Psychological androgyny and attitudes towards women's sex roles.

Marcia Weinberg
University of Windsor

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University of Windsor
School of Social Work

Psychological Androgyny
and
Attitudes Towards Women's Sex Roles

by
Marcia Weinberg, B.A., B.S.W.

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the School of Social Work in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Social Work at the
University of Windsor

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1981
Marcia Weinberg, 1981

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine the limitations of the traditional models of female sex-role identity, and also to examine attitudes towards women's sex-roles. A further purpose was to examine psychological androgyny as a possible alternative to the traditional models of female sex-role identity.

The focus of the study was the examination of the sex-role categories of first year social work students, fourth year social work students, and social work practitioners, and also to test for an association between the sex-role categories, and the Attitude Towards Women's Sex-Roles Score (A.T.W.S.R.) and other variables.

The sample was comprised of 65 social work practitioners who had received either their B.S.W. or M.S.W. degree from the University of Windsor, and 57 first and 32 fourth year social work students who were enrolled in the Social Work program at the University of Windsor.

Subjects completed a standardized questionnaire comprised of demographic questions; the Bem Sex Role Inventory (B.S.R.I.) which measured the sex-role categories, and the Attitude Towards Women's Sex-Roles scale (A.T.W.S.R.).
Although the results were not statistically significant, the percentages suggested possible relationships between sex-role categories and the A.T.W.S.R. score, social work experience, type of social service and marital status.


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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The feminist movement has greatly raised the self-awareness of both women and men. In particular, men and women have become aware of the limitations that traditional sex-roles place on their emotional development and maturity. The purpose of the study is to examine the limitations of traditional models of female sex-role identity, and also to examine attitudes towards women's sex-roles. Psychological androgyny is explored as a possible alternative to the traditional models of female sex-role identity.

The focus of the study was on females, although males were used in the sample in order to explore differences between the sexes. The selection of females as the focus of the study was made for the following reasons: the researcher has particular interest in the psychology of women; she feels that the traditional sex-typing of women has contributed to the inequities that exist in our society for women; and finally, the limitations of time and the study necessitated narrowing the scope of the study.
Rationale for the Study

The researcher has worked in a number of settings in which her attention was drawn to the issues and problems pertaining to women. Her experience in the Children's Aid Society, and in mental health settings, brought to her attention the significant number of women who seek social work intervention. Many of their problems such as poor self-concepts and self-destructive patterns of behavior could be related to traditional female sex-roles.

The writer also felt that stereotypic attitudes existed towards women in general and clients in particular within the social work profession. Subsequently, the writer reviewed literature pertaining to the development of female sex-role identity and attitudes towards women. The writer felt that traditional models of female sex-role identity were inadequate and based on a male model of psychology.

The concept of androgyny was seen as an alternative to the traditional models since it characterizes individuals as being able to express themselves and behave in accordance with the appropriateness of the situation, regardless of their particular sex.
CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to selectively review the literature pertaining to the study, with the intention of providing a theoretical and practical framework in which the methodology and results can be examined.

The first section reviews theories of the development of sex-role identity and gender role identity. The next section reviews the more significant consequences of traditional sex-typing on the development of females. The third section explores the issue of sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions. The next section presents a theoretical framework of androgyny and psychological androgyny. And finally, in the fifth section, the research on psychological androgyny is reviewed.

Theories On The Development
Of Sex Role-Identity

The review of literature on the development of sex-role identity includes the definition of sex-role identity,
gender role identity and also a description of the following theories:

1) Freudian Psychoanalytic Theory
2) Neo-Freudian Theory
3) Gender Schema
4) Socialization

**Sex-Role Identity**

The development of sex-role identity evolves from the interaction between the individual and society.

Sex-role identity is,

The extent to which an individual regards the self as feminine or masculine as defined by sex-roles. (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977, p. 121)

And sex-role is,

The expectations for behavior held for a person on the basis of sex; thus, sex roles are based in ascribed characteristics rather than on achieved status indicators. (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977, p. 289)

Lynn's differentiation of sex-role preference, sex-role adoption and sex-role identity further clarifies the meaning of sex-role identity.

Sex-role preference is a desire to adopt or display sex-role behavior, or the perception of such behavior as preferable or desirable for one's self. Display of the role behavior is called sex-role adoption. (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977, p. 123)

Sex-role identity, preference and adoption are not necessarily congruent with each other; the result of incongruence can be sex-role strain. The degree of
strain is dependent on the degree to which an individual is sex-typed. Sex-typing is "the prescription of different qualities, activities, and behaviors to females and males in the interest of socializing them for adult roles..." (Williams, 1977, p.172).

Sex-typing is based on the traditional characteristics and roles ascribed to femininity and masculinity. Traditionally, masculinity and femininity have been considered to be bipolar and mutually exclusive. In this way, masculinity is the absence of femininity, and femininity is the absence of masculinity (Beere, 1979).

Sex-role identity which is grounded in the traits ascribed to ones sex (either masculine or feminine) is inadequate according to Stoller (1968), and Money and Tucker (1975). According to Stoller, sex should be restricted to biological characteristics. To determine a persons sex, chromosomes, external and internal genital gonads, hormonal state and secondary sex characteristics are considered. Money and Tucker suggest that there are only four biological imperatives that are unalterable: only a male can impregnate a female; only a female can menstruate, gestate and lactate and therefore as long as those four imperatives are allowed for, stereotypes are alterable.
Particular authors have chosen to substitute gender-identity for sex-role identity. Davidson and Kramer Gordon (1979) substituted the term gender role for sex-role in order that social rather than biological aspects are emphasized.

The societal and cultural components of gender identity cannot be underestimated. According to Money and Tucker, cultural stereotypes, including gender stereotypes hold a society together.

Money and Ehrhardt provide the following definitions of gender identity and gender role:

Gender identity: the sameness, unity and persistence of one's individuality as male, female, or ambivalent... as it is experienced in self-awareness and behavior; gender identity is the private expression of gender role and gender role is one public expression of gender identity.

Gender role: everything that a person says or does, to indicate to others or to the self the degree that one is either male, or female, or ambivalent; it includes but is not restricted to sexual arousal and response; gender role is the public expression of gender identity, and gender identity is the private expression of gender role. (Money and Tucker, 1975, p. 9)

Money and Tucker suggest that the critical period for gender identity differentiation coincides with the critical period of learning language, and that there is a vital necessity to have a firm awareness of one's physical sex as opposed to the more superficial aspects of gender.
The best insurance of emotional security we can give them (children) is to help them base their gender schemas firmly in the genital reproductive differences between males and females and to keep the remaining sex-coded behavior patterns in flexible part of their schemas so that the behavior can be recoded or decoded if need be without shaking their sense of identity. (p. 152)

The researcher acknowledges the inherent value in the use of gender identity. Because sex-role identity also takes into account the role of society and culture although not to the extent of gender identity, and because most of the literature on sex-typing and sex-role stereotyping refers to "sex-role identity" the researcher will continue to refer to sex-role identity.

**Freudian Psychoanalytic Theory**

Freudian theory proposes that male sex-role identity takes place as a result of the resolution of the Oedipus Complex. The boy fears castration which stems from his identification with his mother; in order to resolve the conflict and fear, the boy transfers his identification to the father (Freud, 1925, pp. 47-48).

The girls sex-role identity stems from her original penis envy which creates in her a permanent sense of inferiority. The girl rejects her mother as a love object and identifies with the father as love-object. The girl also substitutes her desire for a penis.
(masculine-complex) for the desire for a baby. Her libidinal mode of satisfaction is also transferred from her clitoris to her vagina which serves to further place her in a passive role (Williams, 1977, p. 24).

Freud's model has been strongly criticized by numerous feminists, psychologists and writers (Chesler, 1972; De Beauvoir, 1952; Williams, 1977).

Because of the key role of penis envy, which is based on the anatomical distinction between the sexes, the events which proceed from it - the suppression of the clitoris, the dependence of further sexual satisfaction on penile penetration, the need for a male child as a penis substitute... all seem to rest on a biological base which not only limits the range of possibilities but gives scant recognition to the role of social factors as shaping influences of women's behavior.... Furthermore, at face value the theories clearly deprecate female sexuality and female genitalia. (Williams, 1977, p. 27)

Weisstein (1976) suggests,

The first reason for psychology's failure to understand what people are and how they act is that psychology has looked for inner traits when it should have been looking for a social context; The second reason...is that the theoreticians of personality have generally been clinicians and psychiatrists, and they have never considered it necessary to have evidence in support of their theories. (p. 93)

Menaker (1935) partially supports Freud's theory. She refers to Freud's contributions such as description of the psychic conflict, the emergence of unconscious motivation and its subsequent repression, and the nature of the defense mechanisms. In spite of those insights, she
feels that Freud's viewpoint was very one-sided because he did not consider his conclusions as relative.

This is the Freudian concept of normality... challenged not as a formal generalization, but in its specific content - a content which changes and takes shape in an historic social context. (p. 245)

**Neo-Freudian Theory**

Karen Horney (1926) developed her theory of female psychology within a historical and cultural framework. She refers to Simmel,

Our whole civilization is a masculine civilization. The state, the laws, morality,...is a masculine civilization....Simmel thinks that the reason why it is so difficult to recognize these historical facts is that the very standards by which mankind has estimated the values of male and female nature are "not neutral, arising out of the differences of the sexes, but in themselves essentially masculine"....Like all sciences and all valuations, the psychology of women has hitherto been considered only from the point of view of men. (p. 5)

**Penis Envy**

Horney (1926) suggests that rather than females having penis envy, males might be envious of motherhood and therefore the need to depreciate females might be unconscious.

She refers to primary penis envy which is based on the anatomical differences. However, in adulthood, "primary penis envy...is a secondary formation embodying..."
all that has miscarried in the development toward womanhood" (p. 10).

The Oedipus Complex in the female is resolved through negation of the father as the love object and also recoil of the feminine role altogether. During the child's Oedipal Complex period there is a sexual excitement felt arising from the genital area. Due to the inability to see the vagina, anxiety is increased. Consequently, the girl takes refuge in a fictitious male role.

The economic gain from the flight from womanhood is the repression of the original Oedipus Conflict. The sense of inferiority is easier to deal with than guilt. Within the fictitious male role, her genital anxiety is translated into male terms; the fear of vaginal injury becomes a fantasy of castration. These motives are strongly reinforced and supported by the actual disadvantages that exist in society for women.

The normal outlets available to males for sublimation are not available to females because of their disadvantages in society and outlets are therefore restricted to repression.

In actual fact a girl is exposed from birth onward to the suggestion - inevitable, whether conveyed brutally or delicately - of her inferiority, an experience that constantly stimulates her masculine complex...it has been much harder for
women to achieve any sublimation that would really satisfy their nature, for all the ordinary professions have been filled by men. This again must have exercised an influence upon women's feelings of inferiority. (Horney, 1926, p. 15)

Feminine Masochism

Females have typically been characterized as masochistic, but Horney (1935) suggests that feminine masochism is not inherent in the female nature but is due to social conditioning. The following are causative factors which predispose women to masochism:

1. blocking of outlets for expansiveness and sexuality

2. restriction in the number of children, inasmuch as having and rearing children supplies the women with various gratifying outlets...and this becomes all the more important when having and rearing children is the measuring rod of social evaluation

3. estimation of women as beings who are, on the whole, inferior to men (insofar as it leads to a deterioration of female self-confidence)

4. economic dependence of women on man or on family, inasmuch as it fosters an emotional adaptation in the way of emotional dependence
5. restriction of women to spheres of life that are built chiefly upon emotional bonds, such as family life, religion, or charity work
6. surplus of marriageable women, particularly when marriage offers the principal opportunity for sexual gratification, children and security
7. social recognition... is relevant inasmuch as it favours... emotional dependence on men (p. 29).

These factors are all interrelated; when any one of these exists within a culture complex, certain fixed ideologies regarding the nature of women will eventually be developed and eventually internalized by women. Horney does suggest that certain anatomical factors contribute to female acceptance of a masochistic role. For example, men's greater strength may create an emotional conception of a masochistic female role and also the biological differences in intercourse lend themselves to a personal misrepresentation of masochism.

Horney (1935) summarizes:

The problem of feminine masochism cannot be related to factors inherent in the anatomical - physiological - psychic characteristics of women alone, but must be considered as importantly conditioned by the culture-complex or social organization in which the particular masochistic woman has developed. (p. 31)
Gender Schema Theory

According to Bem (1980),

Schema theory...construes perception as a constructive process wherein "what is perceived" is a product of the interaction between the incoming information and the perceivers pre-existing schema...What gender schema theory proposes...is that the phenomenon of sex-typing derives, in part, from genetic-based schematic processing, from a generalized readiness to process information on the basis of the sex-linked associations that constitute the gender schema. (p. 4)

Gender schema is responsible for a child's organization of associations regarding his/her gender identity and the identity of others. The child also learns how to evaluate his/her own behavior. And since the self-concept is assimilated into the gender schema, the gender schema becomes a prescriptive guide and acts as a motivational force. It is reinforced by culture and acts as a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Studies (Bem, 1980; Kail and Levine, 1976) have indicated that sex-typed individuals organize information around the gender schema and also that sex-typed individuals process information regarding themselves according to gender schema.

Bem suggests that an understanding of gender-schema illucidates the manner in which society is organized and maintained. For example, in elementary school, children are separated according to sex. She further suggests
that maleness and femaleness should be self-evident and that although there are distinctions they should not serve as the schema for organizing all information. Bem (1980) concludes,

The network of associations that constitutes the gender schema ought to become more limited in scope, and that society ought to temper its insistence upon the ubiquitous functional importance of the gender dichotomy...human behaviors and personality attributes should cease to have gender-, and society should stop projecting gender into situations irrelevant to genetilia. (p. 22)

Similarly, Money and Tucker (1975) write,

For our society today, the challenge is to reaffirm the genital and reproductive differences between the sexes as the foundation of the gender stereotypes, to decode into the human stereotype the sex distinctions of the past that have become straightjackets, and to keep the rest of the gender stereotypes flexible enough to meet present and future change. (p. 234)

Socialization

Socialization will be reviewed under the following categories:

1) Definition 3) Contemporary Society
2) Historical Perspective 4) Components of Socialization

Definition

According to Kimmel (1980),

Socialization is the process by which an individual learns to perform various social roles adequately; it is the process by which norms, values, and
expectations are transmitted from one generation to the next. (p. 60)

It is through the process of socialization that sex-role expectations are transmitted and internalized; sex-typing occurs and sex-role identity is developed.

**Historical Perspective**

The historical perspective will be reviewed within the framework of Firestone's reference to Philippe Aries', *Centuries of Childhood: A Social History of Family Life*; and Weitz's reference to Edward Shorter's, *The Making of the Modern Family*.

According to Firestone (1970), the family was a social organization in which women were defined by their childbearing capacity and this philosophy continues today. Firestone cites De Beauvoir,

> The peoples who have remained under the thumb of the goddessmother, those who have retained the matrilineal regime, are also those arrested at a primitive stage of civilization...thus the triumph of the patriarchate was neither a matter of chance nor the result of violent revolution. From humanity's beginnings their biological advantage has enabled the males to affirm their status as sole and sovereign subjects. (p. 72)

The modern nuclear family evolved from the family in the Middle Ages. Up until the Middle Ages, the emphasis was on blood ancestry rather than the conjugal unit, in order that property may be passed on. However, toward the end of the Middle Ages, conjugal marriage and
joint ownership by sons was abolished. The laws of primo-
geniture came into existence and from the medieval family, the present day nuclear family developed.

