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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Barbara Cooksey Matthews entitled "Effects of a Choice Awareness Experiential Workshop on Locus of Control, Performance Self-Esteem, and Self-Oriented Attributions in a Woman/Woman Dyadic Model." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Psychology and Guidance.

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EFFECTS OF A CHOICE AWARENESS EXPERIENTIAL WORKSHOP ON LOCUS OF CONTROL, PERFORMANCE SELF-ESTEEM, AND SELF-ORIENTED ATTRIBUTIONS IN A WOMAN/WOMAN DYADIC MODEL

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Education

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Barbara Cooksey Matthews

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DEDICATION

MAXINE VIGNAU

(1926 - 1979)

U.T. '63, '70

. . . in celebration of our friendship,
to my beloved colleague, Maxie, who
personified Appalachian humanism. Agape!

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For providing me with an actualized choice, I am especially grateful to Howard Debs, GuideLines Press, and Dr. Richard Nelson, Purdue University.

Now, I wish to share the sweetness of this concluded task with my parents, James W. Cooksey, Jr. and Frances Eady Cooksey, and my son, Kyle.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to provide a theoretical rationale for the Choice Awareness system with women and to evaluate the effectiveness of an experiential Choice Awareness Workshop as a contributive intervention strategy.

A role perspective was assumed to examine the impact of stereotypic suppositions on achievement motivation (motive to avoid success and imposter phenomenon), locus of control directionality (attribution theory and learned helplessness), and the developmental devaluing process (self-esteem). An attributional model for volitional determination was proposed within which theoretical cognitive constructs form the bases for the Choice Awareness system.

The investigation focused on comparative treatment and control data to assess differential effects on internal locus of control directionality, performance self-esteem enhancement, and self-oriented attributional appraisals. Subjects were thirty-one women who volunteered to participate in the study, fourteen in the experimental group and seventeen in the no-treatment control group. Utilizing a dyadic format, the workshop was scheduled for eight two-hour sessions over an eight week period at a community women's resource center.

The following instruments were administered pretest and posttest: the Rotter Internal-External Center of Reinforcement Scale, the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory, the Performance Self-Esteem Scale, and the Levenson Tri-Dimensional Locus of Control Scale. Correlated samples *t* tests assessed pre-post differences within the experimental and control group on six dependent measures. Following an adjustment of means, the posttest data were analyzed by analyses of covariance, with pretest scores serving as covariates.

Two within group assessments of locus of control dimensions, attributable to treatment effects, were statistically significant ($p<.05$). Although the outcome results were of insufficient magnitude to achieve statistical significance at the predicted level with the analyses of covariance, the detection of directional trends is encouraging enough to merit, with some modifications, further investigation of the Choice Awareness system with women.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The options traditionally open to women insured predictability in our lives. Regardless of differences in ability, interests, or aspirations, women shared a common debilitating plight; few could elude the obligatory "choices" sanctioned by society.

Self definition evolved from the nature of our relationships with others; we were taught to believe that our greatest satisfactions and fulfillment would come in meeting the needs of others and promoting their achievements. A sense of self was denied womankind.

At some point came the astonishing realization that society's requisite characterization for females mandated deference, denial, and dependency. Some of us suffered knowing how incompatible with psychological maturity were the behavioral expectations which society held for us (Broverman, et al., 1970).

There exists for us now a new freedom to explore other life alternatives. Women are being encouraged to question restrictive gender stereotypes and dependency motives, and to confront issues of personal responsibility. Finally, we have given ourselves permission to take control of our own lives.

Persons vary in how much control they believe themselves to have in directing their own lives. For those who regard themselves as primary activators, the locus of control lies within (Rotter, 1966). Their values, goals, and levels of awareness promote internality and initiative.

Externally oriented individuals have acquired a sense of powerlessness and see their lives being under the arbitrary control of other people, social circumstance, or fate (Levenson, 1974; Frieze, 1976). The perceived inability to control outcomes produces an internalized sense of psychological helplessness (Seligman, 1975). Even when conditions would permit outcome management, the person is powerless to exercise meaningful choices. Not surprisingly, many more women than men underachieve, devalue themselves, and feel they have little control over their own lives (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974).

In seeking control and exercising choices, individuals must acquire a sense of competence to deal effectively with ongoing life experience. Moreover, choice implies the perception of available alternatives and the real possibility for outcome control. Control assumes responsibility; attribution theory (Weiner, 1974) is contributing to an understanding of how the allocation of responsibility influences choosing behaviors.

The opportunity to manage one's own life can bring excitement to women for whom the possibility was previously denied, but the prospect can also be frightening. Traditional socialization experiences provided females little preparation for self-initiative and self-management. In transition, women may be simultaneously concerned about failing and succeeding, and may fear that others will disapprove of their efforts. It is understandable that women whose self identities were inextricably linked to a submissive social role may be confused about their own needs and the "taking control" imperative.

The choices women make from the range available to them will shape the pattern of their lives. The very process of choosing and taking control will enhance their unique identities.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Within the context of changing role assumptions and behavioral expectations, many women are looking to remediation processes to abandon restrictive, self-defeating attitudes and behaviors and replace them with more positive self-fulfilling ones. The Choice Awareness system is "designed to develop more positive self-concepts, and encourage attitude and behavior change" (Nelson, 1979a, p. 3). The workshop experience is planned to examine choice

patterns, to monitor ongoing changes in behavior, and to explore one's responsibilities in choice-making.

The purpose of the present research was to evaluate the effectiveness of a Choice Awareness experiential workshop as a potentially contributive intervention strategy for women. More specifically, the study focused on pretest and posttest data on select measures of locus of control, performance self-esteem, and self-oriented attributions for volunteer participants in a dyadic model experimental group and volunteers in a no-treatment control group. The workshop was offered through a new women's community resource and development center.

The inquiry included the following questions:

(1) How effective is the assimilation of Choice Awareness constructs and contiguous practice of choice-making skills in facilitating an increase in internality orientation?

(2) To what extent will concomitant enhancement of self-esteem be evidenced?

(3) Utilizing the dyadic format, is the Choice Awareness system effective in increasing self-oriented attributions for the participants?

II. NULL HYPOTHESES

I. H_o There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on

internal-external orientation scores as measured by the Rotter I-E Scale.

II. H_o There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the self-oriented appraisal scores as measured by the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory.

III. H_o There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the ability-performance dimension of self-esteem as measured by scores on the Performance-Self-Esteem Scale.

