disruptive. Others will tend to view these women as obnoxious, autocratic, and thankless. This type of woman tries to maintain an appearance of adequacy, control and effectiveness, but her aggressive competitiveness will usually betray her self-centered concern with personal pleasure and self gain. These women have serious

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Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:

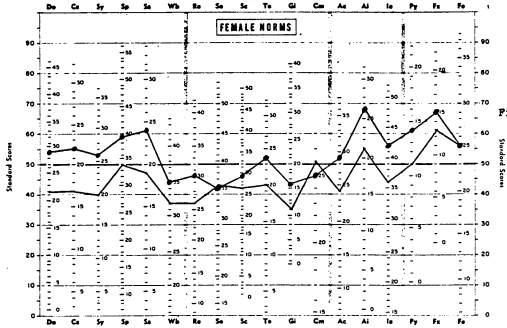

Figure 4. CPI and MMPI PROFILES OF TYPE 1
Second Sample —
Third Sample —•—

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Profile and Case Summary

F
Female

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

Starke R. Hathaway and J. Charnley McKinley

Name _____

Address _____

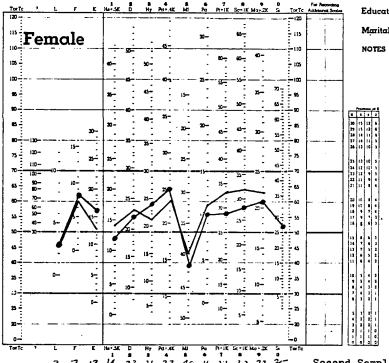
Occupation _____ Date Tested _____

Education _____ Age _____

Marital Status _____ Referred by _____

NOTES

Scorer's Initials _____



Raw Score — Second Sample
Third Sample

	L	F	K	Hs+.5K	D	Hy	Pd+.4K	Mf	Pa	Pt+1K	Sc+1K	Ma+.2K	Si
Second Sample	3	7	13	14	23	21	23	20	11	34	42	23	35
Third Sample	5	8	10	12	22	24	25	42	10	24	28	21	27
K to be added													
Raw Score with K													

Signature _____ Date _____

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Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:

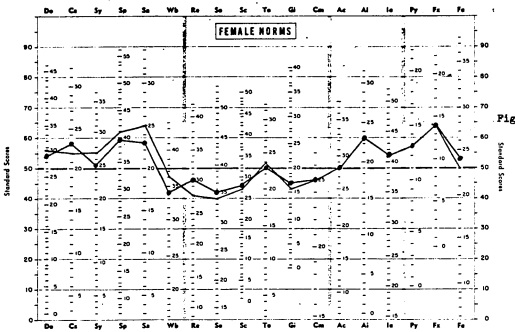

Figure 5. CPI and MMPI PROFILES OF TYPE 2
Second Sample —
Third Sample -●-●-

	Do	Cs	Sy	Sp	Sa	Wb	Re	So	Sc	To	Gi	Cm	Ac	Al	Ie	Py	Fx	Fe
Second Sample	30	22	27	41	25	36	28	34	27	24	16	25	25	23	41	13	14	23
Third Sample	29	23	25	39	23	34	30	35	28	23	17	25	28	23	41	13	14	24

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Profile and Case Summary

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

Starke R. Hathaway and J. Charnley McKinley

F Female

Name _____

Address _____

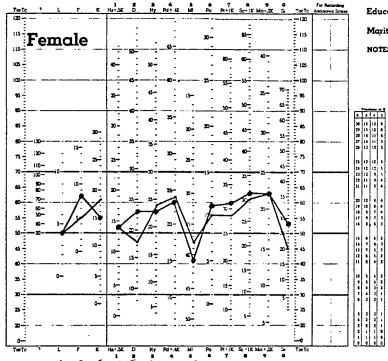
Occupation _____ Date Tested _____

Education _____ Age _____

Marital Status _____ Referred by _____

NOTES

Scorer's Initials _____



	1 Hs+.5K	2 D	3 Hy	4 Pd+.4K	5 Mf	6 Pa	7 Pt+.1K	8 Sc+.1K	9 Ma+.2K	0 Si
Second Sample	4	5	16	14	19	24	24	25	10	34	30	22	20
Third Sample	4	5	15	14	23	23	23	24	11	31	31	22	28

Signature _____ Date _____

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Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:

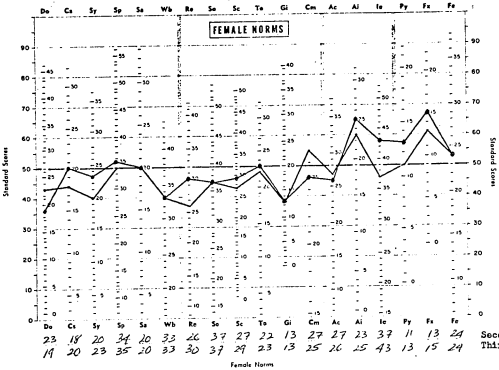

Figure 6. CPI and MMPI PROFILES OF TYPE 3

Second Sample ——

Third Sample •—•

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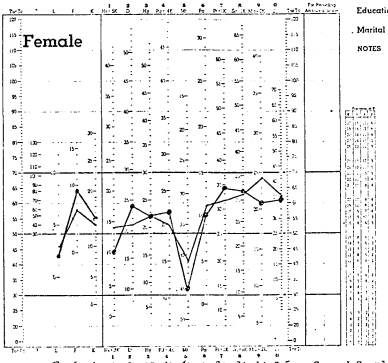
Profile and Case Summary

F
Female

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

Starke R. Hathaway and J. Charnley McKinley

Scores's Initials _____



Name _____

Address _____

Occupation _____ Date Tested _____

Education _____ Age _____

Marital Status _____ Referred by _____

NOTES

Signature _____ Date _____

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Name _____ Age _____ Date Tested _____

Other Information _____

Notes:

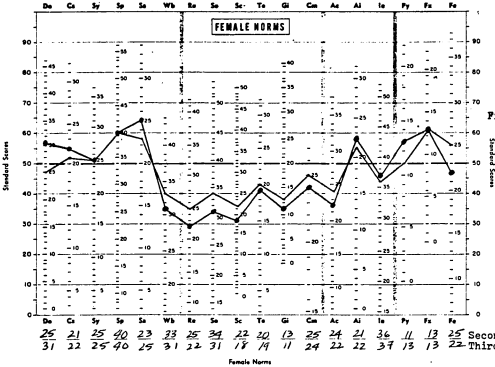

Figure 7. CPI and MMPI PROFILES OF TYPE 4

Second Sample ——

Third Sample ●—●

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Profile and Case Summary

F
Female

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

Starke R. Hathaway and J. Charnley McKinley

Scorer's Initials _____

Name _____

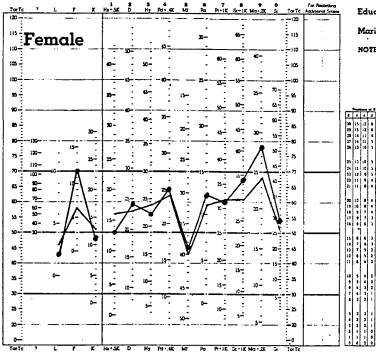
Address _____

Occupation _____ Date Tested _____

Education _____ Age _____

Marital Status _____ Referred by _____

NOTES



Raw Score 3 6 13 16 23 24 24 40 11 32 30 24 26 Second Sample

2 12 11 13 24 22 25 31 12 31 34 28 29 Third Sample

K to be added ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

Raw Score with K ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

Signature _____ Date _____

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limitations in personal insight and understanding, and often will not experience themselves as others do, especially as regards their hostility and aggression. They are too little attentive to the feelings of others. Women of this type will become bored or impatient in situations where direct action is not possible. On the positive side, they are energetic, spontaneous and independent, enjoy attention, and may do well in supervising and directing others.*