It was as if a rigid polymorphous body had broken up and had been replaced by a host of little societies, the families, and by a few massive groups, the classes. (Firestone, 1970, p. 85)

The development of classes caused severe cultural changes and also affected the individual and led to the development of "childhood". Childhood was non-existent in the middle-ages. Financial dependence was the only difference between children and adults. Children were considered little adults until the 14th Century with the advent of the bourgeoisie and empirical science. Around the 17th Century, childhood as it is known today developed. This created a strong dependency between child and parent, which had no prior existence. Firestone suggests that at that point the oppression of women and children became intertwined (Firestone, p. 125).

Weitz (1977) notes that injection of sentiment into the mother-child relationship created a historical consequence, as maternalism was not in itself natural or instinctual. Initially the care of children was extremely negligent and abusive, and it was with the development of the nuclear family that romanticism became the bond between husband and wife as opposed to economy and
survival needs. It was romanticism that led to domesticity, which in turn served to isolate the family.

For the first time there was a separation between the family and community. Weitz (1977) states,

When the primary site of labor was the home and surrounding fields (as was the case in pre-industrial society), women were part of the labor force...the change that the rise of the sentiment based nuclear family brought about was to delineate the economic dependence of women on men...and to foster a societal ideology of domesticity and family life that led to the "ideal" of the leisure-class housewife tending the needs of her family...the modern family, then, changed from an economically defined unit comparatively bereft of any emotional ties to a child-centered emotional retreat from the intrusions of the community. (p. 127)

Psychological changes also took place in that the subordinate female role was made into a desired cultural goal. Women were defined in terms of their private role...even if they participated in a public role.

Firestone (1970) views the advent of romanticism within a political framework. By romantic love,

We mean love corrupted by its power context - the sex class system - into a diseased form of love that then in turn reinforces the sex class system.... Romanticism is a cultural tool of male power to keep women from knowing their condition. It is especially needed and therefore strongest - in Western countries with the highest rate of civilization. (pp. 165-168)

Freeman (1976) suggests that the strength of men needed at one time for survival is no longer necessary due to technology. And although intellectual skill is more
necessary than physical strength, the superiority of the male has not ceased.

There is no longer any major reason for maintaining the large sex-role differentiations which it supported... It is the mind, not the body, which must now prevail, and woman's mind is the equal of man's. But our attitudes toward women, and toward the family, have not changed. (pp. 150-151)

Within a technological society, females continue to be bonded to the family and home; what ties the female to the home is the myth of romanticism and the valuation of women as sex objects. (Firestone, 1970)

Contemporary Society

The present day image of women as a sex object has developed from the 1830's when men ceased to be the sex objects. During the Victorian era women were innocent objects; contemporary society requires that women present themselves as sexy.

Men, having tired of innocence, now require women to look sexy.... Women's present state of undress... is not an indication of her own sexiness; it is merely the current way of arousing men, who now like women to look sexually aggressive. But only to look it. A woman must still be innocent of actual sexual aggressiveness. (Stannard, 1971, p. 121)

Society has also become obsessed with beauty which has served to perpetuate the image of women as sex objects, and bases a woman's worth on her appearance. Stannard considers the pre-occupation with beauty a sham and a
form of control by men, the media, and industry which serves to keep women in the role of children.

The cult of beauty in women, which we smile at as though it were one of the culture's harmless follies, is, in fact, an insanity for it is posited on a false view of reality... The obligation to be beautiful is an artificial burden imposed by men on women... Women's mask of beauty is the face of the child, a revelation of the tragic sexual immaturity of both sexes in our culture. (p. 130)

The treatment of women as sex objects is also perceived by Montagu (1953) as being a form of control.

One of the great myths that men have created about women is that women are possessed by sex... this is understandable because women seem to be so much more preoccupied with sex than the male... This is, of course, another significant misinterpretation of the facts, again calculated to prove the inferiority of the female to the male, for what the male fails to realize is that the female's great preoccupation with rendering herself sexually attractive represents nothing more nor less than her attempt to cater to the needs of the male. (p. 56)

Henley and Freeman (1976) provide support for the hypothesis that women are treated as sex objects, unequal and inferior. The process takes place in the following ways:

1. Men are supposed to initiate communication with females.

2. Women are socialized to reveal more of their psychological and physical selves than men. (There is an inverse relationship between disclosure and power).

3. Women are socialized to be more caring (the person with the most interest has the most to risk).
4. Women have less personal space than men which is a way of indicating acceptance of one's place.

5. The language of females is characterized by glancing, and submissive verbal content such as apologies. (pp. 171-179)

The status of women in society is changing at a slow pace. In spite of economic and political changes women continue to be "second class citizens." The next section addresses itself to some of the causative factors.

Fear of Feminization: Dread of Women

Chodorow (1971) refers to Horney in her discussion of men's dread of women. Chodorow suggests that the mother has complete power over the child's needs and satisfactions and therefore the child must repress all of his/her instincts, which leads to anxiety.

Culturally, this means that in general it is important for men to gain power and to insure that the attributes of power and prestige are masculine, or, more precisely, that whatever cultural role accrues to the male is then accorded power and prestige. (p. 185).

She further discusses the dread of women through devaluation of whatever they do. Boys are socialized as youngsters against being feminine, and continue to internalize this fear. Boys are taught to not exhibit
feminine traits such as crying and showing emotions. However, she suggests that this fear is also expressed through the fear of bisexuality.

All this evidence—of cultural institutions that exorcise or attempt to gain control of feminine powers for men; of institutions that provide for the assertion of compulsively masculine behavior; of the threats of bisexuality or femininity to boys and men—suggests that it is not sufficient to attribute the devaluation of female work roles...to know fear of woman's power. Rather it must be attributed to fear of that womanly power which has remained within men—the bisexual components of any man's personality. This is so threatening because in some sense, there is no definition of masculinity, no way for the little boy to know if he has really made it. (1971, p. 189)

Montagu (1953) interprets the fear of women as actually being a reaction formation caused by their envy of women. He refers to women's superiority due to their ability to menstruate, and bear children.

Their envy of women's physiological powers causes them to feel weak and inferior and fear is often added to jealousy. An effective way for men to protect themselves against women, as well as to punish them is to depreciate their capacities by deprecating their status. (pp. 35-36)

**Feminine Fear of Success**

Female fear of success develops as a result of a number of socialization factors, such as the devaluation of the female role in society, lack of role models, and socialization towards being rather than doing, or being expressive rather than instrumental.
Chodorow suggests that in most societies women have a more passive role. Their identities are ascribed, whereas male identity is achieved. The male must always be performing in order to achieve self-esteem. (p. 182)

Research pertaining to the fear of success in women will be discussed in another section, in the review of literature.

Socialization Agents

Family

Norman and Mancuso (1980) argue that the family is the perpetuator of patriarchy.

Patriarchy's chief institution is the family. Women's roles and statuses have historically been defined within this framework. A major function of the family is the socialization of children...In the patriarchial ideal the male is the arbiter of social mores...and values in general.... One narrow role conferred on women, along with their subordinate status, leads inevitably to oppression. (p. 204)

Sex-typing begins as early as the birth of the child. Rubin et al. (1976) examined the process of sex-typing by interviewing parents of newborn babies. Within minutes of the child's birth, parents described their babies according to prescribed sex-roles. The males were described as better co-ordinated, stronger and more alert than the females, and the females were less attentive, more delicate and more awkward than the
Moss (Weitz, 1977) showed that parents interacted with males using more physical contact, although females were more often spoken to by parents.

Research to the contrary was presented by Maccoby (1966) who concluded from her review of literature on differential treatment of children that there was little differentiation, except for dress and discouraging aggressive behavior in boys.

One can only conclude that the research on differentiated treatment of children on the basis of sex is inconclusive.

There is also inconclusive research regarding the impact that the working mother has on the development of female children. Weitzman refers to Hartley who studied girls between the ages of 8 and 11 and found that girls of mothers who worked chose to continue to work after marriage, in such professions as medicine and law. Girls of non-working mothers chose the role of housewife (Weitzman, 1975, p. 204).

Donelson and Gullahorn report that the main effects of maternal employment are less restricted concepts of acceptable behavior for women, including more approval of maternal employment and a higher evaluation of female competence. Vogel et al. (Donelson and Gullahorn, 1970)
found that men and women in college with employed mothers saw cross-sexed traits as positive; females saw women as competent and effective and males saw men as warm and expressive. Contrary research by Kagan and Moss (1962) found that children who had been raised by parents who had not adhered to traditional sex role standards developed traditional sex role identities.

Weitzman (1975) also suggests that social class influences sex-role development in families. Middle-class parents tend to want children of both sex to develop both instrumental and expressive qualities, whereas blue collar families want traditional roles for both males and females.

**Peers**

Throughout high school peers play an important role in socializing girls towards aiming at beauty rather than intelligence. In college, it appears that females are not under the same pressures that they were years ago. Weitzman cites research indicating that in the 70's although college women were more liberated, there was still pressure to conform to traditional roles. However, in the late 70's peer pressure to conform to traditional roles has lessened (Weitzman, pp. 187-191).
Education

Education has frequently been cited as perpetuating sexist and stereotypic values and attitudes towards females (Nickerson, 1978; Schaffer, 1980; Tomeh, 1975; Weitz, 1977).

The representation of females within the teaching profession is very disproportionate. Generally, females dominate the elementary schools, are equally represented with males in high school although they tend to not teach maths and sciences, and are seriously under-represented in college and university.

The disproportionate ratio of females and males within the various levels of the teaching profession is both a reflection of the sex-typing in society and a perpetuator of sex-typing as the females and males act as role models to children and women.

Elementary School

Differential treatment of children according to sex also takes place within public school. Weitz (1977) refers to a study in which grades four and six teachers interacted more with boys in both a positive and negative manner.

Numerous authors (Stoll, 1979; Weitz, 1977; Weitzman, 1975), refer to the sexist nature of reading materials
in public school. In a study of 134 elementary readers, themes were mainly pro-male. In no one book were girls represented as equally as boys (Stoll, 1979).

Weitz (1977) cites a survey in which the ratio of males to females in picture books was 11 to 1, and if animal pictures were included, the ratio was 95 males for 1 female. Weitzman (1975) suggests that representation of women in math and science books is also limited.

And Weitz suggests, that the stereotyping of females in text and reading books is significant as the books serve to channel girls into traditional female professions and also depreciate the role of women.

High School

Stereotyping continues throughout high school primarily through the large number of males teaching sciences, maths and physical education and also the channeling of females into traditional careers.

University

Social Work which is primarily a female profession, is dominated by males in administrative and executive positions in Schools of Social Work.

In M.S.W. degree programs, 50 percent of assistant professors, 42 percent of associate professors, and only 31 percent of full professors are women. In addition, doctorate of social work degree faculties countrywide are almost exclusively male.
In academic, as in agency hierarchies, men hold a far greater share than women of the top positions. (Norman and Mancuso, 1980, p. 4)

In her review of sexism in social work curriculum Schwartz (1977) refers to The Person by T. Lidz, Childhood and Society, by E. Erickson, and N. Ackerman and V. Satir.

In his work on human growth and development, Erickson devoted one paragraph to female adolescent development and 17 pages on male adolescent development. On Lidz, Schwartz writes,

What is striking in his work is that American - stereotypic - female - socialized behavior is seen as the successful resolution of the female adolescent identity crisis. The successful formation of a feminine identity necessitates "accepting the more passive role, limiting self-expression, have her eventual sense of fulfillment rest on husband and child; and gaining satisfaction through their achievements." (p. 172)

Schwartz, contends that Ackerman and Satir, both adhere to the traditional model of the family, wherein the male is the head of the household, and the woman plays a submissive role.

Schwartz recommends,

There are complex problems that social educators need to look at. There is a radical rethinking about the nature of sex roles at this point in our history... What I have tried to do here is make manifest what has been mainly latent; that is, demonstrate that writers, practitioners, and teachers have points of view often unthinkingly assumed about male-female dominance and that these points of view influence their diagnosis and treatment plans. (p. 175)
In a survey of books used by Canadian Universities in their undergraduate child development programs, Woolsey (1977) concluded that sex-role development was not a top priority in developmental psychology. Although the books surveyed were printed prior to 1971, the Canadian Psychological Association (C.P.A.) Task Force on the status of women (1977) concluded that sexism does exist in psychology texts.

The C.P.A. recommended that introductory psychology courses include at least one course on the psychology of women, or a research area such as psychology of sex differences. The C.P.A. also recommended that publishers be encouraged to ensure that all psychology books are free from implicit or explicit sex bias. It also recommended that the number of females in graduate programs be increased and the discrimination against assertive females in programs be decreased.

Woolsey recommended that,

College and university teaching materials should be scrutinized for sexist biases through studies similar to those done on elementary school textbooks. (p. 75)

Conclusions

The development of female sex-role identity has been discussed within the framework of particular
psychological theories, and an analysis of the processes of socialization within a historical and contemporary framework. The review of literature suggests that female sex-role identity is not grounded in the female anatomy; instead it is the result of a complex interaction between society, culture, history and the individual.

In spite of the technological changes in society, there are still stereotypic attitudes towards females which have negative consequences on their development. Weitzman (1975) suggests that females continue to be limited in their life options for two reasons. They lack internal motivation due to lack of positive role models, and there continue to be many areas in life that are not open to females and discrimination continues to exist.

Consequently, in order to continue to effect change regarding the rights and development of women, changes must be made on a micro and macro level of society.

The next section will deal with some of the practical and psychological consequences that traditional sex-typing has had on the development of women.
Consequences Of Traditional Sex-Typing

The possible consequences of traditional sex-role typing on the development of women will be reviewed. The effect of sex-typing will largely be inferred from the studies as they do not demonstrate a direct cause-effect relationship between sex-typing and development. The research will be reviewed under the main headings of:

1) Mental illness (depression, neuroticism, marital status, authoritarianism, alcoholism).
2) Prejudice against females.
3) Sex-role strain.
4) Intellectual and motivational functioning.

Mental Illness

Lipshitz (1978) suggests that women's psychological problems cannot be evaluated using the present perspective of psychology. She takes an historical point of view, in which there has always been an association between femininity and mental illness, in which illness was a result of female moral inferiority. Lipshitz states,

I am suggesting an interpretation of diagnostic and treatment procedures that views the male doctor as in reality interpreting "his" society and its laws to the female members of that society. (p. 104)
Chesler (1972) suggests that mental illness is prevalent among women due to the patriarchal nature of psychiatry and the passive, submissive patient role that women have been conditioned to act out. Chesler uses statistics from the U. S. Department of Health and Welfare, (1966-1968) to show the discrepancy between the diagnostic classification in psychiatric facilities according to sex.

Women are largely represented in categories such as depression and psychosis, whereas men are overly represented in categories such as alcoholism, and personality disorders.

Luce and Wand (1977), examined sex differences in illness based on Statistics Canada data. The findings showed that there is a higher incidence of developmental problems in boys than girls, resulting in institutionalization in psychiatric and mental retardation settings, but during adolescence this is reversed as more girls than boys are admitted to psychiatric settings for the first time. Sex differential patterns among inpatients showed that women were in the majority in psychiatric wards and in homes for the aged. The majority of people in federal psychiatric units and addiction hospitals were men. Luce and Wand concluded that due to the majority of women in treatment facilities there should be an
investigation into treatment and diagnostic biases.

The shift from boys being institutionalized in childhood to adolescent girls being institutionalized is indicative of the possible influence that sex-typing has on behavioral and personality development.