IV. H_o There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the tri-dimensional (I-P-C) locus of control scores obtained on the Levenson measure:

(a) Internality (I Scale)

(b) Powerful-others (P Scale)

(c) Chance (C Scale)

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Helping women grow in confidence to make more deliberate and conscious choices is a worthy goal. The most beneficial means to accomplish this purpose are yet to be determined, however.

Choice Awareness is a compensatory strategy specifically designed to enhance choice-making efficiency. The Choice Awareness Workshop (Nelson, 1979a, 1979b, 1979c) is intended primarily as an educative experience to develop an understanding of the nature of choice behaviors. It is a systematic, structured approach to integrating and applying basic CA concepts in everyday life.

The Choice Awareness system has been used in marriage enrichment programs (Friest, 1979; Fenell, 1979) and has been modified for use with children (Nelson, 1979, 1980; Zimmerman, 1979). The present study, however, represents one of the first quantified evaluations of the programmed workshop package in the person-to-person format. Moreover, the study is the first controlled attempt to apply the Choice Awareness system with women exclusively. Given the restricted options traditionally open to females, women constitute a highly visible target population of persons restricted in choice-making power.

The results of the study should provide a meaningful effects assessment of the sequentially introduced CA concepts and experiential exercises. Within the confines of the design, behavioral outcomes will be ascertained. If gains occur in the predicted direction, support would be demonstrated for the theoretical assumptions and techniques of the Choice Awareness paradigm, and should prompt the

utilization of the strategy with female clients in a variety of settings.

IV. ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Third force psychology provides the basic assumption implicit throughout this work. Contrary to psychoanalytic and behavioristic determinism, the humanistic school, with its emphasis on self awareness, stresses our freedom to choose and direct our own lives. Feminist philosophy is accordant, as expressed by Forisha (1978):

> Human beings have the choice of creating their own alternatives; in other words people have some measure of freedom and are not wholly determined by external or internal forces. In addition, people are responsible for the ways in which they choose to utilize this freedom. Furthermore, we increase our freedom by increasing our awareness. As we become more aware of how we have come to where we are, we enlarge our capacity to change where we are. Increasing awareness leads to increasing options. With more options we have greater choice and hence greater freedom (p. 6).

A philosophical belief in one's freedom to choose is increasingly widespread among women. Confident beliefs in their own ability to choose are not so apparent.

In researching the Choice Awareness system in this study, specific assumptions were:

1. Choice Awareness constructs could be taught and learned in the time frame allotted.
2. The person-to-person structure of the workshop was an effective format for achieving positive behavioral outcomes.

3. Contiguous practice opportunities and purposeful exercises would enhance the experience for the recipients.
4. Participant gains could be detected by valid and reliable instrumentation following treatment.
5. A sincerity of purpose would motivate the dyad participants.
6. The leader-facilitator would communicate the basics of Choice Awareness with understanding and would serve as an inspired and sensitive model for the other women.

A limitation is acknowledged in the selection of study participants. Owing to workshop leader availability, physical facility scheduling, and other time constraint factors, volunteer subjects were utilized in both the experimental and control groups. The analysis of covariance design was selected to control for any initial differences in the treatment and no-treatment subjects.

For the duration of the workshop, the control subjects had no contact with the participants in the experimental group. Beyond the control of the experimenter, however, the no-treatment subjects did have in the interim other extraneous experiences at the center which may have affected the overall statistical results.

An additional limitation was posed by the number of those participating. The number sampling for the workshop was within the ideal range suggested by Nelson (1979b). The probability of statistical significance may have been intensified with a larger sample size, however.

One of the most essential concerns with any intervention strategy is the extent to which positive outcome effects are strengthened and perpetuated after the cessation of treatment. No provision for follow-up data collection was made in this study. Therefore, the possible transfer effects of Choice Awareness to real-life situations for the experimentals remain unknown.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature assumes a role perspective for women to examine the impact of stereotypic suppositions on achievement motivation (motive to avoid success and imposter phenomenon), locus of control directionality (attribution theory and learned helplessness), and the developmental devaluing process (self-esteem). An attributional model for volitional determination provides the structure within which theoretical constructs (cognitive behavior modification and cognitive restructuring) are presented as bases for the Choice Awareness intervention system.

Sex-Role Stereotyping

Approximately four hundred personality characteristics were rated on their desirability for either a man or a woman by one hundred Stanford University undergraduates (Bem, 1974). A personality attribute qualified as masculine if both males and females independently judged it to be significantly more desirable for men than for women; a trait qualified as feminine if both males and females independently judged it to be significantly more desirable for women than men. The attributes which clearly

distinguished masculine and feminine desirability provide a quite contemporary characterization.

The traditionally feminine woman in our society is characterized as flatterable, gullible, childlike, warm, and affectionate. Her ascribed role is to love children, to be compassionate and sensitive to the needs of others. She is supposed to be shy, soft spoken, tender, sympathetic and understanding. The stereotypic woman does not use harsh language; she is eager to soothe hurt feelings and she is yielding. She is not expected to be aggressive, analytical, ambitious, dominant, strong, forceful, independent, individualistic, athletic, competitive, self-sufficient, or self-reliant. She is supposed to be unwilling to take a stand, to take risks, or defend her own beliefs. Making decisions does not come easily to the traditional feminine woman, and she is thought to be lacking in leadership abilities. Male and female judges contributed to the characterization to about the same degree; i.e., they were nearly identical in their assessments of what constituted desirable sex-appropriate and sex-inappropriate characteristics.

Seventy-nine psychological clinicians provided an equally rigid assessment in the study by Broverman and her associates (1970). A double standard of psychological health and maturity was revealed when professional

respondents assigned characteristics to either healthy men, healthy women, or healthy adults (sex unspecified). Significant differences in the conceptions of a healthy man and a healthy adult were not evident. A significant difference did exist, however, between the healthy woman ratings and the healthy adult. Healthy women were characterized by the clinicians as being less competitive and ambitious, less independent and self confident, and less objective. They were described as being passive, submissive, emotional, and were said to have difficulty making decisions.

There was strong agreement on stereotypic behaviors among the psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, of whom forty-nine had either the Ph.D. or M.D. As was true for the Stanford students, the agreement was equally evident among both male and female clinicians.

The sex-role belief system is pervasive and persistent in society. Polarity assumptions and dichotomies perpetuate inferiority themes and the devaluing of females (Meda, et al., 1976).