Types 5, 6, and 7

No interpretative psychological summaries will be attempted for women assigned to types 5, 6, and 7. In the cases of types 5 and 6, a few variables in the test battery did cross-validate, however, these results still do not permit a clear psychological interpretation. In the case of type 7, none of the variables cross-validated. The reader is invited to examine the variables which did achieve significance for the last three types. Although significant variables were identified in the second sample--an encouraging result--firm inferences as to their meaning must await better cross-validational data.

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* It should be noted that highly significant cross-validated results indicate that these women tend to be divorced.

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CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION

A. Issues in Item Selection, and Choice-points in Q-deck Construction for the New Model

The items selected from the preliminary pool (CWA-I) share three statistical properties. They are centrally located on the evaluative continuum ranging from most- to least-characteristic. In addition, the centrally located items were screened to select those with the largest variance. Finally, the selected items were culled to identify a set which were minimally correlated with one another. These steps yielded CWA-II. The statistical criteria for selection of items to be included in CWA-II stem in part from the theoretical model described in Chapter Two. In order to effectively map the personal role conceptions of college women, the instrument employed should be maximally sensitive to empirical differences among self-descriptions. Items which are not centrally located on the evaluative continuum would tend to mask such differences, due to their uniformly "characteristic" or "uncharacteristic" pull. Items which, in addition, were not maximally variable would further dull sensitivity to differences, since they would artificially restrict the range (variance) of

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evaluative response. Items which were correlated with each other lend a statistical, if not conceptual redundancy to the instrument. Since there was a premium on constructing a differentiated instrument, redundancy would effectively limit both coverage of item-content, and potential sensitivity to differences among women's self-descriptions.

Employing the three statistical criteria discussed above represents a critical choice-point in the development of CWA-II. The preliminary item-pool (CWA-I) could have been analyzed in a number of ways to obtain a shorter deck. For example, the CWA-I item pool could have been analyzed for item factors. Items which had the highest loadings on each factor could have been included in CWA-II. This approach would have yielded a deck whose items, at least the ones selected from different factors, would be uncorrelated with one another. However, unless a large number of item-factors are identified, this method of item selection still necessitates choosing considerable numbers of correlated items. That is, if five item-factors are identified, and I wish to construct a 50-item deck, I shall probably want to select 10 items from each factor; the 10 items with the highest loadings. Of course, to the extent that these item-loadings are large, the 10 items will be highly correlated. Thus, this strategy of item selection will yield a

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statistically redundant deck.

Another strategy of item-selection is the rational method. The investigator, or perhaps a panel of informants, nominate the "best bets" from a large pool of items. If there is significant agreement on these nominations, a subset can be selected for the shorter instrument. The difficulty with this method of item-selection lies in the unknown statistical properties of the items. Another problem with the rational method is the introduction of systematic bias in content of item selection. Most especially in the area of sex role conceptions, there is a danger in trusting one's own intuition, or failing this trust, of knowing how to constitute an appropriate panel of informants to select the items. The present author trusted his own intuition enough to write the preliminary item pool.* However, the selection of items for CWA-II was effectively done by 66 college women, describing themselves. Of course, each method of item selection I have discussed has merit, as well as liability. The choice of method is a matter of individual preference, and theoretical approach.

---

* The author wishes to thank Drs. Kenneth H. Craik, Ravenna Matthews Helson, and Harrison G. Gough for their insight and assistance in conceptualizing and phrasing items for CWA-I. Special thanks are due to Dr. Guy E. Swanson, who suggested the rational theme "Positive aspects of the public feminine role" for inclusion in CWA-I.

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B. Typological Analysis

There are many definitions of "type."[1] Often, the conceptual boundaries between constructs such as species, character, and syndrome are blurred together in discussions of typological systems, or other taxonomic approaches to personality. It is not the intent of this study to review the history of the construct of type. However, a brief discussion of the criteria for an acceptable typology in this study is in order here. As stated previously, the starting point for the present typology is the self-report. Specifically, a self-description using CWA-II. Any typology based on CWA-II should possess the following properties:

1. The types derived should be different in the way they describe themselves on CWA-II across all 50 items, in a purely statistical way.
2. The CWA-II item-content of each type should be different, especially at the level averaged most- and least-characteristic items for each type.

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[1] For an illuminating discussion of types and their conceptual meaning for personality theory, see Dahlstrom, 1972.

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3. Non-test relationships (i.e., other kinds of observations) of each type should be different, when contrasted to the sample complement.

Each of these properties deserves some discussion. A statistical measure of differences across types on all items of CWA-II is a quantitative index of a commonsense notion. A typology should be specifiable within some invariant domain of observations. Each item in CWA-II is one such observation. We should expect each type to be different from each other type on the majority of these observations. The multivariate F-ratio reported in Chapter Three of this study is just such a statistical index of differences within the domain of observations. Allied to this purely statistical approach, but conceptually distinct from it, is the most- and least-characteristic item content question for each type. This criterion for a typology involves subjective judgments on the part of the investigator. First, the item content of the averaged, most- and least-characteristic descriptions must be different for each type, but in addition, these averaged descriptions must "hang together" or make sense psychologically. Second, an arbitrary judgment must be made as to how many items may reappear in these averaged descriptions before the typological solution is unacceptable.

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Again, this property of a typology stems from a commonsense idea. Types should not only be metrically different, they should "look" different, that is, they should share some set of identifiable qualities, which no other type, taken as a group, share. The third property, namely, differences in each type's non-test relationships, when compared to the sample complement, is a bit more complex than the first two. The idea of using a sample complement seems simple and sensible. Yet, the new model proposed in Chapter Two makes the sample complement an appropriate comparison group. In a more traditional study of sex role characteristics, the comparison group would have been males. For reasons enumerated in Chapters One and Two, this sort of comparison was not included in the present study. Thus, the domain of comparison remains within the group of biological females in the sample. The question being asked with this comparison is, "How is this group of women (i.e., this type) different from women at large (i.e., the rest of the sample)?" Once again, this property of a typology is derived from a commonsense notion. Specifically, once we have identified a person as a particular type, what else do we know about her? What else can we say about her? If there is little or nothing we know by assigning a person to a type, then its utility is called into question (see especially Gough, 1965). Since

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typological analyses are a compromise between the idiographic and nomothetic approaches to understanding persons, it is well to be able to say some fairly specific things about members of a type, rather than things which are so broad and general as to characterise everyone, and therefore to distinguish no one.