Mundy (1975) proposes that females are unable to express rage and anger as a result of feminine sex-typing; to be openly angry is unfeminine. In order to resolve the conflict, women deny their real feelings and express them indirectly through depression, neurosis, alcoholism or social withdrawal.

She states,

Learning how to covert forms of passive-active behavior are self-destructive...therapy may begin in an office but ends only when a new identity and patterns of relating are established outside the therapy sessions. (p. 213)

Nickerson (1973) suggests that traditional feminine characteristics such as lack of control, dependency, appreciation of looks, and a general need for external validity of self-worth contributes to depression. She draws the linkage through use of Seligman's theory of learned helplessness, which hypothesizes that depressed clients feel they are not in control of either their suffering or pleasure and that depression is reinforced when there are frequent occurrences of uncontrollable events. Since traditional feminine characteristics are
not conducive to personal control, depression is likely. However, if a person learns how to cope with anxiety and frustrations, and develops a sense of mastery and achievement than depression should decrease. (pp. 74-75)

Bart (1970) studied depression in middle aged women and found that depression was not due to hormonal changes but instead was due to lack of meaningful roles and subsequent loss of self-esteem. Women who held traditional female roles experienced depression in greater numbers than women in non-traditional roles. Gore (1972) studied the relationship between sex roles, marital status and mental illness and found that the largest number of women diagnosed as mentally ill were married, and that more single than married men were diagnosed as mentally ill. Gore attributed the inverse results to the inadequate roles of married women and the socialization of men which leads to their dependency on marriage.

Gore's findings are supported by Srole et al. (1962) who reported that more than three times as many married women than single women show severe neurotic symptoms. Luce and Wand (1977) cite statistics to show that 60 percent of women admitted to psychiatric institutions are married, whereas the highest population of men are single.
Anxiety and neuroticism have been frequently cited as characteristics of women (Constantine and Heibrun; 1964; Gall, 1966; Gray, 1957). Constantine and Heibrun (1964) in their study of sex-role adoption, aggression, anxiety and manifest anxiety reported that femininity is associated with greater anxiety for females and males and the feminine sex-typed females and males also display a more latent disposition to respond with greater anxiety to aggression cues. Gall (1969), supports Constantine and Heibruns' findings. The findings of the study showed a relationship between high feminine sex-typed persons of either sex and anxiety, and also high masculinity scores in females were associated with anxiety. Gray (1957), reported that grades six and seven boys who are sex-typed show less anxiety than girls who are sex-typed and attributes the findings to the positively reinforced sex-typed behavior of boys but non-reinforced sex-typed behavior for girls.

Neuroticism has also been associated with traditional sex-typing. LaTorre (1978) reported that high feminine subjects of either sex scored higher in neuroticism than masculine or androgynous subjects of either sex. This is indicative of the association between feminine characteristics and neuroticism. Mayo (1976), reported that a high degree of females are diagnosed as neurotic and
cited studies by Rutter et al., (1970), and Sheppard et al., (1966), that show the high degree of association between neuroticism, girls and women.

Mussen (1962), in a longitudinal study exploring the long term consequences of high and low masculinity, found that high masculinity was associated with self-confidence during adolescence, but in adulthood these same respondents had less self-confidence. Feminine typed men experienced insecurity during adolescence but experienced greater self-confidence in adulthood. Musson attributed the findings to the lack of interpersonal skills that masculine-typed men have as a result of their traditional sex-typed development in adolescence that does not promote interpersonal skills.

A further characteristic associated with mental health is the association between highly authoritarian persons and traditional sex-typing. In Adorno's study on authoritarianism, (1950) subjects who were high on authoritarianism were traditionally sex-typed when scored on masculinity-femininity scales. The results were significant for men, but only indicative of a trend for women.

Finally, in a study on sex-role adjustment and alcoholism in women, Tuohimaa (1980), reported that there was a high association between feminine sex-typed women
and alcoholism, and less of an association between masculine and androgynous women and alcoholism.

**Sex-Role Strain**

Sex-role strain is defined by Garnet and Pleck (1979) as

An intrapsychic process associated with prior psychological adjustment, specifically low self-esteem. We define sex-role strain as resulting from real-ideal discrepancies in sex related characteristics and high salience. (p. 278)

Garnet and Pleck suggest a change in social norms toward androgyny and a reduction in sex-role salience for the reduction of sex-role strain. However, they also caution that highly sex-typed persons will experience disturbance if they do not have a reference group.

Holter (1970) writes that internal role conflict occurs when "the behavior required in role prescription necessitates psychological properties that exceed the individual's capacities." (p. 245)

Holter suggests that the traditional feminine expressive qualities in women are both devalued and ineffective in a society which values instrumental qualities. However, if a woman does exhibit instrumental qualities which will enable her to function more adequately then she will also be considered unfeminine. Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) in a study of college women's real and ideal self found that women's real and ideal self
significantly differ whereas men's real and ideal self were similar. They concluded that women experience conflict due to their desire to be less sex-typed and yet a fear of being unfeminine.

**Prejudice Against Women**

Women have been referred to as an oppressed minority group.

In 1951, Hacker proposed that females constitute a minority group in spite of their statistical characteristics. Hacker refers to Louis Wirth's definition of minority group:

A minority group is any group of people who because of their physical or cultural characteristics, are singled out from the others in the society in which they live for differential and unequal treatment, and who therefore regard themselves as objects of collective discrimination. (p. 156)

According to this definition there are subjective and objective characteristics of a minority group. Objective characteristics include discrimination and denial of full participation in activities. Awareness of discrimination constitutes a subjective characteristic. Frequently, however, individuals are well accommodated to their role as minority group member, or do not have any awareness of discrimination or prejudice against them. For this category of people,
Hacker suggested they have minority group status.

Hacker (1951) proposed that the minority group status of women is similar to the status of Negroes. Although the analogy is not conclusive Hacker suggests that it is viable and worthy of future research. The most significant similarities are:

1) high social visibility: Negroes - skin colour; women - secondary sex characteristics

2) ascribed attributes: Negroes - inferiority; women - emotionally unstable, weak

3) rationalization of status: Negroes - myth of contented Negro; women - myth of contented women in feminine role

4) accommodation attitudes: Negroes - concealment of real feelings, deferential manner; women - flattering manners, feminine wiles

5) discrimination: Negroes - from education to social and professional segregation; women - identical (p. 164).

Women as an oppressed group appears to be a more commonly held view. Referring to the patriarchal nature of society, Montagu (1953) states,

Women must realize that they have been and are living in a patriarchal society, that men have tried to make them as they would have them be, and then convince them that as they have made them
so, it is natural for them to be - inferior to men. (pp. 190-191)

Gersoni-Stavn (1974) compared the feminine character structure with oppressed people. She referred to Allport's characteristics of victimized people such as sensitivity, submissiveness, fantasies of power, desire for self-esteem and identification with the dominant group. Chesler (1972) supports Gersoni-Stavn by citing Thomas Szasz's description of slave psychology.

"The experiences of satisfaction...are inhibited lest they lead to an augmentation of one's burden....The fear of acknowledging satisfaction is a characteristic feature of slave psychology."

Group self-hatred, (Gersoni-Stavn, 1974; Hacker, 1951) is a major characteristic of oppressed groups. There is research that suggests that women are prejudiced against women (Gersoni-Stavn, 1974; Goldberg, 1968; Sherrifs and McKee, 1957). Goldberg (1968) reported that when judging professional articles, identical except for the sex of the author, women consistently rated the male author's article as more valuable, and the authors as more competent. Goldberg concluded,

Women - at least those young women - are prejudiced against female professionals...and will firmly refuse to recognize them as equals of their male colleagues. (p. 30)
In a Replication of Goldberg's study, Pheterson (1971) used middle-aged, non-professional women in his sample: the articles dealt with topics such as marriage and child discipline. Pheterson found that the subjects favoured women and he attributed their responses to their personal characteristics (non-professional) and the nature of the articles.

Pheterson et al. (1971) further investigated under what circumstances women are prejudiced against women. When asked to judge paintings done by men and women, men rated female paintings as more valuable if they had won a prize; if they were only entries in competitions, then male paintings were judged as more valuable.

The work of women in competition is devalued by other women...women cannot expect unbiased evaluations until they prove themselves by award...or other obvious success. Obvious success is perceived differently by some groups than by others...Women were prejudiced against female ideas but not female success. (p. 37)

Gersoni-Stavn (1974) referred to Terman and Tyler's review of literature in which girls were found to have distorted perceptions of themselves, and that even when they did better in school than boys, they considered themselves less intelligent.

Sherrifs and McKee (1957) reported that males valued their traits, whereas females devalued their
traits and emphasized their neuroticism.

The above mentioned studies lend support to the hypothesis that women are prejudiced against women, which is an attribute of both oppressed and minority groups.

**Intellectual and Motivational Functioning**

There is research to suggest that intellectual and motivational functioning is affected by traditional sex-typing. Maccoby (1966) reported that girls score higher than boys in primary school but not in secondary school, and that even though females generally perform better throughout their academic life, they achieve less after graduation.

Horner (1975) proposed that women have a fear of success which inhibits their motivation for achievement and success.

I argued that most women have a motive to avoid success because they expect negative consequences (such as social rejection and/or feelings of being unfeminine) as a result of succeeding... this is not to say that most women "want to fail" or have a "motive to approach failure". (p. 706)

In a study to test the hypothesis that the avoidance of success is greater in females than in males, Horner (1975) had college students complete a story about John or Anne who was at the top of the medical class. Females
were given the Anne story, males the John story. Sixty-five percent of the females were troubled regarding the success of Anne; excellence in women was associated with loss of femininity, social rejection, personal or societal destruction, or a combination of all three. However, only 10 percent of the males showed fear of success. Ninety percent showed very positive reaction to success.

Horner cited a study by Prescott (1971) in which 88 percent of the females and 68 percent of the males showed a fear of success. The increase in male fear of success was attributed to the changing attitudes towards success (Horner, 1975, p. 710). These results were supported by Schwenn (1970) who according to Horner found that females do have a fear of success. The females who did not fear success admitted to having high marks whereas the others reported lower marks than they actually received. Two factors related to the fear of success were parental attitudes and attitudes of male peers toward appropriate sex-role behavior.

Schaffer (1980), refers to Makosky (1972) who investigated the hypothesis that fear of success persons would perform poorly in competitive situations. Makosky found that low fear of success females scored best on an anagram when competing against a man, or where the task
had been labelled masculine; high fear of success females scored highest when competing against a female or when the task was feminine. Makosky concluded that high fear of success does not mean the person is afraid to achieve but is only afraid when the task is inappropriate for their sex, and negative consequences are anticipated.

In a study similar to Horners', Alper (1974) found that if female students were asked to respond to success stories, profession unspecified, then fear of success was only 50 percent. In a study using nursing and liberal arts students, when the profession was nursing, the nursing students scored only 14 percent fear of success, and 80 percent fear of success when the profession was medicine. The liberal arts students scored equally on fear of success for both professions (p. 196).

Again it appears that fear of success is minimized if the behavior or activity is consistent with the sex of the person.

Farmer (1976) suggests six other factors which contribute to differential achievement and career motivation in males and females:

1) reduction in academic self-confidence for girls in college

2) vicarious achievement motivation contributing to women's contentment with traditional career roles
3) home-career conflict in both college and working women.

4) myths about women and work

5) risk taking behavior

6) sex-role orientation (p. 13).

Horner (1975) concludes,

The predominant message seems to be that most highly competent and otherwise achievement motivated young women, when faced with a conflict between their feminine image and expressing their competencies or developing their abilities and interests, adjust their behaviors to their internalized sex-role stereotypes. ... In order to feel or appear more feminine, women, especially those high in fear of success, disguise their abilities and withdraw from the mainstream of thought activism, and achievement in our society. (p. 720)

Conclusions

The studies related to the consequences of traditional sex-typing for females suggest that females lack in many intellectual and emotional strengths due to the impact of feminine sex-role typing and not due to female sexual inferiority.

Sex-Role Stereotyping In The Helping Professions

In the last decade there has been a great deal of literature written on the existence of sex-role stereotyping in the helping professions. This section...
review the literature under the following headings:

1. Definition and significance of sex-role stereotyping.

2) Sex-role stereotyping among three categories:
   a) Social Workers, Psychologists, Psychiatrists
   b) Counsellors
   c) Students

**Definition of Sex-Role Stereotyping**

Allport (1954) defines stereotyping in the following way: "Whether favourable or unfavourable, a stereotype is an exaggerated belief associated with a category. Its function is to justify (naturalize) our conduct in relation to that category (p. 197).

A stereotype is comprised of a category, such as Jew, and fixed ideas about that category. Characteristics of stereotyping include prevention of differentiated thinking about the category or concept, the justification for categorical acceptance or rejection of a group, and the possible existence of realistic qualities being attributed to the category. And finally, stereotyping is not identical to prejudice but it is a rationalization for prejudice.

In regard to women, sex-role stereotyping, whether positive or negative, implies falsified descriptions and
expectations and consequently is a distortion of reality. As indicated by Allport, stereotyping can be favourable. However, society's positive stereotype of women characterizes them as fragile, needing protection and having the entire responsibility of child care. This stereotype has severely restricted the emotional and behavioral development of women. And finally, the suggestion that stereotyping is associated with prejudice is also indicative of its destructive nature.

The implications of sex-role stereotyping for society in general are significant; however, the implications of sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions are critical since the helping professions exist for the amelioration of micro and macro problems.

Psychotherapy is a procedure that helps its recipients to become aware of and understand their feelings, needs and motivations, with an eye toward expanding the range of alternatives that are available to them. Anything that constrains choice is antithetical to good therapy, and sex-role stereotyping, to the extent that it occurs, is a factor that prescribes behaviors for both men and women and thereby reduces both their choices and the possibility that therapy will be helpful to them. (Stricker, 1977, p. 22)

Within the helping professions the issue of sex-role stereotyping has been dealt with most notably by the American Personnel and Guidance Association (A.P.G.A.), Canadian Psychological Association (Report of the Task Force on the Status of Women in Canadian Psychology, 1977)
and the American Psychological Association (1975).

In the last decade the A.P.G.A. has become actively involved in the research and prevention of sex-role stereotyping in the counselling profession and has developed position papers dealing with sexism (Moore and Stricker, 1980).

The A.P.A. established a task force in 1974 to investigate sexism and sex-role stereotyping in psychotherapy as they affect women. Four major categories of therapeutic behavior focused on were:

1) fostering traditional sex roles
2) bias in expectations and devaluation of women
3) sexist use of psychological concepts, and
4) responding to women as sex objects by seducing them (American Psychological Association, 1975, p. 1122).

From these four categories 13 guidelines were developed and established in 1978. And the Canadian Psychological Association established a task force in 1976 to deal with the issues of:

1) the status of women in the discipline of psychology
2) the education and training of women in psychology
3) sex bias and psychological research, and
Germane to this thesis are the recommendations made regarding sex-role stereotyping and sex-role research. Recommendations included methodologically sound research on sex biases and increased experiential and practical awareness of sex-role biases in therapy (Report of The Task Force on the Status of Women in Canadian Psychology, 1976).

Lastly, Norman and Mancuso (1980) investigated sexism and sex-role stereotyping within the mental health professions in general, and social work profession specifically and concluded,

Mental health professionals should be at the vanguard of healthy social change. The systems commitment to the preservation of the patriarchy must be confronted and dissolved... A humanistic society benefits all of its members. (p. 215)

The following section reviews the studies which support the existence of sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions.