An androgynous model of mental health (Kaplan, 1976) requires that women abandon the stereotypic standards imposed by society. Notwithstanding theoretical probity and empirical justification (Bem, 1974), evidence would suggest that society's conceptions of women and men remain

relatively unchanged. Pre-school and elementary school children continue to reflect sex-typing of occupational assignments (Nelson, 1978; Tremaine and Schau, 1979), and adults still endorse stereotypic behavior patterns for women and men (Gilbert, et al., 1978). Intervention strategies to modify sex stereotypic attitudes have met with some success with children (Ashby and Wittmaier, 1978) and with adults (Yanico, 1978).

One psychological interpretation for the existence and persistence of sex-role stereotyping is cognitive dissonance theory (Watson, 1976). It is easier in conflict resolution to denigrate either the performance of women or femaleness than it is to alter attitudes about the competency of the person who produced the conflict. The competency issue accounts for volitional suppression and the inhibition of achievement-directed behaviors.

Achievement Motivation

The classic work on the need to achieve was done by McClelland and his colleagues (1953); the achievement motivation construct was developed to examine differential achieving activity. Whereas the male subjects in the early studies generally fulfilled experimental expectations, female performance was characterized by the experimenters as contradictory and puzzling. In more recent studies

(McClelland, et al., 1976), women's achievement activity was reportedly aroused by references to social acceptability and men's activity heightened by referring to their leadership capacity and intelligence. Underlying reasons for the sex differences were described as "not altogether clear" (p. 181), however, a relationship to role determinants in the dependence-independence dichotomy was suggested.

Achievement motivation, as traditionally defined and measured, is a masculine quality. Success strivings and performance outcomes derive from a male model or standard which excludes feminine role accomplishments. It follows that the achievements of women would be marginal when compared with those of men.

Females are motivated to achieve, but the nature of achievement strivings varies as a function of differential feminine valuing (Stein and Bailey, 1975). More diffuse achievement motives and greater flexibility in need expression are probable outcomes (Hoffman, 1972).

Subjects of both sexes, in studies utilizing projective techniques, typically assign fewer achievement themes to females than to males (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). Interpretation of these findings is difficult. It is not known, for example, if the low achievement profiles for the female subjects reflect their personal motivations, represent a stereotypic characterization of women generally, or contain elements of both.

Assuming achievement-striving does, indeed, exist for females, the internalized motive conceivably develops later for women than for men. Bardwick (1971) suggests that the manifestation involves the "reemergence of a preexisting motive" (p. 171). The delayed expression may be attributed to prioritizing in favor of traditionally feminine pursuits or the suppression of achieving behaviors due to anxiety associated with personal achievement in areas traditionally reserved for males.

It is generally well known that the factors which account for achieving behaviors in men do not explain achievement needs in women. The data reveal discrepant sex differences: women's level of achievement is unequal to that of men; women's strivings are virtually unaffected by ordinary arousal cues; predictive power for female achieving is extremely low; and, women consistently experience high anxiety associated with achievement motives.

Motive to Avoid Success

In an attempt to reconcile these obvious discrepancies and explain achievement inhibition in women, Horner (1972) postulated the "motive to avoid success":

> The motive to avoid success is conceptualized within the framework of an expectancy-value theory of motivation. It is identified as an internal psychological representative of the dominant societal stereotype which views competence, independence, competition, and intellectual achievement as

> qualities basically inconsistent with feminity even though positively related to masculinity and mental health. The expectancy that success in achievement-related situations will be followed by negative consequences arouses fear of success in otherwise achievement-motivated women which then inhibits their performance and levels of motivation (p. 157).

Horner's motivational construct, within which female achievement ambivalence and conflict can be examined, has stimulated considerable research interest (Hoffman, 1974; Mausner and Coles, 1978). Acceptance of the concept has been mixed with controversy, however. Anderson (1978) contends, for example, that a solid theoretical base has not been established. Other criticism has focused on the conceptualization of MTAS as a relatively stable personality characteristic, unique to women, acquired in early childhood.

Some evidence suggests that the expressed motive is more situationally dependent than trait oriented (Condry and Dyer, 1976), and that the fear imagery reported by respondents more likely reflects enculturated stereotypes rather than a distinct personality disposition (Darley, 1976). Other studies have shown role orientation to be related to success avoidance (O'Leary, 1977); how a woman defines her role appears to be an important determinant of the fear of success tendency. Cherry and Deaux (1978) concluded it is the perception of gender-inappropriate behavior in either males or females that will elicit success anxiety and avoidance in both women and men.

That men experience a fear of success should not discredit the conceptualization as it pertains to women. On the contrary, the diffuse fear of success among males probably indicates an achievement orientation change in response to feminist ideology. More and more young men are questioning traditional achievement goals and the necessity for high levels of competition (Mausner and Coles, 1978).

Over a six year period, the incidence of reported fear of success among men increased sharply (Hoffman, 1974). Surprisingly, despite increased acceptance of an ideology of equality between the sexes, success anxiety among academic women did not diminish over the same period of time. The women in Hoffman's (1974) study continued to express concern over affiliative loss associated with high academic success.

The dynamics of achievement motivation may be similar for black and white women. In examining achievement conflicts in black college females, Puryear and Mednick (1974) documented a high incidence of fear of success and a low incidence of reported male attachments in women who endorsed black militant attitudes.

The Imposter Phenomenon

Anxiety over achievement in women can, of course, be manifest in ways other than a fear of succeeding or a

motive to avoid success. Clance and Imes (1978) identified in their research numerous highly successful women who exhibited the "imposter phenomenon." These women, despite their high academic achievements, scholastic honors, professional recognition, and the like, believed their contributions had been over-evaluated and their capabilities over-estimated. Women who identify themselves as imposters cannot experience a full internal sense of satisfaction with their successes; they live in constant fear of exposure and discovery of what they believe to be their true abilities.

Believing oneself to be an intellectual pretender may be incompatible with an authentic self appraisal; however, the attitude can defend the woman against the acquired fears of negative consequences which she may have come to associate with succeeding. For so long as a woman maintains the belief that she is not as bright and deserving as others might think, the imagined societal rejection can be delayed.

Locus of Control

The locus of control construct is a belief dimension related to the extent to which individuals claim personal control over events in their lives. Social learning theory (Rotter, Chance, and Phares, 1972) provides the framework for the concept which Rotter (1966) has defined:

> When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his [sic] own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control (p. 1).

It follows from this definition that internality should be related to greater achievement motivation and greater achievement. The relationship between locus of control and achievement has not been consistently demonstrated with women subjects, however. Mediating variables such as the sex of a work partner and the nature of an assigned task (cooperative effort versus competitive effort) have a significant effect on how internally-oriented as well as externally-oriented females respond (Nowicki, Duke, and Crouch, 1978). The findings for men are far more consistent and predictable; internals are more achieving than externals regardless of intervening variable conditions.