One further issue remains to be discussed. The typology employed in this study is based on the identification of four person-factors in the CWA-II self-descriptions of the second sample. The eight types represent groups of persons with high positive loadings on factor one, high negative loadings on factor one, high positive loadings on factor two, high negative loadings on factor two, and so on. The conceptual implications of a positive loading on a factor dimension are clear. A range of positive factor loadings would indicate stronger to weaker membership in the factor. Another way to state this is to consider positive factor loadings as an index of position along the factor continuum, ranging from high to low. To the extent that the person's index is a large number, approaching 1.00, he is a more representative member of the person factor. Conversely, to the extent that this index is a small number, approaching 0.00, the person is a less representative member of the person factor. However, it is not clear what a high negative loading on a factor indicates.

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One solution to this conceptual problem is to assume that a high negative loading on a factor is an index of factorial oppositeness. But this interpretation requires the assumption that a CWA-II self-description which has a large negative correlation with those assigned to a person factor is not just different, but "opposite" metrically. In other words, the group of persons who receive high positive factor loadings, sort a particular set of CWA-II items as characteristic, and those who receive high negative loadings sort the same set of items as uncharacteristic. This observation supports the factorial oppositeness notion, but only in the case of items where a range of evaluative response is possible on the instrument. Thus, this discussion is limited to high positive and negative person-factor loadings derived from an instrument which permits "opposite" responses along a continuum of evaluation.

C. Cross-validation

1. Implications

Four of the eight types identified by the analyses outlined in Section A of this chapter cross-validated adequately. The cross-validated types are particularly robust since their non-test relationships held up across institutional situations. That is, CWA-II was

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developed on University of California, Berkeley, women undergraduates. The typology derived from CWA-II is based on the self-descriptions of women from College of Marin, Kentfield, California, and from Mills College in Oakland, California. The typology was then cross-validated on undergraduate women at the University of California, Berkeley. The design of this study sets up particularly stringent conditions for cross-validation of the typology. Further, the third (cross-validation) sample (N=54) is approximately half the size of the second sample (N=96). Thus, confidence can be placed in the cross-validated results.

Types 5, 6, 7, and 8 did not cross-validate adequately in this study. It appears that part of the difficulty lies in the sample size employed for cross-validation. If the third sample had been as large as the second, it is possible that more of the types would have cross-validated. The numbers of persons assigned to types 5, 6, 7, and 8 in the third sample (3, 2, 4, and 1) are certainly small. However, further research is required to support this disclaimer.

What appears to be most encouraging is the ability of a brief and simple self-description procedure to tap a fairly rich vein of personological information. In other words, the method used in deriving types from the self-descriptions of women appears to be a powerful one, powerful enough to be predictive of at least

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four distinct types of women cross-situationally.

2. MF Scale Intercorrelations

Table 12 shows the correlation matrix of the 7 MF scales employed with the third sample. While a few of the scales appear to converge, the pattern of correlations demonstrates a number of characteristics noted by Goldberg (1970) and discussed in Chapter One, Section C-1. The values of the correlations are generally low. Scales whose response formats are similar or whose items are similar, seem to be correlated with one another. Of special note in this regard is the negative correlation between the Franck Drawing Completion Test and the male-female scale of the Welsh Figure Preference Test (Allen-Gough revision). Both scales employ graphic (rather than verbal) standard stimuli. In the case of the Franck, the respondent adds something to the stimuli which is scored[1], and in the case of the Welsh the respondent indicates a like-dislike response for the stimuli. Since little research has been done with the Allen-Gough revision of Welsh's MF Scale, and since its reliability is not known, it is difficult to make much out of this result. However, the matrix taken as

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[1] The author wishes to thank Linda Sikorowski. Ms. Sikorowski independently scored the third sample Franck protocols. The Spearman r^2 of the author's and Ms. Sikorowski's independent scoring of the protocols was +.73.

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a whole, seems to support the assertion that MF scales measure different dimensions or aspects of "femininity." It is interesting to note that none of the three MF scales which were employed in both the second the third sample cross-validated with a type.

The results entered in Table 12 show a fairly standard pattern of correlations between the measures of MF (See Shepler, 1951; Barrows and Zuckerman, 1960; and McCarthy, Anthony and Domino, 1970). The Franck does not correlate with other measures of MF, except AGMF. Since AGMF is rarely used in research there is no way to evaluate this result. Generally, the Franck shows non-significant correlations with other MF scales. Shepler (1951) found that the Franck correlated -.02 with SVIB MF and +.15 with MMPI MF (neither significant). McCarthy, Anthony and Domino (1970) found that the Franck correlated +.19 with MMPI MF and -.30 with CPI-Fe (again, neither significant).

It is also generally true that the MF scales for the MMPI, CPI, and SVIB are significantly correlated with one another, even when single-sex samples are used. This pattern can be found in Table 12. However, the correlations of SVIB MF, CPI-Fe and MMPI MF are strikingly low and non-significant.

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CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A. Summary

This study was an attempt to map the sex roles of college women, employing the Q-sort methodology. The choice of the Q-sort method stems from statistical considerations as well as a new model of the sex roles proposed. The new model assumes: 1) that there is more than one kind of "femininity," 2) that these forms of femininity are obscured by employing males as a control group in sex role research and hence by most MF scale studies, and 3) that the sex roles of women can be understood as a finite set of solutions to a dynamic interaction of personally salient needs and personally salient role specifications. The construction of the Q-sort deck employed in this research required writing items of 14 presumptively critical themes in the psychology of women, namely: assertiveness and aggression, biology, dominance, effectiveness and intelligence, fashions and cosmetics, hostility, leisure activities, masochism, motherliness, narcissism, poise and social presence, positive aspects of the public feminine role, sex, and ties to former love objects. An effort was made to write items that would be consonant with the common, everyday manifestations of the themes just listed.

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A preliminary item pool of 138 items based on these 14 themes was developed by the author . This item pool was form I of the College Women's Attitudes Q-sort deck (CWA-I). Sixty-six undergraduate women enrolled in psychology classes at the University of California, Berkeley, described themselves using CWA-I. The item responses were analyzed statistically, and according to stringent criteria; 50 items were selected for form II of CWA. Ninety-six undergraduate women at the College of Marin (Kentfield, California) and Mills College (Oakland, California) described themselves with CWA-II and completed an extensive battery of psychological tests and questionnaires.

The CWA-II self-descriptions of this sample were analyzed by three different methods in order to yield a workable typology. The most workable typology was discovered by using the intracolumnar correlations of the self-descriptions. Eight types were identified and the type vs. complement strategy was used to identify significant relations of test-battery variables for each type. A method was developed to assign new CWA-II self-descriptions to the existing typology.