Sex-Role Stereotyping Among Social Workers, Psychologists, Psychiatrists

Sherman et al., in review of research on women and psychotherapy, (1980) reviewed 16 studies that investigated sex-role stereotyping of mental health standards, and 14 out of the 16 reported differential mental health standards for women, and male characteristics were more frequently
attributed to mental health than were female characteristics.

The study of Broverman et al. (1970) is the landmark study that precipitated most of the studies on sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions. The study investigated the existence of a double standard of mental health among practitioners. The clinical judgments of the practitioners were based on their evaluation of what traits describe a healthy person, sex unspecified, a healthy female and a healthy male. The results showed that both male and female practitioners view the healthy male, but not the healthy female, as identical with the healthy adult, sex unspecified. Although this study did suggest the existence of differential attitudes regarding sex related characteristics, its results lack some validity because socially desirable traits were equated with being characteristic of mental health and perhaps clinical judgment was not actually being measured.

Neulinger et al. (1968), in their study of how Social Workers, Psychologists and Psychiatrists rate the optimally functioning person, showed that practitioners rate dominance, achievement and autonomy as indicative of mental health in men, and sentience, nurturance and deference as indicative of mental health in women.
The study is significant since it used characteristics associated with mental health rather than socially desirable traits.

Fabrikant (1974) replicated the Broverman et al. study and found that clinicians' attitudes were more liberal than in Broverman's study. However, the words were grouped together for positive and negative values according to societies' standards. Male therapists rated 70 percent of female words as negative and 71 percent of male words as positive. The females scored the words similarly.

In another study (Fabrikant, 1974) clinicians were found to have more liberal attitudes towards women than in the previous study. When comparing the way that therapists viewed themselves and how they were viewed by their own clients, it was found that the clients felt their therapists held stereotypic attitudes towards marital roles, whereas therapists felt that their attitudes were egalitarian.

Miller (1974) reported that clinicians rated a passive bogus female client as better adjusted than a passive male client. Passivity was a goal in therapy for males but not females. The American Psychological Association's recommendations (1975) were based on a study done to elicit descriptions of incidents that were perceived of an indicative of sex-role stereotyping or sex bias.
within the field of psychology. Respondents indicated that there was strong existence of sex-role stereotyping and bias.

Feinblatt and Gold (1975) reported that more girls than boys were referred to a child guidance clinic for being aggressive and defiant. In two other studies they found that parents and graduate students labelled children as disturbed who exhibited sex inappropriate behavior.

Nordyke et al. (1977) criticized the study performed by Reker and Lovaas (1974) in which they sought to normalize a boy's deviant sex-role behavior. The authors reported that the boys behavior included preferences for playing with girls, dependency on his mother, and exaggerated feminine inflection in his speech. Nordyke et al. criticized the ethical implications of the treatment which included rewarding the boy when he played with toy soldiers. They also suggested that the sex-role stereotyping of Rekers and Lovaas should be questioned. The study demonstrated the existence of the growing self-awareness regarding sex-role stereotyping within the field of psychology.

Billingsley (1977) reported that female and male therapists based their clinical judgments on the particular pathology of the client as opposed to the client's sex. Therapists differed in their choice of treatment
goals; female therapists chose more masculine goals for their clients and male therapists chose more feminine goals for their clients. The study did not lend support for the existence of differential treatment according to the client's sex; however, the findings regarding the cross sex treatment goals reflect the changing attitudes of therapists regarding the appropriateness and effectiveness of traditional sex-typed behavior.

In a review of studies done on attitudes of clinicians towards women, Sherman (1980) found that in 5 out of 10 studies males were more conservative in their attitudes than females, and in five of the studies attitudes were very conservative regarding working mothers.

Sherman concluded,

The results of these studies are consistent with those in the Broverman tradition - there is evidence of stereotyping. Most of the studies showed at least some evidence of stereotyping, and many showed evidence that males stereotype more than females. There was also some evidence that older persons and those with a Freudian theoretical orientation have more conservative views. (p. 44)

In an analysis of a survey conducted by LaRoche Laboratories in 1974, Gurman and Razin (1979) reported that the majority of psychiatrists held stereotypic attitudes toward women.

Michalski (1976) reported that the Social Workers in his study held contemporary attitudes toward females
and that females held more contemporary attitudes than males.

Sherman et al. (1978) found that a group of clinicians which included Social Workers also held liberal attitudes toward women. However, over half the clinicians gave incorrect answers to 38 percent of the questions regarding the psychology of women. In commenting on the study Sherman (1980) concluded that attitude scales are not reliable since respondents will tell you what they choose to tell you, and so it might prove more valuable to measure clinicians' knowledge about women. (p. 44)

Fisher et al. (1976) in their study of sex-role stereotyping and sex-role bias among Social Workers reported that therapists did not hold stereotypic attitudes toward women; a positive bias was reported towards women and a negative bias toward men. Daily (1980) replicated the Fisher et al. study and their results indicated that Social Workers did hold stereotypic attitudes and that females held more stereotypic attitudes than males. The contradictory findings were attributed to a number of factors, such as the cultural differences between the two samples.

**Sex-Role Stereotyping Among High School Counsellors**

Thomas and Stewart (1971) reported that female counsellors were more accepting of female students who
had deviant career goals than were male counsellors. And, regardless of the sex of the counsellor, the girls who had the deviant career goals were seen as in need of counselling more than girls with non-deviant career goals.

In a similar study, Pietrofessa and Schlossberg (1970) reported that female and male counsellors in training showed negative bias toward females who chose non-traditional occupations.

Friedersdorf (1969) found that male high school counsellors perceived college bound female students as having a positive attitude toward traditional female occupations and did not consider non-traditional occupations for female students. Female counsellors also expected the girl to choose a traditionally feminine occupation.

The existence of change in attitudes toward women's roles is reported by Engelhard et al. (1976). Over a six year period counsellors attitudes were reported as becoming more liberal. However, the least liberal attitude still existed in the area of the dual role of the working mother. There was no significant difference between the attitudes of males and females. In spite of the existence of change in attitudes, Engelhard et al. demonstrated the existence of conflict regarding working mothers which can possibly be an issue in counselling.
Sex-Role Stereotyping Among Students

Harris and Lucas (1976) in a study similar to Broverman et al., examined the clinical judgements of graduate and undergraduate students. The junior and senior undergraduate student held stereotypic attitudes toward mental health and appeared to have a double standard. However, graduate students judged the healthy female as parallel to the healthy adult, sex unspecified, and yet a healthy male was judged as less masculine than a healthy person or female. Harris and Lucas reported a double standard which possibly reflects the influence of the feminist movement in that females need to develop greater masculine traits, and males need to develop greater feminine traits in order to be healthy.

Maslin and Davis (1974) in a replication of the Broverman et al. study, found that male counsellors-in-training appeared to have more stereotypic attitude towards females which lent a degree of support, although not conclusive, to the suggestion of a double standard of mental health.

Conclusions

The serious implications of sex-role stereotyping have been discussed in light of Allport's description of stereotyping and the various professional associations.
denouncements of sex-role stereotyping within their respective disciplines. The review of literature pertaining to the existence of sex-role stereotyping in the helping professions is conflictual due to the contradictory results and the methodological weaknesses of particular studies. One of the major weaknesses of most of the studies is the use of analogues to study sex-role stereotyping; that is, studies have examined workers' attitudes towards what are socially desirable traits and then inferred that there is a transfer of those attitudes into the therapeutic setting and suggest that workers practice differential treatment on the basis of sex (Stricker, 1977).

Sherman (1980) responds to the suggestion that sex-role stereotypic attitudes within the helping professions do not necessarily adversely affect the outcome of therapy:

This seems to be a reasonable response, until one reflects upon the fact that psychologists generally assume that what people think affects their behavior, albeit not in any one-to-one fashion.... Is it reasonable, then, to expect demonstration of such a relative nuance as that sexist therapy damages women or is not as effective for them as non-sexist therapy? (p. 45)

In spite of the limitations of much of the research, there is the strong indication that sex-role stereotyping does exist in therapy to some degree and that experimental studies are needed in order to measure the existence
and effects of sex-role stereotyping in the diagnostic
and treatment stages of therapy.

Androgyny

Androgyny has been explored within various dis-
ciplines such as Greek philosophy and English literature
and in the last decade has been explored within the
discipline of psychology (Bem, 1975). The review of
literature pertaining to the theoretical framework of
androgyny will include an overview of both the philo-
sophical and psychological theories of androgyny.

Philosophical Framework of Androgyny

Androgyny is derived from the Greek roots andro,
meaning man, and gyn meaning woman. It is the existence
of both masculinity and femininity within the individual.
Masculinity and femininity have been characterized in
different ways such as Parson's instrumentalism and
expressivism and Bakan's agency and communion (Bem,
1975). In its fullest sense, androgyny is "...the freedom
for both sexes to enter wholly into socially desirable
human characteristics and behaviors" (Woolsey, 1977, p.69).

The concept of androgyny dates as far back as
Chinese Taoism. Bazin (1974) writes that Taoism incorporates
the two archetypes of the world which are Yin, the
feminine principle, Yang, the male principle and Tao,
is the middle way, the undivided unity behind Yin and Yang. Yin represents such phenomena as death, darkness, body, and earth, and Yang represents life, light god, the spiritual and heaven. Through the cyclic process of Tao the two polar opposites become a single process. Bazin comments that when the complete interdependence of the two principles within ourselves and the universe takes place then duality is transcended and we are whole (Bazin, 1974, p. 191).

Androgynous characteristics are also discussed in Plato's Symposium. Initially, there were three beings: man, woman and man-woman. Zeus cut each being into two, and man became the homosexual, woman became the lesbian, and man-woman became heterosexual. However, the heterosexual felt a sense of loss and the separate individuals wanted unity.

Agency and communion, refer to masculinity and femininity respectively:

They characterize two fundamental modalities in the existence of living forms, agency for the existence of an organism as an individual and communion for the participation of the individual in some larger organism of which the individual is a part. (Bakan, 1966, pp. 14-15)

Agency is manifested in self-protection, self-assertion, self-expansion, aloneness and the urge to master. Communion is manifested in being open, cooperative, and at one with other organisms.
Although agency and communion are separate entities, Bakan contends,

There is the cultivation of the integration of agency and communion within the male and the female corresponding to the integration of agency and communion between them. (p. 15)

Androgyny does not address itself to sexuality so much as it addresses itself to the wholeness and humaness as a result of the integration of femininity and masculinity.

Curran (1969) proposed a model of Persons in Union which incorporated the concept of androgyny as represented in the Trinity. The truly creative and whole person has a combination of masculine and feminine characteristics which interact with each other:

All contain and transcend the contrasting differences that might be considered masculine and feminine elements and point in the direction of a unity that does not erase but embraces and harmonizes these apparently opposite characteristics. (p. 169)

Mead (1949) stresses the need to recognize the strengths and limitations of sexual differences and to also minimize sex differences and recognize complementation of the differences.

We can build a whole society only by using both the gifts special to each sex and those shared by both sexes—by using the gifts of the whole of humanity. (p. 384)
Mead stresses the need for complementation of differences to the macroscopic level which includes government, science, the arts and religion.

Similarly,
The quest for androgyne will not be easy, but it seems necessary for the personal and social fulfillment of people of both sexes... To cope with environmental, financial, social, and personal changes and to promote effective, meaningful, and compassionate lives, we need people who are competent, flexible, caring and sensitive to both their independence and their interdependence. (Donelson and Gullahorn, 1977, p. 189)

And,
The more of his individual self a man can develop without having to question his masculinity, the more of her individual self a woman can develop without having to question her femininity, the more of a person each can be, and the more fully they can complement and enhance each other. (Money and Tucker, 1975, p. 236)

Bazin (1974) conceptualizes androgyne in the following way:

We must democratize, re-humanize, and reorganize the political, economic and cultural life of the people... In short, the Masculine and the Feminine must unite for the Rebirth of the new human being and the new society. (p. 212)

Psychological Androgyne

According to Bem (1976) psychological androgyne "...denotes the integration of both masculinity and femininity within a single individual" (p. 1016). Bem's conceptualization (1975) also includes the self-concept,
"...a mixed or androgynous self-concept allows an individual to engage freely in both masculine and feminine behaviors" (p. 635).

According to Bem (1977) androgyny implies that it is possible for an individual to be expressive and instrumental, depending on the situational appropriateness of the various modalities. It also implies that the complementary modalities can be blended into one act.

Kaplan (1976) characterizes androgyny as flexibility, having a wide repertoire of behavioral and emotional possibilities, freedom from extreme caricatures of sex-typed behavior that tends to be manifested when one's options are arbitrarily restricted. She stresses that sex-typed traits are not in themselves pathological but the pathology occurs if they are carried to the extremes. She also infers that the exercise of extreme sex-typed traits are due partly to socialization and stereotyped standards forced on women.

Flexibility is also emphasized by Money and Tucker (1975):

For our society today, the challenge is to...decode into the human stereotype the sex distinctions of the past that have become straightjackets, and to keep the rest of the gender stereotypes flexible enough to meet present and future change. (p. 234)

And finally, androgyny in the psychotherapeutic setting can allow the clients to enlarge their self-
definition and to broaden their sense of what is appropriate and acceptable; and in this way psychotherapy becomes a re-socialization process.

In her review of literature on achievement and motivation in women, Farmer (1976) recommends adoption of androgyny in the counselling profession:

Counsellors can encourage girls and women, boys and men to adopt flexible androgynous attitudes toward their sex roles, in opposition to the view that some behaviors and careers are feminine and others are masculine. (p. 14)

**Operational Definition of Androgyny**

Psychological androgyny is not based on the traditional bi-polar model of masculinity-femininity. Instead it is based on the concept that femininity and masculinity are two separate orthogonal dimensions which co-exist within one individual (Hyde and Rosenberg, 1980). This two-dimensional model differs from the bi-polar model in that the bi-polar model presumes that masculinity and femininity are mutually exclusive and the presence of one presupposes the absence of the other.

Bem's operational conception of androgyny is based on the two-dimensional model of masculinity and femininity. According to Constantinople (1973), current tests of femininity and masculinity are inadequate due to the assumption that there is bipolarity in the masculinity
and femininity constructs in spite of the evidence for separate masculinity and femininity dimensions that warrant empirical tests of the bipolarity hypothesis, and also that the use of sex differences as the sole criterion for masculinity and femininity is questionable.

Constantinople (1973) further criticizes the traditional bipolar model of femininity - masculinity.

Because society attaches value statements, implicitly or explicitly, to the results of psychological testing, it becomes more important than usual to know what we are in fact measuring. (p. 390)

Beere (1979) criticizes the traditional model of masculinity-femininity and their testing. She suggests that the assumption of bipolarity has led to instruments that yield bipolar traits and interpretation of bipolarity which in turn leads to further bipolar theory.

Given that masculinity and femininity are used to describe a person's sex role preference, adoption, or orientation identity, can a person be simultaneously labeled as masculine and feminine? Older sex-role instruments imply that the answer to this question is "no". Masculinity and femininity were conceptualized as opposite ends of a continuum. If an instrument is constructed to yield only one score then a person cannot possibly score high on both masculinity and femininity, and theoretical formulations derived from data collected using the instrument must conceive of masculinity-femininity as bipolar. Thus, the assumption that masculinity and femininity are bipolar leads to the construction of instruments that treat them as bipolar. This, in turn, leads to theoretical formulations.
that conceive of masculinity and femininity as bipolar. (p. 20)

Beere and Constantinople illuminate the theoretical and practical strengths of Bem's operational definition, and also demonstrate its utility on the basis of the limitations of traditional models of masculinity and femininity.