About women it is known that high levels of the motive to avoid success are associated with high external control orientation (Midgley and Abrams, 1974), and high internality is associated with high esteem (Lefcourt, 1976; Bhagat and Chassie, 1978).

Internal locus of control is clearly a positive societal value. In a recent study (Stern and Manifold, 1977), internal subjects rated themselves more positively than did externals, providing additional support for the correlation between internality and self-esteem. Independent of their own ratings, however, the subjects attributed positive evaluations to others to the extent that they were thought to possess an internal locus of control orientation. Internal and external raters did not differ in their positive regard for internality. Although fifty-four of the one hundred eighteen subjects were female, sex distinctions in self and other appraisals were not revealed.

Given the traditional stereotype of passivity and dependency, it would generally be expected that females would be more external in their locus of control orientation than males. The sexes do not differ consistently on locus of control through the school years, although there is a trend for adult women to be externalizers. According to Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), that women should more likely be externalizers is not surprising. "What is surprising is that the sex difference . . . does not emerge earlier in life" (p. 157).

The conflicting results reported in studies of female subjects (Rotter, 1966) prompted a reevaluation of externality assumptions. At issue was whether or not externality

was a unitary dimension or was multidimensional. Levenson (1974) theorized that beliefs about one's own mastery in personal life could be differentiated from beliefs about internal-external forces in society generally and from control expectancies over political institutions. Women, then, may reflect external orientation, but for different reasons.

Feminists exemplify the need for a distinctive conceptualization of the externality construct since they appear to exhibit a locus of control conflict. Coexisting for feminist women may be a high personal control internality and a high ideological control externality. Sanger and Alker (1972) offer a clarification:

> It is clear that the feminist philosophy reinforces a conflicted sense of fate control. However, common sense suggests that a woman must feel some degree of externality in terms of what she perceives as a female's status in our society before she would join a movement which espouses the goals of women's liberation (p. 127).

Attribution Theory

An attributional model, intended to interpret individual differences in achievement-related attitudes, is contributing to an understanding of how the allocation of responsibility (internal/external) actuates subsequent behaviors. Weiner (1974) posited that achievement motivation and expectations for success or failure were functionally related to the explanations which individuals

gave for their own performances. The attribution theory approach focuses on constructive thinking about causal assignment determinations and the perceived consequences of attribution selection (Jones, et al., 1976).

The model contains four categories (ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck) classified across two dimensions, stability and locus of control. Ability represents an internal stable attribution, effort an internal unstable attribution, task difficulty an external stable attribution, and luck an external unstable attribution. The locus of control dimension theoretically influences affect, with feelings of pride and shame associated with internal attributions; the stability dimension is said to influence one's expectancy of success. Frieze (1976) validated the four types of attributions and found added support for including mood and the influence of others as significant causal factors.

Attribution theory maintains that individuals high in achievement motivation attribute their successes to ability and their failures to unstable or external variables, whereas low achievement motivation individuals attribute their failures to ability and their successes to unstable or external factors. Anticipation of achieving outcome is closely connected to internal or external causality which suggests that locus of control in

achievement contexts influences attribution tendencies (Frieze and Weiner, 1971).

Not unlike the early achievement motivation and locus of control studies, the most predictable patterns of attributions are found among male subjects. The attributions of women are more variable and inconsistent.

Women are much more likely than men, for example, to use external attributions to explain their successes (Feather and Simon, 1973) and to cite luck as an explanation for all types of achievement outcomes (Bar-Tal and Frieze, 1976; Deaux and Farris, 1977). While men tend to use lack of effort or task difficulty to explain their less than adequate performances, women are likely to use low ability and bad luck to explain theirs. Men look to external factors; women tend to blame themselves (Halperin and Abrams, 1978).

Despite equivalent performance outcomes and comparable abilities, women consistently rate their task performances lower and claim less ability than do males (Deaux and Farris, 1977). What appears to be lacking in many women is an inability to take either responsibility or credit for their performances.

It is a matter of some concern how early in development these attitudes are manifest. Etaugh and Hadley (1977) found attribution theory support among kindergarten

and third grade children. Each child was asked to engage in predictions about a boy or girl succeeding in specified tasks and to explain the winner's success from among the four causal determinants (ability, effort, task ease/difficulty, and luck). Clearly, differential perceptions of female and male performances exist in young children. Attributing female success more to effort than ability, for example, suggests that children have already acquired traditional sex-role achievement standards as early as pre-school.

Causal attributions of women continue to reflect self blame and luck (Frieze, et al., 1978). If a woman believes her successes to be the result of luck, it is not surprising that she would have less pride and lower expectations than someone attributing success to effort and ability. Not surprisingly, persons with high self-esteem have greater expectancies for themselves in the future and tend to make internal attributions for success and external attributions for failure (Frieze, et al., 1978). The possibility that persons will distort causality attributions to protect or enhance self-esteem is under investigation (Bradley, 1978; Miller, 1978).

Learned Helplessness

Learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975) is closely related to the external center of reinforcement concept and

externality attributions. Evolving from the external orientation, psychological helplessness develops with a person's realization that events are beyond their control. The phenomenon has been observed in lower animals, and provides an etiologic theory for anxiety and depression in human beings.

The learner, through experiences with uncontrollability, acquires a sense of helplessness and a negative cognitive set. Applied research indicates that the perception of control becomes distorted. When varied circumstances would actually permit outcome manipulation, the individual is powerless to initiate substantive choices. Internalized helplessness, then, is more likely a generalizable characteristic than a situation-specific behavior.

There is a tendency to think only of negative events in connection with depressed states, but depression can result from positive happenings if the requisite belief is present that the person's actions did not account for the outcome. This belief system is particularly applicable for those women who are convinced they "owe everything to their husbands," but who may unconsciously resist the "you never had it so good" admonitions.

Until female socialization includes mastery, competence, and independence, women will remain vulnerable to helplessness and depression. Seligman (1975) claims

that persons who are resistant to depression or are resilient from depression "have had extensive experience controlling and manipulating the sources of reinforcement in their lives" (p. 104). That condition which protects against depression is the same condition which enhances self-esteem.

Self-Esteem

Firmly entrenched in our societal belief system is the valuing of men and the devaluing of women. The victims of oppression themselves reflect an anti-female prejudice (Goldberg, 1971). Some feminine characteristics are highly rated by both women and men; however, Broverman and her associates (1972) found that more than 70 percent of positively rated traits were assigned to males.