Then a sample of 54 women enrolled in undergraduate courses at the University of California, Berkeley, described themselves with CWA-II. These women also completed the test battery and in addition completed various MF scales. These new CWA-II descriptions were assigned to

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types and again, the significant relations of test battery variables to the types were tabled, employing the type vs. complement approach. Four of the eight types cross-validated, showing precise, variable by variable correspondances across the two samples. Interpretative psychological summaries were written based on the cross-validated findings. The cross-situational stability of the four validated types indicates that the typology is quite robust. The results of this study indicate that the Q-sort method and the new model are useful and informative ways of understanding the variation in the personal role conceptions of college women.

B. Strategies in the explorations of types

The typology derived in this study is based on self-descriptions. Another approach to mapping role conceptions is to obtain descriptions by others, using the same methods. CWA-II items were purposely written in the third person in order to expedite comparisons between self- and other-generated typologies. For example, research designs which utilize groups of subjects who are acquainted with one another can provide valuable data on the role conceptions which both men and women hold when viewing other women. Once the male form of the role conceptions Q-sort deck is completed, fascinating comparisons of role

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conceptions are possible. Figure 8 shows the typological comparisons possible when both male and female forms of the role conception deck are developed.

Figure 8: Six-fold table of self-other role conception typological comparisons.

	Self descriptions	Descriptions of others	
		Men	Women
Men	typology of men's self-descriptions	typology of men's descriptions of other men	typology of men's descriptions of women
Women	typology of women's self-descriptions	typology of women's descriptions of men	typology of women's descriptions of other women

Once the Q-sort deck addressed to needs is developed, a similar six-fold table of comparisons is possible. In the case of the need deck, these comparisons will be of a different nature, since only one form of the deck is contemplated for use with both sexes. Figure 9 shows the typological comparisons possible when the need deck is developed.

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Figure 9: Six-fold table of self-other need typological comparisons

	Self descriptions	Descriptions of others	
		Men	Women
Men	typology of men's self descriptions	typology of men's descriptions of other men	typology of men's descriptions of women
Women	typology of women's self descriptions	typology of women's descriptions of men	typology of women's descriptions of other women

Since one form of the need deck can be used for both sexes, other comparisons are possible. A man and woman whose need self-description type is the same can be compared with respect to their role conception type. Or two women whose role conception self-description type is the same can be compared with respect to their need type. Obviously, there are numerous comparisons of this kind to be explored.

C. Conclusion

It is time to return to observation and theorizing in the domain of sex roles. The bipolar MF scales used in research on sex roles have been often misunderstood, or worse still, abused. A new model of the sex roles has been outlined in this study and in its first appli-

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cation showed a unique success. This study demonstrates that there is significant variation in the self-descriptions of college women, when the use of male control groups is relinquished. But more important, this variation can be understood and classified into clusters, or types, and in turn, these types show rich and meaningful non-test relationships. The task which remains is sizeable, since the additional instruments (i.e., Q-decks for male role specifications and needs) must be developed and numerous comparisons must be made. New samples must be pursued which represent different ages, occupations, and regions, from the samples tested here. However, the variation hypothesized in the single biological group of women has been demonstrated, and identified by a procedure which takes approximately twenty minutes for the average person to complete. While the psychological content of the groups identified may shift, and new evidence may suggest new types, it is clear that the approach for achieving a classificatory system has shown to possess a convincing degree of statistical robustness.

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APPENDICES

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Appendix I

The College Women's Attitudes Q-sort Deck
Form I -- November 1971

Distribution (N=138): 6, 12, 17, 22, 24, 22, 17, 12, 6

$$r = 1 - \frac{\text{Sum } d^2}{1137}$$

1. Has difficulty telling people what she wants.
2. Finds it hard to get going in the morning.
3. Has enjoyed playful wrestling with men.
4. Is lacking in persistence.
5. Is fashion-minded; knows about the most up-to-date clothes and accessories.
6. Prefers to "make up" soon after a disagreement.
7. Enjoys doing things with groups of men and women.
8. Blames herself for most of her difficulties.
9. Enjoys watching mothers with their babies.
10. Worries quite a lot about her figure.
11. Prefers to have others strike up a conversation with her.
12. Men often mistake her friendliness for sexual interest.
13. Is sensitive to the subtleties of social situations.
14. Is upset when an old boyfriend goes out with another woman.
15. Prefers fabrics with striking, sharply accentuated designs.
16. Is soft-spoken.
17. Is energetic.
18. Speaks her mind in most situations.

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19. Is sometimes surprised by her own indifference to the problems of others.

20. Prefers comfortable, loose-fitting clothes.

21. Rarely holds a grudge.

22. Prefers to lose when playing a game against a man.

23. Feels that the men she knows do not appreciate her.

24. Believes in breast feeding babies.

25. Often looks at her reflection as she passes store-front windows.

26. Is usually nervous before parties or other social gatherings.

27. Has been so busy at times that she has been almost uninterested in sex.

28. Is a just, fair person.

29. Would like to live close to her family.

30. Enjoys paintings of rolling country landscapes.

31. Likes to have others make decisions.

32. Pays little attention to minor complaints or illness, such as colds, headaches, etc.

33. Rarely asks for help from others.

34. Imagines she might make a good detective.

35. Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.

36. Feels at a disadvantage in an argument if she raises her voice.

37. Finds physical exhaustion after active sports pleasureable at times.

38. Prefers men who will not let her "get away with things."

39. Enjoys comforting others who are upset.

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40. Is embarrassed by compliments.

41. Is animated and comic in an attempt to relieve her own uneasiness with others.

42. Suspects men would not be interested in her unless she went to bed with them.

43. Believes that men often ignore people's feelings in their concern for principles and justice.

44. Has nostalgic feelings about love affairs that never worked out.

45. Is confident that her desires will be respected.

46. Feels she is "not herself" when menstruating.

47. Plans ahead.

48. Follows through with projects she plans.

49. Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.

50. Is short-tempered.

51. Regards going out with other women as a last resort.

52. Her relationships with men tend to be stormy.

53. Would begrudge being tied down by children.

54. Is vain.

55. Feels self-conscious when dancing.

56. Is confident that men will find her attractive.

57. Her decisions are usually guided by her likes and dislikes.

58. Is flattered by the attentions of older men.

59. Prefers not to argue with or contradict men.

60. Likes to be pampered when she's sick.

61. Is career-minded.

62. Prefers to work under a deadline.

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63. Seldom wears perfume.

64. Enjoys trading playful insults and banter, especially with men.

65. Is quickly bored by reading.

66. Believes a certain amount of suffering will always be a part of her life.

67. Is accepting of others.

68. Prefers not to discuss her accomplishments and successes.

69. Wishes she had more to way in conversations with new acquaintances.

70. Dislikes women who always seem to be flirting.

71. Dislikes changing anything until she has a chance to think it over.

72. Believes it is wrong to get involved with another woman's man.

73. Feels rejected if others criticize her.

74. Is fearful of pregnancy and child-birth.

75. Enjoys organizing and directing others.

76. Is rarely flustered by the unexpected.

77. Prefers short hair styles to long hair styles.

78. Is convinced that it does her no good to get angry at others.

79. Prefers the company of men.

80. Is loyal, almost to a fault.

81. Becomes irritated with people who demand too much of her time.

82. Can't imagine getting along with as few clothes as some women do.

83. Finds it easy to get others to talk about themselves.

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84. Her sexual needs seem to fluctuate.