**Limitations of Psychological Androgyne**

Based on the assumption that traditional feminine sex-typing is restrictive, androgyne appears to be a viable alternative; however, there have been many arguments raised against androgyne as an alternative to the traditional model of sex-role identity.

Androgyne has been criticized by the feminist movement for compromising the needs of women. Secor (1974) claims that women should first get in touch with themselves. It has also been suggested by Kenworthy (1979) that even if an individual is androgynous, since society is based on the feminine-masculine polarization then the individual will experience tremendous conflict. Similarly, Woolsey (1977) suggests that the fear of the feminization of men creates anxiety in men which is based on a cultural dread of women. She refers to boys who are sent for psychiatric treatment because they have deviated from the appropriate sex-role behaviour.
Kaplan (1979) suggests that androgyny presupposes the existence of well developed autonomous traits available for integration. However, this is a falsehood in that some individuals may not have the necessary well developed traits.

And finally, Olehansky et al. (1976) suggest that sex-role transcendence goes beyond androgyny in that it does not rely on the traditional characteristics of masculinity and femininity. Although androgyny denotes the integration of masculinity and femininity it still necessitates a definition of masculinity and femininity and therefore relies on the cultural stereotyped characteristics. According to Olehansky, sex-role transcendence is characterized by a synchronization of situational expectations, personal inclinations and abilities.

Criticisms have been made against the construct validity of the Bem Sex Role Inventory, which is the scale used by Bem to measure androgyny.

Feather (1978) investigated the intercorrelations between scores on each of the scales 60 items, through the use of factor analysis.

First and third year college students and their parents made up the sample. The scale was found to be loaded on the masculine, feminine and neutral scores.
Feather stated that variables in factor analysis should be experimentally independent and therefore the dimensionality of the B.S.R.I. should be unpacked.

Hogan (1977) tested the construct validity of the scale and suggested that responses might be affected by the social desirability phenomenon and that scores did not correlate consistently with those obtained with the symbolic sex-role measure and verbal sex-role scale. Hogan suggested that the scale was reliable but lacked construct validity.

Hardin (1975) reported that androgynous undergraduate Social Science students felt the need for the satisfaction of both affiliative and achievement needs. Masculine subjects rated achievement needs as most important and feminine subjects rated affiliation needs as most important. Hardin suggested that his study provided support for the B.S.R.I.'s construct validity.

Construct validity of the scale was also supported by Olds (1976). Androgynous female and male adults interpreted traditional sex-role constructs as qualities that both females and males need, whereas sex-typed adults defined masculinity and femininity as bipolar opposites.

Conclusions

Androgyny has been examined within a philosophical and theoretical framework. Taking into account its
limitations, androgyny appears to be a viable alternative to the traditional models of sex-role identity.

The next section will review the pertinent research on psychological androgyny.

Research On Psychological Androgyny

The researcher considers flexibility, adaptability and high self-esteem to be characteristic of an integrated and optimally functional person within contemporary society. In light of this, the research pertaining to the association of the above characteristics and androgyny will be reviewed.

Studies investigating attitudes towards women will also be discussed in relation to androgyny and other variables.

Adaptability and Flexibility

Bem (1975) tested the hypothesis that masculine and androgynous subjects express independence when confronted with the pressures to conform. The results indicate that masculine and androgynous subjects conform less than feminine subjects; sex is not a relevant variable.

Bem (1975) tested the hypothesis that feminine and androgynous persons exhibit a stereotypically feminine act such as nurturance. Bem reported that the androgynous subjects showed the most involvement with a kitten; and
surprisingly the feminine subjects were not nurturant when
given the opportunity to play with a kitten.

Bem concluded from the two studies that androgynous
persons are more likely than non-androgynous persons to
display behavioral adaptability.

Bem et al. (1976), explored the sex-role adaptability
of females in terms of expressiveness versus instrumental
traits. This was a follow up study to Bem's 1975 study
on feminine nurturance. When given the chance to interact
with a baby, masculine subjects were the least expressive
and feminine and androgynous subjects were the most
expressive, with sex not being relevant. These results
were supported in the second part of the study which
tested for expressiveness by giving the subjects the
opportunity to listen to a supposedly upset student. The
results were parallel to those in the first part of the
study. Bem concluded that only androgynous males could
express expressiveness and instrumentality; the feminine
male was low in independence and the masculine male was
low in nurturancy. The results were the same for females
in that masculine females were low in expressiveness and
feminine individuals were low in instrumentality.
Androgynous individuals were capable of being both ex-
pressive and nurturant (Bem, 1976).
Maracek (1979) theoretically describes the need for greater flexibility in society. The specific definition of adaptiveness depends on the sociocultural realities with which the individual must cope. Maracek refers to specific realities such as the longer female life span, increasing divorce rates and increasing numbers of women working as reflecting the need for women to be more adaptive and flexible since the traditional bi-polar model of femininity does not allow for flexibility.

Bem and Lenney (1976) tested the hypothesis that sex-typed persons prefer sex-appropriate activities to cross sex-typed activities, even if a financial loss occurs as a result of choosing the sex-appropriate activity. Subjects were given the opportunity to choose from a variety of activities and the results showed that sex-typed individuals preferred sex-appropriate activities and that when forced to perform a cross-sex behavior they experienced discomfort and a loss of self-esteem. Males were less likely to perform cross-sex behavior than females. Androgynous individuals were more likely to perform cross-sex activities and did not experience loss of self-esteem. The results are indicative of the flexibility in androgynous persons and the negative consequences of performing cross-sex behaviors for the sex-typed persons.
Kinsell-Rainey (1976) used the B.S.R.I. to measure androgyny in undergraduate students. Androgynous males scored higher on feminine tasks than did masculine male, lower on masculine tasks than masculine males. Androgynous females scored higher on masculine tasks and lower on feminine tasks than did feminine females. Androgynous females also demonstrated greater self-reliance and expectations of themselves. The results can be interpreted as supporting the hypothesis that androgynous persons are more flexible than sex-typed.

Weitzman (1975) refers to Tobias (1977) who reported that women who were skilled in mathematics and sciences did not score low on all feminine traits but only those that were inappropriate for their self-image, such as passivity; they were aggressive yet also nurturing.

Potter also reported that women scoring high on mathematics abilities scored high in both feminine and masculine traits; particular feminine traits such as dependency and passivity were negatively valued (Weitzman, 1975, p. 205).

Minnigerode (1976) found that women who were sex-typed were externally controlled and those less sex-typed were internally controlled. There was also an association between attitudes towards women and the degree of sex-typing.
Self Esteem

O'Connor et al. (1978) duplicated Spence's study on androgyny and self-esteem. Spence found that in a group of college students, androgynous subjects scored highest in self-esteem followed by masculine, feminine and undifferentiated. O'Connor et al., tested middle class professional males and females reported results similar to those of Spence, however, femininity was correlated with self-esteem in females but not males. Although this study supports the hypothesis that androgyny is indicative of mental health, the results of this study should cautiously be compared with Bem's study. Kelly et al. (1978) suggest that the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) used in the O'Connor et al. study is a different inventory from the B.S.R.I. and that the predictive abilities of the various inventories is decreased.

Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) used the Bell Adjustment Inventory to measure adjustment in female and male college students. It included questions measuring submissiveness, self-security and emotionality. Good adjustment and androgyny and poor adjustment and sex-typing were associated for females but not males.

Wittkind and Olga (1975) tested for the association between self-esteem, sex-typing and attitudes toward the competency of males and females. The sample was com-
prised of Catholic Nuns who were teachers. They were asked to judge the competency of the authors of six professional articles. Half were female, half were male. No association was found between sex-role type and ratings of the articles. High self-esteem subjects rated the competency of all the authors lower than those with low self-esteem. There was a positive association between androgynous subjects and attitudes towards policies advocating the women's liberation movement.

De Fronzo and Boudreau (1979), found that there was an association between masculine males and females and self-esteem, whereas there was no association between feminine males and self-esteem, but feminine females had less self-esteem.

Femininity in males was associated with liberal attitudes towards politics and social issues whereas there was no association with females.

Orlofsky (1977) reported that androgyny was associated with successful identity resolution and high levels of self-esteem in college males and females, whereas feminine sex-typing in females was associated with low self-esteem and identity foreclosure. Masculine males had high levels of self-esteem identity foreclosure and identity achievement. Cross sex-typing in females was associated with high self-esteem but associated with
lower self-esteem in males.

The study indicates that androgyny is associated with self-esteem, but also indicates that feminine sex-typing in males or females is not conducive to self-esteem.

Zeldow (1976) in a comparison of androgyny scores and attitudes toward women, found that females were more liberal than males, and that feminine men were the least liberal, and masculine and androgynous were moderately liberal.

Volgy (1976) investigated the association between assertiveness, sex-roles and attitudes toward women. Housewives, working women and feminists comprised the sample. Feminists were the most assertive, followed by working women and then housewives. The same order existed for attitudes toward women, with feminists scoring the highest.

In a similar study, Jordan Viola et al., (1976) reported that in their study feminists were masculine sex-typed, and working women, housewives and university students were feminine sex-typed. Assuming that feminists hold very positive and equalitarian attitudes toward women, then in this study masculine females had positive attitudes toward women.
Conclusions

The studies reviewed suggest that there is a relationship between androgyny and flexibility, adaptiveness, self-esteem, and attitudes towards women. There is also research to suggest that masculine sex-typed persons score high on most of the above characteristics whereas feminine sex-typed persons score low.

In light of the association between flexibility, adaptiveness, high self-esteem and optimal functioning, further research on the relationship between mental health and androgyny would appear to be warranted.

In their study, Jordan-Viola et al. (1976) concluded, the current research represents an initial attempt to explore the heuristic value of the concept of psychological androgy and may have important implications for a re-evaluation of mental health from an androgynous frame of reference. (p. 870)

Summary and Conclusions

The review of literature has included an outline of traditional theories of sex-role identity, consequences of sex-role typing, the issue of sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions, theoretical framework of androgy and research on psychological androgy. The intention of the review was to provide a theoretical and practical framework within which the present study can be examined.
The most salient features of the review were: the models of sex-role identity development; the detrimental consequence of traditional female sex-role identity; the existence of sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions, and the inherent values of androgyny.
CHAPTER III

Research Methodology

This chapter will discuss the setting of the study, the classification design, the problem formulation, working definitions, population and sample, data collection method, data collection instrument, analysis of the data, and limitations of the study.

Setting Of The Study

The student and social work practitioner populations were chosen from the Windsor–Essex County area.

Windsor is the southern most city in Canada and shares the United States–Canadian border with Detroit, Michigan. Windsor's population is approximately 265,000. It is primarily an industrial city. The manufacturing of automobiles is the most predominant industry.

Essex County is primarily an agricultural area with some industry. Both Windsor and Essex County are highly populated by numerous ethnic groups.

Windsor has a community college, and a university which has an enrollment of approximately 7,000 full-time students. Its School of Social Work offers both a B.S.W. and M.S.W. degree program (Tuchimaa, 1980).
Study Design

According to Tripodi et al's classification system (1969), this study was classified as quantitative-descriptive.

The study must not be classifiable as an experimental study.... The study must include variables which are amenable to measurement and hence, quantitative-descriptions.... Thirdly, the study must have one of the following purposes pertaining to the seeking of knowledge: the testing of hypothesis or the accurate description of quantitative-relations among variables selected for inclusion in the research. (p. 37)

The present study met all of the above-mentioned requisites. The focus of the study was to test various hypotheses, and to describe the relationship between specific variables.

Problem Formulation and Research Hypotheses

The focus of the study was the examination of the sex-role categories of first year social work students, fourth year social work students and social work practitioners, and also to test for an association between the sex-role categories and the Attitude Towards Women's Sex-Role (A.T.W.S.R.) score and other variables.

In order to meet the objectives of the study, the following research hypotheses were developed.
Research Hypotheses

1. There is a difference in the sex-role categories of social work practitioners, first year students and fourth year social work students.

2. There is a difference in sex-role categories according to sex.

3. There is a difference in A.T.W.S.R. scores according to sex.

4. Social work education is associated with sex-role category.

5. There is an association between the sex-role category and A.T.W.S.R. score.

6. Type of social work service is associated with sex-role category.

7. Social work experience is associated with sex-role category.

8. Age and marital status are associated with sex-role category.

Operational Definitions

The following operational definitions were used in the study.

Androgyny. The integration of both masculine and feminine characteristics within an individual (Bem, 1977, p. 196).
Sex-role category. One of the four sex-role classifications derived from the Bem Sex Role Inventory (B.S.R.I.). The classifications included masculine or feminine sex-typed, undifferentiated and androgynous.

Attitude towards women's sex-roles score. The score calculated from the A.T.W.S.R. scale. Scores could range from zero to twelve and attitudes represented ranged from egalitarian to non-egalitarian.

First year social work student. A full-time day student enrolled in the first year introductory course to social work, at the University of Windsor.

Fourth year social work student. A full-time student, enrolled in the B.S.W. program at the University of Windsor and had taken the introductory course in first year, and had also taken the required second and third year courses in his/her second and third years.

Social work education. Refers to one or any combination of the following courses or programs taken at the University of Windsor:

a) introduction to social work course
b) second year social work courses and field placement
c) third year social work and related courses, and field placement
d) fourth year social work and related courses and field placement
e) B.S.W. degree, and
f) M.S.W. degree
Social work experience. Included full and part-time work as a Social Worker or Social Service worker in any one or more of the following areas: direct service, administration, supervision, teaching or direct service and supervision combined. The B.S.W. program field placements were counted as Social Work experience.

Social work practitioner. A person holding either a B.S.W. or M.S.W. from the University of Windsor, working in Windsor-Essex County in at least one of the following areas of Social Work Service: direct service, administration, supervision, teaching, direct service and supervision combined.

Assumptions

Ripple (1960) defines assumption as,

A proposition that is taken as given in the particular investigation. Three major types of assumptions which have different implications in relation to problem formulation are...those concerning values, those concerning variables of a general nature, not particular to the specific investigation, and those concerning variables germane to the subject matter of the particular investigation. (p. 35)

In light of Ripple's definition, the assumptions relevant to the nature and purpose of the study were:

1. Traditional sex-typing of females is detrimental to their overall development and maturity.

2. Sex-role stereotyping in Social Work Practice is non-conducive to the development of a females full potential.
3. Androgyny is a viable theoretical and practical formulation of masculinity and femininity and sex-role identity.

**Sampling Procedure**

The student and Social Work Practitioner samples were chosen from the University of Windsor in order to provide some consistency between social work education and experience which were the two main variables being investigated.

Due to time and cost limitations of the researcher, only those Social Workers working within the Windsor-Essex County area were sampled.

The sampling procedure used was non-probability and purposive sampling.

**Population And Sample**

First year students. The population was the full-time first year students enrolled in the introduction to social work course at the University of Windsor.

Sixty-seven students completed the questionnaire. Questionnaires completed by part-time students were eliminated. The final sample included 57 respondents, or 85% of the total number of questionnaires completed by first year students.
Fourth year students. All full-time fourth year social work students enrolled in the B.S.W. program at the University of Windsor represented the population.

The sample included only those full-time students enrolled in the fourth year of the B.S.W. program who had taken the introduction to social work course in first year, the necessary second year social work course and placement requirements, and who had completed the third year of the program all at the University of Windsor.

Fifty-nine students completed the questionnaire. Part-time, make-up and third year special admission students were eliminated. The final sample included 32 respondents, or 54% of the total number of questionnaires completed by the fourth year students.

Social work practitioners. The population was derived from the University of Windsor B.S.W. and M.S.W. alumni list obtained through the School of Social Work.