Stereotypes influence self-definition, and it follows that women would acquire a poor self image with the realization that their sex is devalued by society. Bardwick (1971) is most convincing:

> The self is a source of action, of motivation, of direction. How one perceives the value of the self determines the level of self-esteem, and the lower a person's self-esteem the greater the anxiety and the greater the response to pressures to assume a role . . . because role conflict is more likely to exist in women, in particular situations and in general women have lower self-esteem than men (p. 155).

In their extensive review of the literature, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) concluded that "sex differences are seldom found" (p. 151) on standardized self-esteem scales, and that "similarity of the two sexes in self-esteem is remarkably uniform across age levels through college age" (p. 153). The failure to detect sex differences is perhaps due to instrumentation stemming from a global or unidimensional conceptualization of self-esteem.

A multidimensional construct of self-esteem (Norem-Hebeisen, 1976) permits, for example, a distinction between the social aspects and ability-performance aspects of self evaluation. Since females typically score lower than males on measures of the ability-performance dimension of self-esteem (Stake, 1979a), but may score higher on social measures, it is the basis of positive self-esteem that appears to be different for women and men (O'Leary, 1977).

In achievement contexts, females continue to exhibit low self-confidence, which is assumed to be an essential component of self-esteem. Males generally have greater expectations for accomplishing a task and rate their performances higher once the work is completed. In their recent study with over nine hundred fourth and fifth graders, Loeb and Horst (1978) revealed that the self-esteem ratings for girls were significantly lower than their teachers'

ratings. This is surprising considering the elementary school environment is one in which girls have traditionally excelled. The reverse was true for the boys. Boys rated themselves consistently higher than their teachers rated them.

One reason why women lack confidence is that they are "less in control of their own fates" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974, p. 157). Self-esteem in females has traditionally been associated with interpersonal acceptance and not achievement, competency, or autonomy. Pomerantz and House (1977) indicate, however, that feminist women, consistent with self-actualization theory, base their self-esteem more on abilities and interests. Feminists are generally more independently achievement-oriented, more autonomous, and less authoritarian than non-supporters of women's equality (Redfering, 1979). Examining the relationship between role factors and self-esteem, Stake (1979) concluded that high self estimates of competence in women are positively related to career commitment and non-stereotyped views about the role of women in society.

Choice Intervention

Volitional confidence and choice-making competency involve processes that are learned. If women are to experience enhancement in this area, the design of

educational programs for women must change. To understand how instruction and socialization practices have inhibited choosing skills and self competencies is an essential first step in the reeducation process.

Compensatory education must provide women with an opportunity to become aware of their new and expanding options and a plan to acquire a greater sense of competency in choosing from among them. The learning experiences must be structured to meet the same requirements as for any other psychological process.

Ideally, intervention strategies with women organize behavioral modifications within a cognitive framework. In focus are internal thought processes associated with values, expectations for achievement, attributions, and self assessments. The model provides for perceptual relearning opportunities within the cognitive restructuring schema (Mahoney, 1974; Meichenbaum, 1977). More specifically, procedures focus on behaviors to modify cognitions and the changing cognitions ultimately alter more behaviors.

In the attributional model of achievement motivation (Weiner, 1974), choice is conceptualized as a behavioral consequence of social norm antecedents, causality judgments, locus of control perceptions, affective reactions, and cognitive maturity. Although the model revolves around causal attributions, the broader cognitive base, which was

recently expanded to include self-esteem, allows for more varied interpretations of action determinants and behavioral potentials.

Choice Awareness

Choice Awareness is a volitional system which stresses an understanding of control and responsibility issues. With its emphasis on thoughts, feelings, and actions, Choice Awareness is a positive theoretical alternative to externality orientation and is congruent with the attributional model and the cognitive restructuring paradigm.

According to Nelson (1976), Choice Awareness:

> is an approach to understanding human behavior which assumes that individuals can come to feel they are more effective people through making better choices. Making better choices results from knowing more about the wide range of options that may be exercised. In Choice Awareness both positive and negative options are examined, the consequences of each are explored, and the responsibility for choice-making is left squarely to the individual whose choice it is (p. 463).

A cognitive-affective-behavioral process, Choice Awareness focuses on understanding the nature of choice initiation, becoming aware of the latitude of possible OK options, and increasing the frequency of positive-effective over negative-ineffective choices. Based on a broader than customary definition of choice, i.e., "any action, response, or feeling over which the individual does, or can learn to, exercise some control" (Nelson, 1976, p. 463),

the paradigm proposes the classification of choice-making events in five general areas. Caring, ruling, enjoying, sorrowing, and thinking/working (CREST) represent the choice categories. The acronym has also been used by Zimmerman (1979) for "Choice, Responsibility, and Effective Skills Training."

The Choice Awareness system has been demonstrated effective in marriage enrichment programs (Friest, 1979; Fenell, 1979) and has been modified for use with children and teenagers (Nelson, 1979, 1980). In a recent study with one hundred eight third, fourth, and fifth grade children (Zimmerman, 1979), involvement in the CREST program was shown to increase children's awareness of the kinds of available choices they had and to increase the frequency of positive choice responses.

First introduced as an innovative guidance strategy for elementary school counselors (Nelson and Bloom, 1975), the CA schema has been extended to dimensions both preventive and curative, and may be utilized by individuals, persons with partners, or in groups.

As an educative experience the Choice Awareness Workshop (Nelson, 1979a, 1979b, 1979c) is a systematic, structured approach to integrating and applying basic CA assumptions in everyday life. Since the theoretical basics can be assimilated relatively quickly, contiguous practice

is assured the workshop participants. In keeping with an interpersonal communication and valuing focus, a person-to-person format is favored over total group instruction.

Nelson (1979b) suggests that "any group whose members feel limited in choice-making power is a likely population for Choice Awareness Workshops" (p. 2). Owing to dependency reinforcement and a deference training sanctioned by society through periods of formative development, women constitute a particularly visible target group.

The systematized Choice Awareness intervention is a potentially useful treatment for women who are anxious to claim more control in their lives and improve their relationships with others. It has the potential for producing substantive cognitive changes to influence the extent to which women are willing to assume greater responsibility for their choices.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSES

I. DESIGN

A true experimental design, the pretest-posttest control group design (Huck, Cormier, and Bounds, 1974), was the prototype for the present study. Correlated samples *t* tests were used to test overall pretest and posttest differences within the experimental and control groups on four instruments.