85. Believes women usually teach men how to be gentle and tender.

86. Remembers people on their birthdays, anniversaries, and other special occasions.

87. Feels it is important for her to win an argument.

88. Suffers from "hot flashes" and irregularity of body temperature.

89. Tends to keep quiet when people are discussing a problem.

90. Believes that men don't like intelligent and well-informed women.

91. Feels unattractive without facial make-up.

92. Does not conceal her annoyance when others irritate her.

93. Sets aside definite times or days for leisure or relaxation.

94. Her relationships with men seem to have unpredictable ups and downs.

95. Behaves in a genuinely sympathetic way towards most people.

96. Likes to keep up a suntan.

97. Is frank and open.

98. Is comfortable during the times in her life when she has no sexual partners.

99. Takes life's disappointments in stride.

100. Her competitiveness keeps others from getting to know her.

101. Has been preoccupied with the thought of her own death.

102. Has difficulty concentrating; is easily distracted.

103. Believes she has the skills and abilities required for professional work.

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104. Enjoys wearing dressy clothes often.

105. Is often disappointed by others.

106. Prefers not to commit herself to some leisure activity weeks in advance.

107. Has many close women friends.

108. Would prefer to have boy babies rather than girls.

109. Rarely weighs herself.

110. Sometimes regrets having "told too much" about herself to new acquaintances.

111. Is essentially private about sexual experiences; prefers not to discuss them with others.

112. Her appearance often determines how she feels about herself.

113. Is fatalistic; feels that planning ahead is of little value.

114. Is sensitive to bodily changes.

115. Has difficulty making decisions.

116. Feels that men have more social advantages than women.

117. Avoids wearing revealing or provocative clothes.

118. Wishes she had more courage in expressing her anger.

119. Likes to spend her free time by herself.

120. Would stand by a man she loved even if he mistreated her.

121. Does not want to have children.

122. Sometimes enjoys being both desireable and hard-to-get with men.

123. Sometimes lets the telephone ring without answering.

124. Believes men tend to lose interest in a women with whom they have had sexual intercourse.

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125. Enjoys preparing and serving food.

126. Dislikes women who are forward or assertive.

127. Is self-confident and decisive.

128. Is sometimes irritated by her own preoccupations with cosmetics.

129. Would feel restless if she didn't work at least part-time.

130. Would like to adopt a child.

131. Is a tense, anxious person who worries a lot.

132. Finds it easier to discuss intimate problems or experiences with women than with men.

133. Enjoys decorating and furnishing the place she lives in.

134. Is good in athletics.

135. Is a gentle, appreciative person.

136. Most women in her family get along with with men.

137. Worries about possible accident or injury to loved ones or members of her family.

138. Is insightful and perceptive about the inner feelings of children.

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Recording Sheet for the
College Women's Attitudes Q-sort Deck
Form I -- November 1971

Distribution (N=138): 6, 12, 17, 22, 24, 22, 17, 12, 6

N. B. A value of 9 indicates "most characteristic;"
A value of 1 indicates "least characteristic."

$$r = 1 - \frac{\text{Sum } d^2}{1137}$$

1.____	24.____	47.____	70.____	93.____	116.____
2.____	25.____	48.____	71.____	94.____	117.____
3.____	26.____	49.____	72.____	95.____	118.____
4.____	27.____	50.____	73.____	96.____	119.____
5.____	28.____	51.____	74.____	97.____	120.____
6.____	29.____	52.____	75.____	98.____	121.____
7.____	30.____	53.____	76.____	99.____	122.____
8.____	31.____	54.____	77.____	100.____	123.____
9.____	32.____	55.____	78.____	101.____	124.____
10.____	33.____	56.____	79.____	102.____	125.____
11.____	34.____	57.____	80.____	103.____	126.____
12.____	35.____	58.____	81.____	104.____	127.____
13.____	36.____	59.____	82.____	105.____	128.____
14.____	37.____	60.____	83.____	106.____	129.____
15.____	38.____	61.____	84.____	107.____	130.____
16.____	39.____	62.____	85.____	108.____	131.____
17.____	40.____	63.____	86.____	109.____	132.____
18.____	41.____	64.____	87.____	110.____	133.____
19.____	42.____	65.____	88.____	111.____	134.____
20.____	43.____	66.____	89.____	112.____	135.____
21.____	44.____	67.____	90.____	113.____	136.____
22.____	45.____	68.____	91.____	114.____	137.____
23.____	46.____	69.____	92.____	115.____	138.____

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Appendix II

The College Women's Attitudes Q-sort Deck
Form II - March 1972

Distribution (N=50): 3, 6, 9, 14, 9, 6, 3

$$r = 1 - \frac{\text{Sum } d^2}{240}$$

1. Finds it hard to get going in the morning.
2. Worries quite a lot about her figure.
3. Men often mistake her friendliness for sexual interest.
4. Rarely holds a grudge.
5. Is usually nervous before parties or other social gatherings.
6. Has been so busy at times that she has been almost uninterested in sex.
7. Pays little attention to minor complaints or illness, such as colds, headaches, etc.
8. Rarely asks for help from others.
9. Imagines she might make a good detective.
10. Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.
11. Prefers men who will not "let her get away with things."
12. Is animated and comic in an attempt to relieve her own uneasiness with others.
13. Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.
14. Is vain.
15. Feels self-conscious when dancing.
16. Is confident that men will find her attractive.
17. Is flattered by the attentions of older men.
18. Likes to be pampered when she's sick.

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19. Prefers to work under a deadline.

20. Seldom wears perfume.

21. Enjoys trading playful insults and banter, especially with men.

22. Believes a certain amount of suffering will always be a part of her life.

23. Wishes she had more to say in conversations with new acquaintances.

24. Feels rejected if others criticize her.

25. Enjoys organizing and directing others.

26. Is loyal, almost to a fault.

27. Becomes irritated with people who demand too much of her time.

28. Her sexual needs seem to fluctuate.

29. Believes women usually teach men how to be gentle and tender.

30. Tends to keep quiet when people are discussing a problem.

31. Does not conceal her annoyance when others irritate her.

32. Her relationships with men seem to have unpredictable ups and downs.

33. Takes life's disappointments in stride.

34. Has difficulty concentrating; is easily distracted.

35. Is often disappointed by others.

36. Has many close women friends.

37. Would prefer to have boy babies rather than girls.

38. Rarely weighs herself.

39. Sometimes regrets having "told too much" about herself to new acquaintances.

40. Has difficulty making decisions.

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41. Feels that men have more social advantages than women.