The sample included only those graduates who were employed as social work practitioners in Windsor-Essex County. One hundred and eighteen respondents returned the questionnaires. Those who were enrolled part-time in the M.S.W. program as well as those not practicing social work were eliminated from the total sample. The
final sample included 65 respondents or 77% of the total number of questionnaires completed by the practitioners.

**Sampling Procedure Limitations**

The non-probability sampling method reduced the representativeness of the sample. Polansky (1960) states,

> The objective of achieving representativeness is commonly approached by introducing chance, or: luck, into the selection process. (p. 98)

According to Jahoda et al. (1956), "...the sample must possess within reasonable limits of error, the characteristics of the population which it is to represent" (p. 86).

However, a degree of representativeness was possible due to the purposive sampling procedure. Selltiz et al. (1976) state,

> A common strategy of purposive sampling is to pick cases that are judged to be typical of the population in which one is interested, assuming that errors of judgment in the selection will tend to counterbalance each other. (p. 520)

**Data Collection Method**

The questionnaire was completed by the first year students in the four laboratory groups. The attendance was between 90 and 100 percent in each group.

The fourth year students completed the questionnaire during their two research methods class. The
attendance was close to 100 percent in each class. In each of the two groups, only one of the questionnaires was returned incomplete.

The questionnaires were mailed to the practitioners, May 27th, and enclosed was a self-addressed stamped envelope. June 26th, a follow-up letter was sent out to them.

The questionnaires were sent to the practitioners' home address. If unavailable, then it was sent to their place of employment. Addresses and/or places of employment were obtained from the alumni list and were cross-referenced with addresses in the telephone directory and the membership list of the local branch of Ontario Association of Professional Social Workers (O.A.P.S.W.).

Limitations of Data Collection Method

Selltiz et al. state,

The reliability of any measurement procedure consists in estimating how much of the variation in scores is due to transitory influences - in other words, how much of the variation is attributable to chance or random errors. (p. 181)

Random errors are,

Due to those transient aspects of the person, of the situation, of measurement, of the measurement procedure, etc., which are likely to vary by chance from one measurement to the next. (Jahoda et al., 1958, p. 100)
The reliability of the data collection procedure was reduced mainly by four random errors:

1. A portion of the first year students exhibited a lack of seriousness and commitment to the completion of the questionnaires. However, this response is possibly characteristic of first year students in general.

2. The fourth year students appeared to take time analyzing the questionnaire which could be attributed to their involvement in research programs as part of their course requirement.

3. According to Selltiz et al. (1976), "...even under the best of circumstances a sizable proportion of respondents do not return questionnaires" (p. 297). Therefore, the use of mailing questionnaires to the practitioners reduced representativeness and also reliability. Selltiz et al. also suggest that the proportion of return rates are usually low, between 10 to 50 percent. However, the return rate of the practitioners in the present study was 56 percent which would appear to be average.

Factors relating to the return rate were possibly the identification of the respondents with the School of Social Work, the relative briefness of the questionnaire
and the legitimacy of the study. The major factor limiting the return rate was possibly the readily identifiability of respondents due to the small size of the social work community and also the researcher's acquaintance with many of the respondents.

4. The final factor reducing the reliability was the nature of the study. The feminist movement has raised peoples consciousness regarding women and sex roles and respondents sensitive to this, possibly answered favourably in order to not appear to have stereotyped attitudes and values.

Data Collection Instrument

The researcher used a standardized questionnaire comprised of three sections: demographic questions; the B.S.R.I., and the A.T.W.S.R. scale as found in Appendix A. The demographic section for the first year students omitted the questions on social work experience.

The questionnaire was pretested using three third year social work students, three M.S.W. students and three Social Work practitioners. No major changes in the questionnaire were necessitated.
The structured, fixed alternative nature of the questionnaire was a limitation of the instrument due to its restrictiveness; however, the style allowed also for answers to be given within a specific frame of reference and bias due to interpretation by the researcher was reduced (Selltiz et al., 1976).

**Bem Sex Role Inventory (B.S.R.I.)**

The B.S.R.I. is an adjective rating scale which measures psychological androgyny. The B.S.R.I. was developed within a theoretical framework in which femininity and masculinity are two separate orthogonal dimensions co-existing within an individual.

The B.S.R.I. consists of 20 feminine, 20 masculine, and 20 neutral characteristics. Respondents rate themselves on each characteristic, on a scale from one, never or almost never true, to seven, almost or almost always true.

**Scoring Procedure**

A masculinity and femininity score was calculated for each subject. A median masculinity and femininity score were calculated based on the entire sample of males and females combined. Bem and Watson (1976) recommend that there be an equal number of males and females for the calculation of the two median scores and that if necessary, one sex be weighted against the other. Based on these
recommendations, the male sample was weighted by a factor of 3.4 and the female sample was weighted by a factor of one. The feminine median score was 5.80 and the masculine median score was 4.90.

In response to methodological and statistical criticism, Bem altered her original scoring procedure.

Instead of using the t ratio to measure the difference between the masculine and feminine mean scores, the median split technique was used. Its classifications were:

(high masculine, low feminine) above masculine median - below feminine median = masculine sex-typed

(high feminine, low masculine) above feminine median - below masculine median = feminine sex-typed

(low feminine, low masculine) below feminine median - below masculine median = undifferentiated

(high feminine, high masculine) above feminine median - above masculine median = androgynous

Only those scoring high in both feminine and masculine characteristics were classified as androgynous. (Bem, 1977).

Females who were in the feminine category could be considered own or same sex-typed, and those in the masculine category could be considered cross sex-typed. Males in the masculine category were considered same sex-typed, whereas those in the feminine category were cross sex-typed.
Reliability

Tetenbaum tested the internal reliability of the B.S.R.I. For females (n=400), the alpha coefficient was .89 for masculinity and .79 for femininity.

For males (n=171), the respective scores were .89 and .77 (Beere, 1979, p. 106).

Validity

Beere cites studies by Gaudreau, 1977; Hoffman and Fidell, 1977; Shapiro, 1977, which provided evidence of the scale's construct validity.

Earlier studies such as Bem, 1974; Minnigrode, 1976; Deutsch and Gilbert, 1976; and Latoure, Endman and Grossman, 1976, demonstrated the scales reliability (Beere, 1979, p. 106).

The validity is further supported by the congruency between the theoretical construction and its operational definition and scoring. (See Constantinople, 1973, for further references).

Attitudes Towards Women's Sex Roles Scale

The A.T.W.S.R. scale includes 12 statements to which respondents marked either agreement or disagreement with a check. It was comprised from a scale used by Mason and Bumpass (1980) in their study of sex-role attitudes of married women. Of the 17 original statements, nine were used in the present study, along with
three from another scale. The final scale included
statements such as those pertaining to household division
of above, women and work, and child rearing practices.
The scale did not differ from the original scale in
meaning, but the number of statements was reduced and
the order of the statements was slightly altered.

The A.T.W.S.R. score was calculated by totalling
the number of positively marked statements which had a
range of 0 to 12. Scores of 9 and less were in the low
category and those scores of 10, 11 and 12 were in the
high category.

There is no available information on the original
scales reliability and validity.

Analysis Of Data

The study was classified as quantitative-descriptive
and also population-descriptive. Frequency tables were
used for the purpose of describing the characteristics
of the sample and also as a means of organizing the data.
Frequencies, percentages, measures of central tendency
and dispersion were calculated.

Strength of association between variables was the
chi-square test and the Cramers V, and the confidence
level was set at .05.
Major Limitations Of The Study

1. The non-probability sampling procedure reduced the representativeness of the sample thereby reducing the generalizability of the results.

2. The sensitivity of respondents to the nature of the study perhaps biased their responses in a positive way.

3. The validity and reliability of the B.S.R.I. has been questioned by various researchers.

4. The validity and reliability of the A.T.W.S.R. is unknown.

Summary

This chapter dealt with the methodological procedures used in the research study, including the limitations of the procedures.

Next, Chapter IV presents the analysis of the data.
CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis

Introduction

This chapter discusses the analysis of the data, which was obtained through the questionnaire. The chapter is comprised of two sections.

The first section is a description of the sample. The variables described include:

a) Group Identification
   students - first year
   - fourth year
   social work practitioners

b) Sex

c) Age

d) Marital Status

The variables were analyzed according to sex combined, sex and group by sex. They were also analyzed through the use of frequency tables and measures of central tendency. The section concludes with a brief summary of the findings.

The second section discusses the research hypotheses that were outlined in the methodology. The discussion includes an analysis of the relevant variables according
to sex combined, sex and group by sex. Frequency tables and chi-square tests of independence were used to analyze the data. Also included are interpretations of the results through the use of research from the review of literature. The section concludes with a brief summary of the findings.

Description Of Sample

Sex

As shown by Table 1, females comprised 77% of the sample and males comprised 23%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Group Identification

The three groups comprising the sample were first year students, fourth year students and social work practitioners. As shown by Table 2, there were similar percentages of first year students and practitioners (37% and 42% respectively). The percentage of fourth year students was only half as large (21%).
TABLE 2
Group Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Year Students</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Year Students</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioners</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When broken down according to sex, as shown by Table 3, all three groups were comprised mostly of females; in particular, the fourth year students were comprised 94% of females, and 6% of males.

TABLE 3
Group By Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>First Year Students %</th>
<th>Fourth Year Students %</th>
<th>Practitioners %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100 (%)</td>
<td>100 (%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Age

The age range for females was from 19 to 57 years. As shown by Table 4, the largest percentage of females (47%) fell into the 20-24 year interval.

The age range for males was from 19 to 44 years. As shown by Table 4, the largest percentage of males (33%) fell into the 25-29 year interval.

As shown in Table 4, the mean ages for females and males according to groups were almost identical.

Marital Status

As shown by Table 5, the largest percentage of females (70%) was single. The largest percentage of males (48%) was married.

The highest percentages of female and male first year students were single. The highest percentage of female practitioners was single, whereas the highest percentage of male practitioners was married.
TABLE 4
Age By Sex And Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Female First Year Students</th>
<th>Female Fourth Year Students</th>
<th>Practitioners</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N=44</td>
<td>N=116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean=22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean=31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 20</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=12</td>
<td>N=2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean=22</td>
<td>Mean=25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 3 female subjects did not respond.
### TABLE 5
Marital Status
By
Sex and Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>First Year Students</th>
<th>Fourth Year Students</th>
<th>Practitioners</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married (Including Common-law)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=45</td>
<td>N=29</td>
<td>N=44</td>
<td>N=118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>MALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married (Including Common-law)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. One female subject did not respond
Social Work Education

As shown by Table 6, the largest percentage of subjects (37%) had one year of social work education, and the next largest percentage held B.S.W. degrees (25%).

When analyzed according to sex, the percentage of females having four years of social work education was four times greater than males (25% and 6% respectively).

The percentage of males holding M.S.W. degrees and both B.S.W. and M.S.W. degrees was twice as great as females (14%; 17% and 14%; 8% respectively).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Work Education</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>Male %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One Year</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Years</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.S.W.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S.W.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.S.W. and M.S.W.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=119</td>
<td>N=35</td>
<td>N=154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Social Work Experience

When analyzed according to sex, as shown in Table 7, a greater percentage of male subjects had more experience than did female subjects (46% and 21% respectively). This is supported by the mean years of experience for males and females (4.57 and 2.37 respectively).

As shown by Table 8, when analyzed according to sex by group, almost all female and male first and fourth year students had less than four years of experience. This is also supported by the mean years of experience.

A greater percentage of male than female practitioners (76% and 55% respectively) had more experience. This is supported by the mean years of experience for male and female practitioners, (7.28 and 5.79 respectively).

The results should be interpreted with caution as the male sample was low (n=35) compared to the female sample (n=119).

TABLE 7
Social Work Experience
By
Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Females %</th>
<th>Males %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 4</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 +</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=119</td>
<td>N=35</td>
<td>N=154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean=2.37</td>
<td>Mean=4.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 8  
Social Work Experience  
By  
Sex And Group  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>First Year Students</th>
<th>Fourth Year Students</th>
<th>Practitioners</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 +</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=45</td>
<td>N=50</td>
<td>N=44</td>
<td>N=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean=.12</td>
<td>Mean=.75</td>
<td>Mean=5.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>MALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 +</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=12</td>
<td>N=2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean=.08</td>
<td>Mean=.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean=7.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Type of Service

First year students were not included as they did not have field placements.

When analyzed according to sex, as shown by Table 9, the largest percentages of females (67%) and males (47%) were in direct service. The percentage of males in administration (14%) was almost twice as large as females (7%);
and the percentage of males in supervisory positions (14%) was twice as large as females (8%).

As shown by Table 10, when analyzed according to group by sex, practitioners and students of both sexes were in direct service.

Larger percentages of practitioners than students were in most of the non-direct types of service.

Caution should be taken when analyzing the data due to the low frequency of the male sample (n=35) and also due to the number of respondents who marked more than one service area which increased the frequency of responses in each category.

**TABLE 9**

Type Of Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Service</th>
<th>Females %</th>
<th>Males %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct Service</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Service and Supervision</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=86 N=36 N=122^a

^aTotal frequency is greater than 96, since some respondents marked more than one category.
### Table 10

**Type of Service by Sex and Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Service</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Males</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
<td>Practitioners</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
<td>Practitioners</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students %</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Students %</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Service</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Service and Supervision</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=34</td>
<td>N=52</td>
<td>N=86</td>
<td>N=2</td>
<td>N=34</td>
<td>N=36</td>
<td>N=36^a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aTotal frequency is greater than 96, since some respondents marked more than one category.
Agency Settings

First year students were not included as they did not have field placements.

As shown by Table 11, when analyzed according to sex combined, the largest percentage of subjects were in Children's Aid Society settings.

When analyzed according to sex, larger percentages of females than males were in services to the aged, justice and corrections, and education, whereas larger percentages of males than females were in services to the handicapped, children's treatment centres, rest homes, and family services.

Many respondents marked more than one setting which increased the frequency of responses in each category.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency Setting</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Aid Society</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Treatment Centre</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Services</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aged</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health &amp; Rest Homes</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justice &amp; Corrections</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfare</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handicapped</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy/Labour</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Planning</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N=118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Total frequency is greater than 96, since some respondents marked more than one category.*
Summary

Females and males comprised 77% and 23% of the sample respectively. The sample was comprised of three groups which included first year social work students (37%), fourth year social work students (21%), and social work practitioners (42%). All three groups were comprised mostly of females.

The largest percentage of females was between 20 to 24 years old, whereas the largest percentage of males was between 25 to 29 years old. The practitioners were the oldest of the three groups.

Female first and fourth year students were mostly single; female practitioners were equally single and married. Males were largely married, as were most of the male practitioners.

A large proportion of female and male subjects had one year of social work education and a large percentage also held B.S.W. degrees. A greater percentage of females had four years of social work education than did males. Proportionately more males than females held M.S.W., and B.S.W. and M.S.W. degrees combined.

Males had proportionately more years of social work experience than females. Females and males were largely in direct service. However, of the subjects in non-direct service areas, the largest percentage was males. A
greater percentage of practitioners than students were in non-direct service areas.

And lastly, the highest percentage of subjects was in Children's Aid Society settings, while the remaining subjects were unequally distributed throughout the remaining 11 settings.

Analysis Of The Research Hypotheses

The following section is an analysis of the data pertaining to the research hypotheses. The data was analyzed according to sex combined, and by sex. It was analyzed through the use of comparison of mean scores, frequency tables and chi-square tests of independence.

A discussion pertaining to the results of each hypothesis is included, and the section concludes with a brief summary of the results.