After the pretest means for the treatment and control groups were adjusted for differences, the posttest data were analyzed by analyses of covariance. Pretest scores on the selected instruments were used as covariates and posttest scores served as the dependent variables. The .05 level of significance was selected for null hypotheses rejection.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for demographic independent variables and pretest and posttest scores for six dependent variables.

II. SUBJECTS

The cooperating agency for this study was Women's Horizons, sponsored by the Junior League of the Palm

Beaches, Inc. With an attractive physical space provided by the YWCA, Women's Horizons was officially opened in November 1979, in West Palm Beach, Florida. A needs assessment completed earlier that year determined that middle class women would constitute the target population for the non-profit, privately-funded resource center. As a community resource facility, Women's Horizons was intended to be an information center for women; counseling, referral, and continuing education opportunities were to be provided. The Choice Awareness Workshop was one of the first training classes to be offered by Women's Horizons.

Thirty-one women served as subjects for the study. Nelson (1979b) recommends that potential workshop members be screened for suitability; precise selection criteria have not been established, however. The cooperating agency had no provision for participant selectivity and a first-come, first-served policy was observed.

The experimental group consisted of fourteen women with an age range of twenty-seven to seventy-nine and a mean of 46.8 years. Seventeen women, ranging in age from twenty to sixty-two, with a mean of 41.3 years, comprised the control group.

Workshop participants were some of the first clients of Women's Horizons. Women in the control group, already affiliated with the YWCA, were not yet committed to direct

participation in the resource center, but some did indicate a tentative interest in future workshops.

All thirty-one volunteer subjects were informed about the extent of data collection and its intended use in a research project. When assurance had been given that all information furnished by them would be kept strictly confidential, each participant was asked to sign a consent form (Appendix A).

Demographic information for the subjects was collected on the Participant Data Form (Appendix B), and the data are summarized in Appendix C.

For informational purposes only, all participants were asked to complete the short version of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1973). The instrument (Appendix D) consists of twenty-five statements about the rights and roles of women in society and has four response alternatives, ranging from agree strongly to disagree strongly. "The scale is designed to differentiate between women who possess liberated attitudes (high scores) and women who possess traditional, conservative attitudes (low scores) toward their role in society" (Pomerantz and House, 1977, p. 207). Scores above seventy represent the high classification and scores below fifty represent the low category for the subjects in this study.

Forty-three percent of the treatment subjects were classified pro-feminist (high supporters of women's equality), and 7 percent were classified anti-feminist (low supporters of women's equality). In the control group, 53 percent were pro-feminist and 18 percent were anti-feminist. The means for the two groups were nearly identical: $\bar{X}$=66.0 for the experimental group and $\bar{X}$=64.9 for the control group.

III. PERSONNEL

The investigator had been a consultant with the publisher of Choice Awareness materials for some time prior to the initiation of this study. It was determined that a workshop leader with high exposure to the CA system would constitute an exceptionality to limit generalized use assumptions.

Nelson (1979b) indicates that the workshop leadership "may include many who are involved in educational and counseling-related occupations" (p. 3). Fortunately, a capable and energetic woman with minimal CA exposure was available to facilitate the experiential workshop. Her qualifications included an undergraduate major in psychology, graduate training in the behavioral sciences, extensive teaching experience, and an involvement with a variety of developmental intervention programs. She

reflected a feministic perspective and demonstrated a genuine interest in Choice Awareness. An experienced associate with the master's degree administered the pretests and posttests to the experimental and control subjects.

IV. INSTRUMENTATION

The instruments used in the study to assess treatment effects were: (1) the Rotter Internal-External Center of Reinforcement Scale (Appendix E), (2) the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory (Appendix F), (3) the Performance Self-Esteem Scale (Appendix G), and (4) the Levenson Tri-Dimensional Locus of Control Scale (Appendix H).

The Rotter Internal-External Center of Reinforcement Scale (RIE)

The I/E scale measures individual differences in generalized expectancies for external versus internal control of reinforcement. If a person perceives that there is a causal relationship between his/her behavior and resultant phenomena, an internal orientation is reflected. If, however, an individual perceives that counsequence events are not contingent upon his/her own behavior, a belief in external control would be manifest. Perception of causal relationship is a matter of degree variation, not an all-or-nothing determination. The score represents the total number of external items selected.

The earliest version of the test contained one hundred items comparing internal beliefs with external beliefs. Following factor and item analyzation, the test was reduced to sixty items and subjected to further refinement. Many items were discarded and the wording of some was changed to insure the scale's appropriate use with noncollege adults and high school students. The final version of the I/E scale consists of twenty-nine forced choice items including six filler statements intended to make the purpose of the test more obscure (Rotter, 1966).

Test-retest reliability at a one month interval is reported at +.73; and, although the test is additive, split-half coefficients of +.72 reflect a moderately high internal consistency. The scale correlates satisfactorily with other methods of assessing the same variable such as interview assessments, questionnaire, and story completion ratings. Validity is indicated with non-significant relationships with such variables as social desirability (-.12 to -.41) and intelligence (.01 to -.22), in behavioral predictions for persons above and below the I/E median, and from correlations with specific behavioral criteria (Rotter, 1966).

The Feminine Role Valuing Inventory (FRV)

The instrument is intended to designate on a continuum the degree to which a woman is either self-oriented

or other-oriented. The self-oriented woman is committed to actualizing her own potentials and considers her needs and satisfactions equally with others. The woman who is other-oriented seeks her own primary fulfillment through the achievements of others.

The rating inventory consists of thirty-four self-evaluative judgment statements of which half were formulated to meet the agreement of other-oriented women, and the other half to be consistent with the beliefs of women who are self-oriented (Steinmann, 1963).

The strength of agreement or disagreement with each statement is indicated using a five-point Likert type scale. The maximum scores, i.e., those indicating the strongest agreement possible, are at one end +68 and at the other end -68. Scores between zero and +68 represent proportional degrees of other-orientation; scores between zero and -68 indicate intermediate degrees of self-orientation.

Split-half reliability, when corrected with the Spearman-Brown procedure, is reported at +.81. The authors report that the items are generally accepted connotations which have been validated by independent judges and further substantiated by a clinical interview process. Validity coefficients are not provided, however (Steinmann, Levi, and Fox, 1964).

The Performance-Self-Esteem Scale (PSE)

The evidence suggests that sex differences are seldom reported for global measures of self-esteem (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). Factor analytic studies, however, do indicate differences between women and men on competency-based evaluations; females typically score lower than males when the ability/performance dimension of self-esteem is separately measured (Stake, 1980).