42. Avoids wearing revealing or provocative clothes.

43. Wishes she had more courage in expressing her anger.

44. Likes to spend her free time by herself.

45. Sometimes enjoys being both desireable and hard-to-get with men.

46. Dislikes women who are forward or assertive.

47. Is a tense, anxious person who worries a lot.

48. Finds it easier to discuss intimate problems or experiences with women than with men.

49. Is good in athletics.

50. Worries about possible accident or injury to loved ones or members of her family.

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Recording Sheet for the
College Women's Attitudes Q-sort Deck
Form II -- March 1972

Distribution (number of cards per pile):
3, 6, 9, 14, 9, 6, 3

Pile Numbers (1 = "least characteristic")
(4 = "neutral")
(7 = "most characteristic")
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

$$r = 1 - \frac{\text{Sum } d^2}{240}$$

1.____	26.____
2.____	27.____
3.____	28.____
4.____	29.____
5.____	30.____
6.____	31.____
7.____	32.____
8.____	33.____
9.____	34.____
10.____	35.____
11.____	36.____
12.____	37.____
13.____	38.____
14.____	39.____
15.____	40.____
16.____	41.____
17.____	42.____
18.____	43.____
19.____	44.____
20.____	45.____
21.____	46.____
22.____	47.____
23.____	48.____
24.____	49.____
25.____	50.____

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Appendix III

The College Women's Attitudes Q-sort Deck
Form I -- November 1971

Items Grouped by Rational Theme

1. ASSERTIVENESS & AGGRESSION

1. Has difficulty telling people what she wants.

16. Is soft-spoken.

31. Likes to have others make decisions.

45. Is confident that her desires will be respected.

59. Prefers not to argue with or contradict men.

73. Feels rejected if others criticize her.

87. Feels it is important for her to win an argument.

100. Her competitiveness keeps others from getting to know her.

113. Is fatalistic; feels that planning ahead is of little value.

126. Dislikes women who are forward or assertive.

2. BIOLOGY

2. Finds it hard to get going in the morning.

17. Is energetic.

32. Pays little attention to minor complaints or illness, such as colds, headaches, etc.

46. Feels she is "not herself" when menstruating.

60. Likes to be pampered when she's sick.

74. Is fearful of pregnancy and childbirth.

88. Suffers from "hot flashes" and irregularity of body temperatures.

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2. BIOLOGY (cont.)

101. Has been preoccupied with the thought of her own death.

114. Is sensitive to bodily changes.

3. DOMINANCE

3. Has enjoyed playful wrestling with men.

18. Speaks her mind in most situations.

33. Rarely asks for help from others.

47. Plans ahead.

61. Is career-minded.

75. Enjoys organizing and directing others.

89. Tends to keep quiet when people are discussing a problem.

102. Has difficulty concentrating; is easily distracted.

115. Has difficulty making decisions.

127. Is self-confident and decisive.

4. EFFECTIVENESS & INTELLIGENCE

4. Is lacking in persistence.

19. Is sometimes surprised by her own indifference to the problems of others.

34. Imagines she might make a good detective.

48. Follows through with projects she plans.

62. Prefers to work under a dealine.

76. Is rarely flustered by the unexpected.

90. Believes that men don't like intelligent and well-informed women.

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4. EFFECTIVENESS & INTELLIGENCE (cont.)

103. Believes she has the skills and abilities required for professional work.

116. Feels that men have more social advantages than women.

5. FASHIONS & COSMETICS

5. Is fashion-minded; knows about the most up-to-date clothes and accessories.

20. Prefers comfortable, loose-fitting clothes.

35. Uses cosmetics only on special occasions.

49. Removes hair from legs and underarms regularly.

63. Seldom wears perfume.

77. Prefers short hair styles to long hair styles.

91. Feels unattractive with facial makeup.

104. Enjoys wearing dressy clothes often.

117. Avoids wearing revealing or provocative clothes.

128. Is sometimes irritated by her own preoccupations with cosmetics.

6. HOSTILITY

6. Prefers to "make up" soon after a disagreement.

21. Rarely holds a grudge.

36. Feels at a disadvantage in an argument if she raises her voice.

50. Is short-tempered.

64. Enjoys trading playful insults and banter, especially with men.

78. Is convinced that it does her no good to get angry at others.

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6. HOSTILITY (cont.)

92. Does not conceal her annoyance when others irritate her.

105. Is often disappointed by others.

118. Wishes she had more courage in expressing her anger.

7. LEISURE ACTIVITIES

7. Enjoys doing things with groups of men and women.

22. Prefers to lose when playing a game against a man.

37. Finds physical exhaustion after active sports pleasureable at times.

51. Regards going out with other women as a last resort.

65. Is quickly bored by reading.

79. Prefers the company of men.

93. Sets aside definite times or days for leisure or relaxation.

106. Prefers not to commit herself to some leisure activity weeks in advance.

119. Likes to spend her free time by herself.

129. Would feel restless if she didn't work at least part-time.

134. Is good in athletics.

8. MASOCHISM

8. Blames herself for most of her difficulties.

23. Feels that the men she knows do not appreciate her.

38. Prefers men who will not let her "get away with things."

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8. MASOCHISM (cont.)

52. Her relationships with men tend to be stormy.

66. Believes a certain amount of suffering will always be a part of her life.

80. Is loyal, almost to a fault.

94. Her relationships with men seem to have unpredictable ups and downs.

107. Has many close women friends.

120. Would stand by a man she loved even if he mistreated her.

9. MOTHERLINESS

9. Enjoys watching mothers with their babies.

24. Believes in breast feeding babies.

39. Enjoys comforting others who are upset.

53. Would begrudge being tied down by children.

67. Is accepting of others.

81. Becomes irritated with people who demand too much of her time.

95. Behaves in a genuinely sympathetic way towards most people.

108. Would prefer to have boy babies rather than girls.

121. Does not want to have children.

130. Would like to adopt a child.

135. Is a gentle, appreciative person.

137. Worries about possible accident or injury to loved ones or members of her family.

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10. NARCISSISM

10. Worries quite a lot about her figure.

25. Often looks at her reflection as she passes store-front windows.

40. Is embarrassed by compliments.

54. Is vain.

68. Prefers not to discuss her accomplishments and successes.

82. Can't imagine getting along with as few clothes as some women do.

96. Likes to keep up a suntan.

109. Rarely weighs herself.

122. Sometimes enjoys being both desireable and hard-to-get with men.

11. POISE & SOCIAL PRESENCE

11. Prefers to have others strike up a conversation with her.

26. Is usually nervous before parties or other social gatherings.

41. Is animated and comic in an attempt to relieve her own uneasiness with others.

55. Feels self-conscious when dancing.

69. Wishes she had more to say in conversations with new acquaintances.

83. Finds it easy to get others to talk about themselves.

97. Is frank and open.

110. Sometimes regrets having "told too much" about herself to new acquaintances.

123. Sometimes lets the telephone ring without answering.

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11. POISE & SOCIAL PRESENCE (cont.)

131. Is a tense, anxious person who worries a lot.

12. SEX

12. Men often mistake her friendliness for sexual interest.

27. Has been so busy at times that she has been almost uninterested in sex.

42. Suspects men would not be interested in her unless she went to bed with them.

56. Is confident that men will find her attractive.

70. Dislikes women who always seem to be flirting.

84. Her sexual needs seem to fluctuate.

98. Is comfortable during the times in her life when she has no sexual partners.

111. Is essentially private about sexual experiences; prefers not to discuss them with others.

124. Believes men tend to lose interest in a woman with whom they have had sexual intercourse.

132. Finds it easier to discuss intimate problems or experiences with women than with men.

13. POSITIVE ASPECTS OF THE PUBLIC FEMININE ROLE

13. Is sensitive to the subtleties of social situations.

28. Is a just, fair person.

43. Believes that men often ignore people's feelings in their concern for principles and justice.

57. Her decisions are usually guided by her likes and dislikes.

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13. POSITIVE ASPECTS OF THE PUBLIC FEMININE ROLE (cont.)