Research Hypotheses

1. There is a difference in the sex-role categories of social work practitioners, first year social work students and fourth year social work students.

The differences between the sex-role categories of the three groups were not significant as shown by Table 12. There were minor differences in the percentages between the three groups. The
The highest percentage of first year students, fourth year students and practitioners were in the feminine (37%), androgynous (34%), and masculiné (31%) sex-role categories respectively.

**TABLE 12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>First Year Student %</th>
<th>Fourth Year Student %</th>
<th>Practitioner %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=57</td>
<td>N=32</td>
<td>N=65</td>
<td>N=154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 10.433, df = 6, p = .10
Cramers V = .184

The researcher had expected that a higher percentage of practitioners than students would be in the androgynous category. This was not evident in the present study. One explanation might be the prevalence of masculine values in social work settings due to the large number of males in administrative positions.

Proportionately more fourth year students than practitioners (34% and 21.5% respectively) were in the androgynous category, which might be a result of the
liberal and enlightening atmosphere of the university setting.

2. There is a difference in the sex-role categories according to sex.

There was not a significant difference in the sex-role categories according to sex, as shown by Table 13, however, the chi-square tended towards significance, and according to the percentages, there were some tendencies in the direction of the hypotheses. Proportionately more females (31%) than males (11%) were in the feminine category. The results should be interpreted with caution due to the small male sample (n=35) compared to the female sample (n=119).

Similar results were reported by Bem (1976). Females in her sample were predominately in the feminine category (34%) whereas only 16% of the males were in the feminine category.

As shown by Table 13, there were few differences between the percentages of males (26%) and females (23%) in the masculine category.

The percentage of males in the masculine sex-role category was less than the researcher had expected. Bem (1976) reported that 37% of her male sample was in the masculine category. In the present study, the highest percentage of males (37%) was in the undifferentiated
category. The comparatively high proportion of males in the undifferentiated category compared to the masculine category, could be attributed to the changing values and attitudes regarding traditional male sex-roles.

The percentages of females and males in the androgynous category were 25% and 26% respectively, as shown by Table 13. The researcher had expected that more females would be in the androgynous categories as a result of the changes that females are undergoing in terms of their sex-role identity. Bem (1976) reported that 29% of the females in her sample were in the androgynous category compared to 21% of the males.

The lack of difference between the females and males could possibly be due to the confusion felt by both males and females as a result of changing values, and also the tendency for females to try and emulate masculine values and characteristics rather than androgynous values and characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 13</th>
<th>Sex-Role Category By Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex-Role Category</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=119</td>
<td>N=35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square= 6.890, df = 3, p = .07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramers V = .212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. There is a difference in the A.T.W.S.R. score according to sex.

There was no difference in the A.T.W.S.R. score according to sex, as shown by Table 14.

However, according to percentages, within the high category on the scale, similar proportions of females and males had scores of 10 and 11, but proportionately more females (43%) than males (40%) had scores of 12. Also, slightly less females (11%) than males (14%) had low scores of 9 or less.

The present findings are contrary to those of Michalski (1976), Thomas and Stewart (1971), Zeldow (1976), who found that females held more positive and liberal attitudes toward women than men. However, the present findings are supported by the literature (Broverman et al., 1970; Daily, 1980; Engelhard et al., 1976; Pietrofesa and Schlossberg, 1978) who all found that female students and/or counsellors and Social Workers held just as negative or more negative attitudes towards women than did males in the samples.

Perhaps the explanation for this is the tendency for women to be prejudiced against women (Goldberg, 1968; Pheterson et al., 1978) and also the confusion felt today by many females regarding their feminine sex-roles and identity.
TABLE 14
A.T.W.S.R. Score By Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.T.W.S.R. Score</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>Male %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 +</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 1.036, df = 3, p = .79
Cramers $V = .082$

3. Social Work Education Is Associated with Sex-Role Category.

This hypothesis was partially addressed through hypothesis number one; however, the variable of group identification has been changed to Social Work Education. The new categories include, one year of social work education, four years of social work education, B.S.W. degrees and M.S.W. degrees. The first hypothesis was very general, whereas the present hypothesis is much more specific.
When analyzed according to sex combined, as shown by Table 15, there was no significant association between social work education and sex-role categories, although the chi-square tended towards significance.

TABLE 15

Sex-Role Category By Social Work Education
(Sex Combined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Levels of Social Work Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgyny</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 15.343, df = 9, p = .08
Cramers V = .182

For females, there was no association between social work education and sex-role categories, as shown by Table 16. According to percentages, proportionately more females with one year of social work education (40%)
and those holding B.S.W. degrees (39%) were in the feminine sex-role category. Proportionately more females with four years of education (33%) were in the androgynous category and those holding M.S.W. degrees were predominately in the masculine (37.5%) and undifferentiated categories (31%).

For males, there was also no association between social work education and sex-role categories as shown by Table 16. However, according to the percentages, generally males in all four levels of education were evenly distributed throughout the androgynous, masculine and undifferentiated categories.

Social work education did not appear to have an impact on the sex-role categories of the subjects. For females, however, when analyzing the percentages, there is a slight tendency for those with four years of social work education (20%) and those with an M.S.W. degrees (12.5%) to have the least percentage of subjects in the feminine categories.
TABLE 16  
Sex-Role Category By Social Work Education  
By Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>FEMALES</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One Year</td>
<td>Four Years</td>
<td>BSW</td>
<td>MSW</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>40°</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>12.5°</td>
<td>31°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>20°</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>31°</td>
<td>21°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=45</td>
<td>N=30</td>
<td>N=28</td>
<td>N=16</td>
<td>N=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>10.933</td>
<td>df = 9</td>
<td>p = .28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramers V</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MALES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex-Role Category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramers V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These results are possibly indicative of increased self-awareness which takes place throughout the duration of the B.S.W. program and the M.S.W. program. The high percentage of feminine-sex-typed females holding B.S.W. degrees, is perhaps indicative of a negative effect that social work experience has on one's personal development.

4. There is an association between sex-role category and the A.T.W.S.R. score.

When analyzed by sex combined there was no association between sex-role categories and attitude score as shown by Table 17. According to percentages, the highest percentages of those scoring low on the scale, (9 and less), and those in the high category, (10 and 11), were in the feminine sex-role category. However, the highest percentage scoring (12) was in the androgynous category.

When analyzed by sex, there was no association between females and the A.T.W.S.R. scores, as shown by Table 18. There was also no association between males and attitude scores, as shown by Table 18.
TABLE 17  
Sex-Role Category By A.T.W.S.R. Score  
(Sex Combined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>A.T.W.S.R. Score</th>
<th>9 &amp; Under</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgyry</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=16  N=21  N=44  N=71  N=154

Chi-Square = 12.263, df = 9, p = .19
Cramers $V = .163$

As shown by Table 18, when comparing female and male percentages, it appears that females who scored low (9 & <) were predominately in the feminine sex-role category (54%), and those scoring in the high category (12) were distributed throughout the androgynous, masculine and undifferentiated categories.

Males scoring low were predominately in the masculine category (60%) and those scoring in the high category (12) were distributed throughout the androgynous, masculine and undifferentiated category.

The percentages suggest slightly that those of both sexes who were own sex-typed held less positive
attitudes towards women than did those who were in the other sex-role categories.

Minnigerode (1976) found that androgynous subjects held more positive attitudes towards policies advocating the feminist movement, and Volgy (1976) found that feminists held more positive views towards women than working women and housewives.

Assuming that feminists are less sex-typed than working women and housewives, then Volgy's findings support those of Minnigerode.

In a study very similar to the researchers, Zeldow, (1976) found that feminine males were more conservative in their attitudes towards females than were androgynous and masculine men. And masculine males were no more conservative than androgynous men.

Although the findings of the present study and of Zeldow's study provide contradictory conclusions, it is suggested that androgynous and undifferentiated subjects hold positive attitudes towards women, and that feminine sex-typed male and female subjects, and masculine males tend to hold less positive attitudes toward women.
TABLE 18
Sex-Role Category By A.T.W.S.R. Score
By Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 &amp; Under</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>23 7 24 31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>54 53 32 19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>15 13 26 25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>8 27 18 25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% 100% 100% 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=13 N=15 N=34 N=57 N=119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square = 13.181, df = 9, p = .15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramers V = .192</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>60 16.7 20 21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>40 50 30 36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% 100% 100% 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=5 N=6 N=10 N=14 N=35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square = 6.803, df = 9, p = .65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramers V = .255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Type of Social Work Service Is Associated with Sex-Role Category.

First year students were not included as they do not have field placements.

When analyzed by sex combined, there was no statistically significant association between type of social work service and sex-role category, as shown by Table 19. However, the chi-square result tended towards significant, and the percentages indicate a tendency in the direction of the hypothesis. Those in direct service were evenly distributed between the four sex-role categories whereas those in non-direct service areas were mostly in the masculine category (50%).

When analyzed by sex, for females, there was not a statistically significant association between type of social work service and sex-role category as shown by Table 20. However, according to percentages proportionately more of those in non-direct areas were in the masculine category (50%) whereas proportionately less were in the feminine category (6%).

For males, there was not a statistically significant association as shown by Table 20.
TABLE 19
Sex-Role Category
By
Type Of Social Work Service
(Sex-Combined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Type of Service</th>
<th>Non-Direct Service Other(^a)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct Service</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(\text{Chi-Square} = 7.191, df = 3, p = .06\)

\(\text{Cramers} \; \hat{V} = .274\)

\(^a\)Other includes administration, supervision, teaching and direct service combined with supervision.
TABLE 20  
Sex-Role Category  
By  
Type Of Social Work Service  
(By Sex)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Type Of Service</th>
<th>Direct Service</th>
<th>Other (^a)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=57</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=16</td>
<td>N=73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 6.122, \(df = 3\), \(p = .10\)  
Cramers \(V = .290\)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>(\text{MALES})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=17</td>
<td>N=6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 1.421, \(df = 3\), \(p = .70\)  
Cramers \(V = .249\)  

\(^a\)Other - includes administration, supervision, teaching and direct service combined with supervision.
However, according to percentages, proportionately more males (50%) in non-direct areas were masculine sex-typed and proportionately less were feminine sex-typed (0%).

These results suggest that for females and males, those in non-direct areas are predominately masculine sex-typed and for males those in direct service and non-direct service are least feminine sex-typed. As the literature indicates (Norman and Mancuso, 1980) males tend to dominate administrative and supervisory positions. It is, therefore, likely that females who are in non-direct service areas are those who have competent instrumental skills, and are able to function well within a traditionally masculine setting.

6. There is an Association Between Social Work Experience and Sex-Role Category.

There was no association between social work experience and sex-role categories when analyzed by sex combined, as shown by Table 21. However, the percentages indicate a tendency in the direction of the hypothesis. Those with four years of work experience and less were distributed fairly evenly throughout all four sex-role categories, whereas the highest percentages of those with five years of experience and more were in the androgynous and masculine categories (32% and 27% respectively).
TABLE 21
Sex-Role Category
By
Years Of Social Work Experience
(Sex-Combined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>0 - 4 %</th>
<th>5 + More %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=113, N=41, N=154

Chi-Square = 3.625, df = 3, p = .30
Cramers V = .153

When analyzed according to sex, there was no association between females and social work experience as indicated by Table 21. However, the percentages indicate a tendency in the direction of the hypothesis. Proportionately more females with five years of social work experience were in the masculine category (32%) and proportionately less were in the feminine category (28%) than were those with four years of experience and less (32%).
### TABLE 22
Sex-Role Category
By
Years Of Social Work Experience
(By Sex)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>0 - 4 %</th>
<th>5 + More %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=94</td>
<td>N=25</td>
<td>N=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 1.703, df = 3, p = .63
Cramers V = .120

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=19</td>
<td>N=16</td>
<td>N=35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 4.672, df = 3, p = .25
Cramers V = .341
For males, although the association between sex-role category and experience was not significant, as shown by Table 22, the percentages indicate a tendency in the direction of the hypothesis. Those with less experience were mostly in the undifferentiated category (27%) and those with more experience were almost equally in the undifferentiated (38%) and masculine (31%) categories.

Comparing females and males, proportionately more females and males were in the masculine category, and proportionately less were in the feminine category with increased social work experience.

According to the percentages, although not statistically significant, increased social work experience appears to be somewhat related with those in the masculine sex-role category for both males and females. One explanation might be that as females gain more experience they become more self-confident and therefore develop greater instrumental skills. However, it also suggests that increased experience does tend to "masculinize" workers as opposed to increasing their degree of androgyny.

7. Age and Marital Status Are Associated With Sex-Role Categories.

a) Age Is Associated With Sex-Role Category.

There is no association between age and sex-role category as shown by Table 23.
The percentage of subjects in each age category were fairly evenly distributed throughout the four sex-role categories, except in the 19 years and less interval where there was a low proportion in the masculine category (11%).

As shown by Table 24, there was no association between age and sex-role categories when analyzed by sex. The percentages, however, indicate that a high proportion of females in the 25 year and older interval were in the feminine and masculine categories (36% and 24% respectively), whereas high proportions of males in the same interval were in the masculine and undifferentiated categories (32% and 36% respectively).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>19 &amp; Less %</th>
<th>20-24 %</th>
<th>25 &amp; Over %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 2.226, df = 6, p = .89
Cramers V = .086

Note. 3 subjects did not respond to question.
### TABLE 24

**Sex-Role Category By Age**

(By Sex)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>19 &amp; Less %</th>
<th>20-24 %</th>
<th>25 &amp; Over %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMALES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=16</td>
<td>N=55</td>
<td>N=45</td>
<td>N=116</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 2.258, df = 6, P = .89
Cramers V = .099

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>19 &amp; Less %</th>
<th>20-24 %</th>
<th>25 &amp; Over %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MALES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=2</td>
<td>N=8</td>
<td>N=25</td>
<td>N=35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 7.206, df = 6, P = .30
Cramers V = .321

Note. 3 female subjects did not respond to question.
The researcher had expected that older subjects would have a higher percentage of androgynous subjects and smaller percentages of own sex-typed subjects. However, the results suggested that age was not associated with sex-role categories. There is nothing in the review of literature to suggest why there was no association.

b) Marital Status Is Associated With Sex-Role Category.

There was no association between marital status and sex-role category when analyzed according to sex-combined as shown by Table 25.

Upon interpreting the percentages, subjects in all three marital status categories were mostly distributed evenly between all four sex-role categories, except in the other category, where there was a large proportion of subjects in the masculine category (44%).

When analyzed according to sex, there was no association between females and marital status as shown by Table 26.
TABLE 25  
Sex-Role Category By Marital Status  
(Sex Combined)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Single %</th>
<th>Married %</th>
<th>Other %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=98</td>
<td>N=39</td>
<td>N=16</td>
<td>N=153</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 6.324, df = 6, p = .38  
Cramers V = .144  

*Other – includes separated, divorced, widowed.  
Note. One subject did not respond to this question.  

However, the percentages indicate a tendency in the direction of the hypothesis. A very high proportion of those who were married were in the feminine sex-role category (46%) and high proportions of those in the other category, were in the feminine and masculine sex-role categories (38.5% and 38.5% respectively).  

For males, there was no statistically significant association between marital status and sex-role category as shown by Table 26. However, the percentages indicate a tendency in the direction of the hypothesis. The highest percentage of single males was undifferentiated (47%) whereas married males had a low percentage in the feminine
TABLE 26
Sex-Role Category By Marital Status
(By Sex)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
<th>Single %</th>
<th>Married %</th>
<th>Other(^\text{a}) %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>24(^\text{a})</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=83</td>
<td>N=22</td>
<td>N=13</td>
<td>N=118</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 6.557, \(df = 6\), \(p = .36\)
Cramers \(V\) = .167

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 6.551, \(df = 6\), \(p = .36\)
Cramers \(V\) = .306

\(^{a}\)Other - includes separated, divorced, widowed.