The Performance-Self-Esteem Scale provides an assessment of the ability/performance dimension. The instrument was "designed to tap a broad range of self-evaluations of ability and performance but to exclude other self-evaluations, such as those specific to likability or moral goodness" (Stake, 1979a, p. 368).

The instrument requires self-ratings of forty-seven trait items in a seven-point Likert-type format. Forty of the items are performance and ability related (positive and negative statements), and seven are filler items unrelated to achievement abilities.

Good reliability (+.90) and satisfactory discriminative validity findings have been reported. PSE scores are related to perceived compliments regarding the respondent's ability and performance, but not to perceptions of personal appearance compliments. Low correlations with social self-esteem characteristics (+.27) and defensiveness measures

(+.25) are also indicated, and in a sample of eighty female undergraduate students, the PSE ratings were found to be independent of general sex-role attitudes as measured by the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (+.04) (Stake, 1979a).

The Levenson Tri-Dimensional Locus of Control Scale (LLC)

The Levenson instrument, a unified attitude scale consisting of twenty-four items, measures the degree to which a person believes they have control over what happens to them. It is assumed that a personal-ideological distinction is made since the statements are phrased to pertain only to the respondent rather than for people in general.

Levenson (1974) theorized locus of control as a multi-dimensional construct and proposed a tripartite (I-P-C) model: internal (personal control), powerful others (external), and chance (external). I-P-C scales "were constructed in order to measure belief in chance expectancies as separate from a powerful others orientation. The rationale behind this tripartite differentiation stemmed from the reasoning that people who believe the world is unordered (chance) would behave and think differently from people who believe the world is ordered but that powerful others are in control" (p. 377). Each of the I-P-C scales consists of eight items in a six-point Likert format.

Correlations with the Rotter scale are reported to be +.64 for the I scale, +.77 for the P scale, and +.78 for the

C scale; test-retest reliabilities for one week of +.64, +.74, and +.78 have also been reported. The I-P-C scales, as predicted, differentiated such variables as anti-pollution activism and information seeking among four hundred twenty-five subjects in two studies and correlated between .00 and +.19 on social desirability with several groups of adults (Levenson, 1974).

V. PROCEDURES

The experimental group was scheduled to meet in two-hour blocks, 7:30 to 9:30 P.M., on eight consecutive Tuesday evenings, January 22nd through March 11, 1980. At the first meeting, participants received copies of Choosing (Nelson, 1977) and the Choice Awareness Workshop Guidebook (Nelson, 1979a).

Treatment sessions followed the basic sequential content outline recommended by Nelson (1979a), within the three-phase schema: (one) developing awareness - the nature of choices; (two) building understanding - the Choice Awareness system; and, (three) applying Choice Awareness - using choices more effectively. The following sessions outline was observed:

Session One	I Make Many Choices In Each Choice I Have Many Options
Session Two	I Have An Instant To Choose My Relationships Affect My Choices

Session Three	My Goals Affect My Relationships My Choices May Be OK Or OD
Session Four	I Have Five Kinds of Choices I Make Caring Choices
Session Five	I Make Ruling Choices I Make Enjoying Choices
Session Six	I Make Sorrowing Choices I Make Thinking/Working Choices
Session Seven	I Can Choose Listening, Feedback, and Involvement I Influence Consequences
Session Eight	I Choose My Feelings In the Moment I Choose How I Feel About Myself and Others

The step-by-step workshop format, in addition to the planned focus activities and goals (Nelson, 1979a), generally included the following components during each meeting: alloting a few minutes at the beginning of each session for the sharing of reactions in applying CA concepts during the past week; providing a brief loosening up activity to encourage active involvement and participation by all; listening to a brief audio-taped presentation (Nelson, 1979c) which corresponded with assigned readings; and, providing a few minutes to share now-feelings and state unfinished business in a final activity designed to produce closure (Nelson, 1979b).

Dyad assignments were made first on an individual selection basis, and it was originally intended that dyads would remain together for the duration of the workshop.

Once the sessions were in progress, however, a preference was expressed for partner rotation and the plan was changed midway in the course for the dyads to be chosen for individual sessions only.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

An appraisal of the efficacy of an experiential Choice Awareness Workshop with women participants was undertaken in the present study. An interpretation of the applied statistical analyses is provided in this chapter.

Utilizing pretest and posttest instrumental data from the Rotter Internal-External Center of Reinforcement Scale, the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory, the Performance Self-Esteem Scale, and the Levenson Locus of Control Measure, four primary null hypotheses (six dependent variables) were examined. Treatment effects for the fourteen experimental group participants and the pre-post conditional assessments for the seventeen member control group were statistically analyzed with paired t tests (correlated samples). The .05 level of significance was critical for statistical testing. With pretest scores representing covariates and posttest scores serving as dependent measures, univariate analyses of covariance provided an overall data assessment. The analysis of covariance design was selected to control statistically for any initial differences present in the participants which might confound the results.

The unequal numbers of experimental and control subjects obligated testing the equal variance assumption (Huck, Cormier, and Bounds, 1974). A conventional Bartlett's Box F test and Cochran's C test indicated homogeneity among variances for thirty-one cases on all but one of the variables considered. A significant pre-treatment difference ($p<.05$) existed between the two groups on the P Scale (powerful-others attributions) of the Levenson instrument. The common slope assumption was met with a test of parallel regression.

After the hypotheses were tested, correlational analyses were performed to explore the relationship between dependent variable measures and independent demographic variables.

I. HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis indicated that no significant difference would be obtained between the experimental and control groups on internal-external orientation scores as measured by the Rotter scale. Paired t tests to examine differences between pretest and posttest means for the two groups were performed.

There was a significant gain from pretest to posttest for the treatment subjects ($t=4.31$, $df=13$, $p<.05$).

Mean scores, standard deviations, and t values are listed in Table 1 for the two groups. The actual scores reflect a decrease in externality orientation for experimentals and controls, however, the change was non-significant for the no-treatment subjects.

Posttest means were adjusted for group differences on the basis of the covariate (pretest RIE scores). As seen in Table 2, the F value (F=2.45, df=1/28) which resulted from covariance analysis was not significant at the .05 level. Thus, the hypothesis was accepted. Although changes were noted in the predicted direction for the experimental group, the results indicated that the treatment and no-treatment groups did not differ significantly on the Rotter measure.