71. Dislikes changing anything until she has a chance to think it over.

85. Believes women usually teach men how to be gentle and tender.

99. Takes life's disappointments in stride.

112. Her appearance often determines how she feels about herself.

125. Enjoys preparing and serving food.

133. Enjoys decorating and furnishing the place she lives in.

136. Most women in her family get along well with men.

138. Is insightful and perceptive about the inner feelings of children.

14. TIES TO FORMER LOVE OBJECTS

14. Is upset when an old boyfriend goes out with another woman.

29. Would like to live close to her family.

44. Has nostalgic feelings about love affairs that never worked out.

58. Is flattered by the attentions of older men.

72. Believes it is wrong to get involved with another woman's man.

86. Remembers people on their birthdays, anniversaries, and other special occasions.

15. VERBAL TRANSLATIONS OF THE FRANCK

15. Prefers fabrics with striking, sharply accentuated designs.

30. Enjoys paintings of rolling country landscapes.

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Appendix IV

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Appendix IV-A

California Psychological Inventory (CPI)

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough, 1964, 1968) is a personality inventory intended for the description and evaluation of individuals, with emphasis upon interpersonal behavior and dispositions relevant to social interaction. The inventory has been scored for the 18 standard scales of the CPI and in addition for 8 special CPI scales.

1. Dominance (Do)--assesses factors of leadership ability, dominance, persistence, and social initiative.

2. Capacity for Status (Cs)--serves as an index of an individual's capacity for status (rather than of his actual or achieved status); attempts to measure the personological qualities and attributes which underlie and lead to status.

3. Sociability (Sy)--identifies persons of outgoing, sociable, participative temperament.

4. Social Presence (Sp)--assesses factors such as poise, spontaneity, and self-confidence in personal and social interaction.

5. Self-acceptance (Sa)--assesses factors such as sense of personal worth, self-acceptance, and capacity for independent thinking and action.

6. Sense of well-being (Wb)--identifies persons who minimize their worries and complaints, and who are relatively free from anxiety and disillusionment.

7. Responsibility (Re)--identifies persons of conscientious, responsible and dependable disposition and temperament.

8. Socialization (So)--indicates the degree of social maturity, probity and rectitude which the individual has attained.

9. Self-control (Sc)--assesses the degree and adequacy of self-regulation and self-control, and the freedom from impulsivity and self-centeredness.

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California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (cont.)

10. Tolerance (To)--identifies persons with permissive, accepting and non-judgmental social beliefs and attitudes.

11. Good Impression (Gi)--identifies persons capable of creating a favorable impression and who are concerned about how others react to them.

12. Communality (Cm)--indicates the degree to which an individual's reactions and responses correspond to the modal ("common") pattern established for the inventory.

13. Achievement via Conformance (Ac)--identifies those factors of interest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any setting where conformance is a positive behavior.

14. Achievement via Independence (Ai)--identifies those factors of interest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any setting where autonomy and independence are positive behaviors.

15. Intellectual efficiency (Ie)--indicates the degree of personal and intellectual efficiency which the individual has attained.

16. Psychological-mindedness (Py)--measures the degree to which the individual is interested in, and responsive to, the inner needs, motives, feelings, and experiences of others.

17. Flexibility (Fx)--indicates the degree of flexibility and adaptability of a person's thinking and social behavior.

18. Femininity (Fe)--assesses the masculinity or femininity of temperament (high scores more feminine, low scores more masculine).

Special CPI scales:

1. Modernity (My)
2. Socialization (Sn)
3. Femininity (Fy)
4. Medical student scale (Ms)

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California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (cont.)

5. Hogan Empathy Scale (full scale) (Ems)

6. Hogan Empathy Scale (CPI items only) (Em)

7. Anxiety (Anx)

8. Acquiescence (Dicken) (Acq)

9. Dicken's Social Desirability Scale (Dsd)

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) (Dahlstrom and Welsh, 1960) is a personality inventory originally developed for use in psychiatric screening, but over the years has gradually come to be used in many other settings where interest is centered on personal soundness, stability, and similar characteristics.

The 14 standard MMPI scales, plus K-corrected clinical scales, plus 16 special MMPI scales were scored in the present study.

1. L--Lie scale, composed of items which are improbably answered in the scored direction.

2. F--A diverse collection of items, infrequently answered in the scored direction.

3. K--A dispositional scale, with high scores suggesting caution and (perhaps) defensiveness, and low scores indicative of disbelief and disillusionment.

4. Hs--Hypochondriasis (Excessive concern with bodily functions).

5. HsK--The above with K to be added.

6. D--Depression.

7. Hy--Hysteria (more emphasis on ego defenses of repression and denial than on overt conversions).

8. Pd--Psychopathic deviate (asocial traits and character).

9. PdK--The above with K to be added.

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Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (cont.)

10. MMf--Masculinity-femininity.

11. PMf--Masculinity-femininity.

12. Pa--Paranoia (paranoid ideas and feelings).

13. Pt--Psychasthenia (anxieties, worries and unreasonable fears; less emphasis on obsessions and compulsions).

14. PtK--The above with K to be added.

15. Sc--Schizophrenia--(feelings of alienation and detachment; with more extreme scores, feelings of depersonalization).

16. ScK--The above with K to be added.

17. Ma--Hypomania (moderate to severe ego elation, expansiveness, etc.).

18. MaK--The above with K to be added.

19. Si--Social introversion.

20. A--Anxiety.

21. R--Repression.

22. Es--Ego Strength (Barron)

23. Lp--Leadership (Oettell)

24. Sm--Self maintenance (Cuadra)

25. Tma--Taylor manifest anxiety.

26. Sd--Social desirability (Wiggins)

27. Ec3--Ego control 3 (Block)

28. D30--Depression (Dempsey)

29. Bs--Barron soundness.

30. Bcs--Barron Complexity scale.

31. Bo--Barron originality.

32. Oi--Originality (Gough)

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Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (cont.)

33. Ot--Originality total (Gough)

34. Rp--Role playing (McClelland)

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers, 1962) is a personality inventory based upon Carl Jung's (1923) theory of psychological functions and types. Scores are computed for eight functions and four continuous dimensions.

1. Introversion--(I) The preference to work matters out by reflection and consideration, usually attending to concepts and ideas.

2. Extraversion--(E) The preference to work matters out in action, usually attending to people, things, or situations.

3. Sensing--(S) The preference to "take in" the world via the five senses, to be practical, observant, good at remembering and working with facts.

4. Intuition--(N) The preference to "take in" the world as possibilities; tending to value imagination, inspiration, new ideas, and problem-solving.

5. Thinking--(T) The preference to analyze, weigh facts, and "think" that impersonal logic is a surer guide than human likes and dislikes.