Note. One female did not respond to this question.
sex-role category (6%) and almost equal percentages distributed throughout the other sex-role categories.

Marital status appears to be more related to females than males. Married females were mainly feminine sex-typed, whereas those who were divorced or widowed were mostly in the feminine and masculine sex-role categories.

The high percentage of married females who were sex-typed was expected by the researcher due to the influence the marriage has traditionally played in the development of female sex-role identity (Firestone, 1970; Wertz, 1977). However, the findings are also disturbing in light of the research suggesting an association between mental illness and marital status (Bart, 1971; Gove, 1976).

Summary

The research hypotheses were not supported, as all of the chi-square tests were not significant, and the Cramer V tests showed no, or little association.

However, the scoring of the four sex-role categories was based on the median split technique as recommended by Bem (1977). Due to the dichotomization of the four sex-role categories, pertinent data might have been lost in the analysis. Consequently, a more precise scaling technique would possibly allow for a more accurate analysis.
In light of this, the slight tendencies that were indicated by the percentages might be instrumental in the future development of a more accurate scoring method of the B.S.R.I.

The following is a brief summary of the results according to the percentages.

The highest proportion of first year students, fourth year students and practitioners were in the feminine, androgynous and masculine sex-role categories respectively.

More females than males were in the feminine sex-role category but almost equal percentages of females and males were in the masculine and androgynous categories.

Slightly less females than males scored low on the A.T.W.S.R. scale, and more females scored in the high category on the scale than males.

Males at each level of education were evenly distributed throughout the masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated categories. Females, however, with four years of education and those holding an M.S.W. degree were mostly in the androgynous and masculine categories respectively. Those at the first year level and those with a B.S.W. degree were mostly in the feminine sex-role categories.
Both males and females scoring low on the A.T.W.S.R. scale were mostly in their appropriate sex-role category. Those in the high category were least in their appropriate sex-role category, and were evenly distributed throughout the remaining three categories.

Females in direct service were mostly in the feminine category whereas those in non-direct service areas were mostly in the masculine category. Males in direct service were evenly distributed throughout all the categories, except the feminine one in which there was a very low percentage. Males in non-direct service areas were mostly in the masculine sex-role category.

Females with few years of experience were mostly in the feminine category, whereas those with more years of experience were mostly in the masculine category. For males, those with little experience were mostly in the undifferentiated category whereas those with more years of experience were mostly in the masculine and undifferentiated categories.

Lastly, age apparently had little association with sex-role category. However, females who were older were mostly in the feminine and masculine categories whereas males who were older were mostly in the masculine and undifferentiated categories.
The next chapter includes a discussion of the conclusions, limitations of the study and recommendations.
CHAPTER V

Conclusions, Limitations And Recommendations

This chapter presents conclusions and limitations of the study. Recommendations based on the research findings and the review of literature are also included.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from the results of the research hypotheses are based on percentages and should be considered tentative and non-conclusive due to the not/significant chi-square results, the low Cramer's V results and also the small number of males in the sample (n=35) compared to females (n=119).

The focus of the study was the exploration of the sex-role categories of first year social work students, fourth year social work students and social work practitioners, and to test for the association between sex-role categories and the A.T.W.S.R. scores, and other variables.

The sample was comprised of females (77%) and males (23%). Included in the sample were first (37%) and fourth year social work students (21% and social work practitioners (42%).
The subjects completed the B.S.R.I. which measures sex-role categories and the A.T.W.S.R. scale which measures attitudes towards women's sex-roles.

The first year subjects were mostly in the feminine sex-role category, fourth year subjects were mostly in the androgynous category and the practitioners were mostly in the masculine category. There were also differences in the sex-role categories according to sex. More females were feminine sex-typed than males, but females and males were almost equally represented in the androgynous and masculine sex-role categories.

The variables analyzed in the study were age, marital status, social work education, social work experience, and type of social work service.

Age appeared to have little relationship to the sex-role categories. Marital status appeared to have more of a relationship with females than males. Single females were distributed evenly throughout the four sex-role categories whereas married females were mostly feminine sex-typed. Divorced, widowed or separated females were equally feminine sex-typed and in the masculine category. These findings showed that there was a tendency for females to become feminine sex-typed with marriage, although when becoming single again, there was a tendency for more females to
become masculine sex-typed. Perhaps these findings are indicative of the traditional roles and expectations that marriage holds for women, whereas the single status allows for and also necessitates a greater range of roles and expectations than does the married status.

Social work education appeared to have little relationship to sex-role category, although there were interesting results for females. Females who were at the four year level of the B.S.W. program and those who held M.S.W. degrees were mostly in the androgynous and masculine categories, whereas those who were at the first year level, and those who held B.S.W. degrees were mostly in the feminine category. The explanation for this is unclear. However, the difference in the number of females in the masculine category at different levels of social work education, possibly suggests the need for further research to study the impact of social work education on the sex-role categories of students.

There were also particular tendencies between years of social work experience and sex-role category. Females with few years of social work experience were mostly feminine sex-typed whereas those with more years of experience were mostly masculine sex-typed. Males with little experience were mostly in the undifferentiated and masculine categories whereas those with more
experience were in the masculine category. Once again there is the possibility that with increased social work experience, practitioners become more masculine sex-typed.

There was also a suggested relationship between type of social work service and sex-role category. Females in direct service were mostly feminine sex-typed, whereas those in non-direct service areas were mostly in the masculine category. Males in direct service were mostly masculine sex-typed. Whether masculine sex-typed females enter into non-direct service areas, or whether they become more masculine sex-typed once in the services is unsure. Nevertheless, it appears that the non-direct services of administration, supervision, and teaching are held by persons in the masculine sex-role category.

The above mentioned findings regarding social work experience and type of social work service have implications for the social work profession.

It appears that in the present sample, those who have worked for a long period of time and who are in non-direct service areas are mostly masculine sex-typed. This could possibly lead to conflict between workers with less experience who are in direct service. There could also be conflicts between front line workers and those in administrative and supervisory positions. The lack
of androgynous workers suggest that masculine and feminine values will persist in agencies and in light of the limitations of traditional sex-roles, social work settings could benefit from less sex-typed or more androgynous workers.

**A.T.W.S.R. Scale**

Proportionately more females and males scored high than low on the attitude scale. There were very few differences between the sexes, except that fewer females than males held less positive attitudes, and slightly more females than males held positive attitudes. Also, those females and males scoring low on the scale were mostly appropriately sex-typed whereas those scoring high or positive were mostly in the other three sex-role categories.

In light of the prevalence of feminine sex-typed females in direct service and masculine sex-typed males in non-direct service areas, these results have implications for social work practice. Female clients are possibly subject to sex-role stereotyping at the level of both direct service and also programming and policy.

The following section outlines the limitations of the study.
Limitations Of The Study

1. The non-probability purposive sample procedure reduced the generalizability of the results.

2. The sensitivity of respondents to the nature of the study perhaps biased their responses in a positive way.

3. The validity and reliability of the B.S.R.I. has been questioned by various researchers.

4. The findings were not statistically significant as indicated by the Chi-Square scores.

5. The researcher did not specify on the questionnaire that respondents were supposed to mark only one type of social work service and setting. This created subsequent problems when analyzing the data.

6. A very high proportion of the respondents had a perfect score on the A.T.W.S.R. scale. This could be due to the lack of construct validity.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the research findings and the review of literature. These recommendations should be considered as only tentative due to lack of statistically significant findings and the other limitations of the study.
1. The University of Windsor School of Social Work could give some attention to offering courses on the psychology of women in order to increase the understanding and sensitivity of both females and males regarding the inadequacies of traditional sex-roles.

2. Professors in the University of Windsor School of Social Work need to act as positive role models for both female and male students.

3. The University of Windsor School of Social Work should possibly give some consideration to the incorporation of material on psychological androgyny into any appropriate human development courses.

4. Social work settings should provide equal opportunity for the advancement of both males and females in non-direct service areas.

5. Social work settings should consider providing in-service training programs that would focus on self-awareness of sex-role stereotyping within the helping professions, both in direct and non-direct service areas.

6. The role of supervisors in both Schools of Social Work and social work settings should be reviewed for possible sex-role stereotyping of female students, Social Workers and clients.

7. Further research using the B.S.R.I. should be carried out on non-student populations in order to test for construct validity.
8. Further work on the B.S.R.I. should be carried out in order to determine whether or not the median split technique results in the loss of valuable information.

9. A longitudinal study of students in the B.S.W. program could possibly serve as a precise way of measuring the impact of social work education on change in sex-role orientation.

10. Experimental studies should be carried out comparing non-social work professionals with social work practitioners.

11. Experimental studies should be carried out to test if androgynous practitioners provide more effective service than feminine or masculine sex-typed practitioners.
APPENDIX A

Questionnaire
QUESTIONNAIRE - FIRST YEAR STUDENTS

SECTION A: Characteristics

(Please use a check ✓ or fill in the blanks as appropriate)

1. What is your Sex? Female ___ Male ___

2. What is your Age? Years ___

3. What is your Marital Status?
   a) Single ___ b) Married ___
   c) Separated ___ d) Divorced ___
   e) Other (Please Specify) ______________________________

4. Degrees and Diplomas Completed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree or Diploma</th>
<th>Year Completed</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Discipline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Grade 13</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) B.A.</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Community College</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Other</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. What is your Student Status?
   a) Full Time Yes ___ No ___
   b) Part Time Yes ___ No ___

6. How many years have you been employed full time?
   (Include years as housewife, exclude summer employment between school terms as a student.)

   Years ___

7. How many months or years have you been employed as a Social Worker or Social Service Worker?
   (Include summer employment)

   Years ___ or Months ___
Instructions:

Please complete the following questionnaire. You will find listed a number of personality characteristics. Please use those characteristics to describe yourself using the scale from 1 to 7.

Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Please do not think over your responses; answer as quickly as possible.
QUESTIONNAIRE

FOURTH YEAR STUDENTS

and

SOCIAL WORK PRACTITIONERS

SECTION A: Characteristics

(Please use a check ✓ or fill in the blanks as appropriate)

1. What is your Sex?    Female ___    Male ___

2. What is your Age?    Years ___

3. What is your Marital Status?
   a) Single. ___    b) Married ___
   c) Separated ___    d) Divorced ___
   e) Other (Please Specify) ______________________

4. Degrees and Diplomas Completed.

   Degree or Diploma    Year Completed    Location    Discipline
   a) Grade 13 ___ ___ ___
   b) B.A. ___ ___ ___
   c) Community College ___ ___ ___
   d) B.S.W. ___ ___ ___
   e) M.S.W. ___ ___ ___
   f) Other ___ ___ ___

5. How many years have you been employed full time?
   (Include years as housewife, exclude summer employment between school terms as a student)
   Years ___

6. How many months or years have you been employed as a Social Worker or Social Service Worker?
   (Include summer employment)
   Years ___ or Months ___
7. What is your student status?
   a) Fourth Year Full Time Yes No
       Part Time Yes No
   b) M.S.W. Full Time Yes No
       Part Time Yes No

8. Please complete if you are a fourth year student.
   a) Did you take the introduction to social work course in your first year?
      Yes No
   b) Did you enter the BSW program as a third year special student?
      Yes No
   c) Are you a makeup student?
      Yes No

9. In what type of service are you presently working or placed?
   a) Direct Service Yes No
   b) Administration Yes No
   c) Supervision Yes No
   d) Teaching Yes No
   e) Direct Service & Supervision Yes No
   f) Other (Please Specify) ____________________________

10. If you checked number 9.a) please mark the type of direct service in which you are presently working or placed.
    a) Casework Yes No
    b) Groupwork Yes No
    c) Community Organization Yes No
    d) Other (Please Specify) ____________________________
11. In what type of setting are you presently working or placed?
   
   a) Children's Aid Society  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   b) Children's Treatment Centre  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   c) Family Service  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   d) Aged  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   e) Health  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   f) Justice/Corrections  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   g) Welfare  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   h) Services for the Handicapped  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   i) Education  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   j) Economics/Labour  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   k) Recreation  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   l) Social Planning  
      Yes ____  No ____
   
   m) Other

12. State the percentage of time worked in each area over the entire number of years or months worked or placed.
   
   a) Direct Service  
      ____ %
   
   b) Administration  
      ____ %
   
   c) Supervision  
      ____ %
   
   d) Teaching  
      ____ %
   
   e) Direct Service & Supervision  
      ____ %

---

Instructions:

Please complete the following questionnaire. You will find listed a number of personality characteristics. Please use those characteristics to describe yourself using the scale from 1 to 7.

Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Please do not think over your responses; answer as quickly as possible.
Instructions:
Place a check mark in the appropriate column to indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A woman should not let bearing and rearing children stand in the way of a career if she wants it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Men should share the work around the house with women, such as doing dishes, cleaning and so forth.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Men and women should be paid the same money if they do the same work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A woman should have exactly the same job opportunities as a man.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Women should be considered as seriously as men for jobs as executives or politicians or even prime minister.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. There should be free child-care centers so that mothers could take jobs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Women are much happier if they stay at home and take care of their children.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. There has been much talk recently about changing women’s status in society today. On the whole, do you favour or oppose most of the efforts to strengthen and change women’s status in society today?

11. Women should be encouraged to seek elective and appointive posts at local, provincial, and federal levels of government.

12. It is more important for a wife to help her husband than to have a career herself.
# BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

### ALL RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never or almost never true</td>
<td>Usually not true</td>
<td>Sometimes but infrequently true</td>
<td>Occasionally true</td>
<td>Often true</td>
<td>Usually true</td>
<td>Always or almost always true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defend my own beliefs</th>
<th>Adaptable</th>
<th>Flatterable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affectionate</td>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>Theatrical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientious</td>
<td>Tender</td>
<td>Self-sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Conceited</td>
<td>Loyal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sympathetic</td>
<td>Willing to take a stand</td>
<td>Happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moody</td>
<td>Love children</td>
<td>Individualistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>Tacitful</td>
<td>Soft-spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitive to needs of others</td>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>Unpredictable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliable</td>
<td>Gentle</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong personality</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>Gullible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Self-reliant</td>
<td>Solemn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jealous</td>
<td>Yielding</td>
<td>Competitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forceful</td>
<td>Helpful</td>
<td>Childlike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassionate</td>
<td>Athletic</td>
<td>Likable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truthful</td>
<td>Cheerful</td>
<td>Ambitious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have leadership abilities</td>
<td>Unsystematic</td>
<td>Do not use harsh language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eager to soothe hurt feelings</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretive</td>
<td>Shy</td>
<td>Act as a leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to take risks</td>
<td>Inefficient</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm</td>
<td>Make decisions easily</td>
<td>Friendly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

Letters
BIBLIOGRAPHY

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VITA AUCTORIS

Marcia Weinberg was born August 6, 1951, in Hamilton, Ontario. She completed her Grade 13 at Hamilton Collegiate Institute and graduated in 1970. Following her graduation, she attended Brock University in St. Catharines, Ontario and received her Bachelor of Arts Degree in Psychology.

In September, 1974, she enrolled in the Bachelor of Social Work program at the University of Windsor and received her Bachelor of Social Work in 1976.

From 1976 until 1980, she was employed at the Children's Aid Society of the County of Essex.

In September, 1980, she entered the Master of Social Work program at the University of Windsor.