6. Feeling--(F) The preference to sympathize, weigh personal values, and "feel" that human likes and dislikes are more important than logic.

7. Judgment--(J) The preference to come to a conclusion, to live in a planned, orderly way, aiming to regulate life and control it.

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Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (cont.)

8. Perception--(P) The preference to understand or be aware, to live in a flexible, receptive, spontaneous way, aiming to adapt to life via understanding.

9. (50+E)--I An index which transforms the E and I scores into a single continuous dimension.

10. (50+S)--N An index which transforms the S and N scores into a single continuous dimension.

11. (50+T)--F An index which transforms the T and F scores into a single continuous dimension.

12. (50+J)--P An index which transforms the J and P scores into a single continuous dimension.

Adjective Check List (ACL)

The Adjective Check List (ACL) (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965) is a 300-item list of adjectives commonly used in everyday life to describe persons. The respondent checks those adjectives which he believes to be self-descriptive. Various clusters and combinations of adjectives have been identified and may be scored as scales. The standard 24 scales of the ACL have been scored, including the 15 Gough-Heilbrun rationally constructed scales based upon Murray's (1938) need-press theoretical system.

The 24 scales are:

1. No. Ckd: Total number of items checked.

2. Df: "Defensiveness," tendency to minimize defects and imperfections.

3. Fav: Number of favorable items checked (75 of the 300 items are defined as "favorable").

4. Unfav: Number of unfavorable items checked (75 of the items are defined as "unfavorable").

5. S-Cfd: Self-confidence cluster.

6. S-Cn: Self-control cluster.

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Adjective Check List (ACL) (cont.)

7. Lab: Lability (changeableness) cluster.

8. Per Adj: Personal adjustment cluster.

9. Ach (achievement): Measures strength of desire to be outstanding in pursuits of socially recognized significance.

10. Dom (dominance): Measures strength of desire to seek and sustain leadership roles in groups or to be influential and controlling in individual relationships.

11. End (endurance): Measures tendency to persist in any task undertaken.

12. Ord (order): Measures the amount of emphasis one places on neatness, organization, and planning in one's activities.

13. Int (intraception): Measures the strength of the desire to understand one's own behavior or the behavior of others.

14. Nur (nurturance): Measures the desire to engage in behaviors which extend material or emotional benefits to others.

15. Aff (affiliation): Measures the desire to seek and sustain numerous personal friendships.

16. Het (heterosexuality): Measures the need to seek the company of and derive emotional satisfaction from interactions with opposite-sexed peers.

17. Exh (exhibition): Measures need to behave in such a way as to elicit the immediate attention of others.

18. Aut (autonomy): Measures the need to act independently of others or of social values and expectations.

19. Agg (aggression): Measures the need to engage in behaviors which attach or hurt others.

20. Cha (change): Measures need for novelty of experience and avoidance of routine.

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21. Suc (succorance): Measures need to solicit sympathy, affection, or emotional support from others.

22. Aba (abasement): Measures need to express feelings of inferiority through self-criticism, guilt, or social impotence.

23. Def (deference): Measures need to seek and sustain subordinate roles in relationship with others.

24. Crs (counseling readiness): Measures the kind of dissatisfaction with current status which predisposes a person to seek counseling and to profit from it.

Social Attitude Scale

The Social Attitude Scale (Rotter, 1966) is a 29-item questionnaire which seeks to measure general expectations about the consequences of social behavior. Persons obtaining high scores on the scale are considered to have an external locus of control and to be more likely to perceive the things that happen to them as beyond their control and, to a certain extent, outside their personal influence. Persons obtaining low scores are considered to have an internal locus of control and to be more likely to perceive the things that happen to them as being a consequence of their own actions and, to a greater extent, within the sphere of their personal influence.

Personal Data Blank (PDB)

The Personal Data Blank (PDB) was designed for this study. This procedure requests the subject's name, age, year in college, major or field of interest, marital status (i.e., single, married, separated, divorced, or remarried), age when married, number of children, their ages, ideal family size (i.e., number of children), and number of children the subject expected to have.

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Appendix IV-B

The Welsh Figure Preference Test (WFPT), Male-Female Scale (MF), and the Allen-Gough Revision of MF (AGMF)

The Welsh Figure Preference Test (WFPT) (Welsh, 1959) consists of 400 blank and white drawings, each of which the subject is asked to decide whether he likes or dislikes. This procedure may be scored for two male-female (MF) scales: Welsh's original MF, and the Allen-Gough revision of Welsh's scale (AGMF). These scales were constructed by empirically selecting drawings which differentiate the preferences of women from those of men. MF consists of 46 drawings and AGMF consists of 28 drawings.

Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB)

The Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Strong, 1959; Campbell, 1966) measures the similarity of a subject's expressed interests with the known interests of persons in a variety of occupations and professions. In the current, revised edition (Men's Form, T-399), it yields scores on 54 occupational and professional scales. In addition, the test yields 13 scores on other aspects of vocational interest and test responses. Of particular interest for this study is SVIB MF II, (58 below) which is to be correlated with other measures of masculinity-femininity in Phase Three. The scales are listed below:

1. dentist
2. osteopath
3. veterinarian
4. physician
5. psychiatrist
6. psychologist
7. biologist
8. architect
9. mathematician
10. physicist
11. chemist
12. engineer
13. production manager
14. army officer

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Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) (cont.)

15. air force officer
16. carpenter
17. forest service man
18. farmer
19. math-science teacher
20. printer
21. policeman
22. personnel director
23. public administrator
24. rehabilitation counselor
25. YMCA staff member
26. social worker
27. social science teacher
28. school superintendent
29. minister
30. librarian
31. artist
32. musician performer
33. music teacher
34. c.p.a. owner
35. senior c.p.a.
36. accountant
37. office worker
38. purchasing agent
39. banker

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Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) (cont.)

40. pharmacist
41. funeral director
42. sales manager
43. real estate salesman
44. life insurance salesman
45. advertising man
46. lawyer
47. author-journalist
48. president-mfg.
49. credit manager
50. Chamber of Commerce executive
51. physical therapist
52. computer programmer
53. business education teacher
54. community recreation administrator
55. Academic Achievement (AACH)
56. Age-Related (AR)
57. Diversity of Interests (DIV)
58. Masculinity-Femininity (MFII)
59. Managerial Orientation (MO)
60. Occupational Introversion-Extroversion (OIE)
61. Occupational Level (OL)
62. Specialization Level (SL)
63. Total Responses (TR)

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Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) (cont.)

64. Unpopular Responses (UNP)

65. Like Percentage (LP)

66. Indifferent Percentage (IP)

67. Dislike Percentage (DP)

The Franck Completion Test (Franck)

The Franck Completion Test (Franck) (Kate Franck, 1954) consists of 36 abstract geometric shapes, including curves, straight lines, and angles. Subjects were instructed that these shapes were incomplete drawings and were asked to complete them in any way they liked. They could add one line or more, completing each drawing in the way that seemed most enjoyable. The shapes included in this test were selected for their ability to differentiate the responsive drawing styles of men from women.

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