Hypothesis II

The second hypothesis indicated that no significant difference would be obtained between the experimental and control groups on the self appraisal scores as measured by the inventory of Feminine Role Valuing. To determine the extent of changes in self-other orientation, paired t tests for significant differences between pretest and posttest means were conducted.

Results of the t tests revealed non-significant differences for the two groups. Pretest and posttest means, standard deviations, and t values are shown in Table 3. The

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and t Values for Tests of Significance for Treatment and Control Groups on the Rotter Scale (RIE)

		Mean	SD	t Value
Experimental N=14	Pretest	9.40	3.92	-4.31[a]
	Posttest	7.79	3.38	
Control N=17	Pretest	8.12	4.04	-.77
	Posttest	7.71	3.35	

[a] $p < .05$.

Table 2. Post-Adjusted Means and ANCOVA F Values for Treatment and Control Groups on All Dependent Measures

Dependent Measure	Adjusted Means		F Values
	Experimental	Control	
RIE	7.23	8.17	2.45
FRV	21.53	20.21	.29
PSE	96.38	97.57	.04
LLC-I	14.90	13.20	.93
LLC-P	-9.86	-8.41	.32
LLC-C	-8.57	-6.70	.55

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations, and *t* Values for Tests of Significance for Treatment and Control Groups on the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory (FRV)

		Mean	SD	*t* Value
Experimental N=14	Pretest	22.71	12.63	.51
	Posttest	23.57	10.37	
Control N=17	Pretest	18.24	15.16	.16
	Posttest	18.53	15.45	

statistics indicate virtually no change for the experimental participants on the role valuing variable.

An adjustment for group differences of posttest means was made on the basis of the covariate (pretest FRV scores). The one-way analysis of covariance (Table 2) revealed a non-significant F value. There was a failure, therefore, to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis III

The third hypothesis predicted no difference between the experimental and control groups on the ability-performance dimension of self-esteem as measured by the Performance Self-Esteem scale. Paired *t* tests applied to the pre-treatment and post-treatment PSE scores revealed non-significant gains for both groups. Means, standard deviations, and *t* values are listed in Table 4.

Posttest means on the PSE were adjusted on the basis of the pretest scores (covariate). The F value ($F=.04$, $df=1/28$) resulting from the analysis of covariance revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on this dependent variable (Table 2). Although gains were made by the treatment subjects in the predicted direction, significance which would have enabled rejection of the hypothesis at the .05 level was not demonstrated.

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, and t Values for Tests of Significance for Treatment and Control Groups on the Performance Self-Esteem Scale (PSE)

		Mean	SD	t Value
Experimental N=14	Pretest	86.50	27.67	.95
	Posttest	91.00	28.72	
Control N=17	Pretest	98.18	25.30	1.15
	Posttest	102.00	25.08	

Hypothesis IV

The fourth hypothesis predicted no difference between the experimental and control groups on the tri-dimensional (I-P-C) locus of control scores as measured by the Levenson scale. Separate paired *t* tests for the two groups were applied to the pretests and posttests on each of the three scales. Means, standard deviations, and *t* values for these three variables are shown in Tables 5 and 6. A summary of the one-way analysis of covariance F values is provided in Table 7.

I Scale (Internality)

Moderate pretest-posttest gains were made in internality; however, the results of the *t* tests indicated non-significant differences. The F value for this dependent variable also failed to achieve significance.

P Scale (Powerful-others)

A statistically significant gain for the experimentals from pretest to posttest was revealed in the paired *t* test ($t=-2.91$, $df=13$, $p<.05$) shown in Table 6. The actual scores reflect a lessening in powerful-others attributions (Table 5). Posttest means on the P scale were adjusted for group differences on the basis of the covariate (pretest scores).

Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations for Treatment and Control Groups on Three Scales of the Levenson Measure (LLC)

Scales	Experimental, N=14		Control, N=17	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
I Scale				
Pretest	12.79	4.84	11.82	6.47
Posttest	15.21	5.42	12.94	6.27
P Scale				
Pretest	-3.14	9.93	-9.12	5.90
Posttest	-8.21	8.46	-9.76	7.02
C Scale				
Pretest	-7.36	7.96	-9.14	6.89
Posttest	-5.76	8.88	-6.24	10.03

Table 6. t Values for Tests of Significance for Treatment and Control Groups on Three Scales of the Levenson Measure (LLC)

Scales	t Values	
	Experimental, N=14	Control, N=17
(I) Internality	1.62	.90
(P) Powerful-others	-2.91[a]	-.52
(C) Chance	-.97	-.25

[a] $p < .05$.

Table 7. Summary of Analysis of Covariance for Six Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable	Source of Variation	df	ss	ms	F
Internality (RIE)	Between	1	.049	6.608	2.45
	Within	28	75.664	2.702	
Self-orientation (FRV)	Between	1	195.175	12.946	.29
	Within	28	1234.758	44.099	
Self-esteem (PSE)	Between	1	928.968	10.424	.04
	Within	28	6541.155	233.613	
Internality (LLC)	Between	1	39.669	22.057	.93
	Within	28	666.846	23.816	
Other-orientation (LLC)	Between	1	18.455	14.193	.32
	Within	28	1253.222	44.758	
Chance Orientation (LLC)	Between	1	64.904	26.638	.55
	Within	28	1344.283	48.010	

A non-significant F value (F=.32, df=1/28) resulting from the analysis of covariance indicated that there was no difference between the experimental and control groups on this dependent variable when the covariate was taken into account (Table 7). A statistically significant ($p<.05$) pre-treatment difference between the experimental and control groups was noted for the P scale. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance for this variable was not met.

C Scale (Chance)

Modest gains were made on this scale by the experimental group. The scores reflect fewer chance attributions as shown in Table 5. The t test results ($t=-.97$, df=13) did not indicate significance (Table 6), nor was the F value (F=.55, df=1/28) resulting from the analysis of covariance significant at the .05 level (Table 7).

Trends in the predicted direction were observed on all three Levenson scales, and a significant t test gain for the treatment group on the P scale was noted. Nevertheless, when the covariate was considered, the analysis of covariance failed to achieve significance. As a consequence, the fourth hypothesis was accepted.

No systematic relationship was demonstrated between the independent demographic variables of age, marital status, number of children, education, and employment and the six dependent variables in the Pearson product-moment correlational analysis. Significant ($p<.0001$) correlation coefficients ($r=.83$ pretest and $r=.81$ posttest) were revealed between the scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the scores on the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory, indicating that high self-attribution scores correlated with high feminist attitude scores.

II. ANALYSES

The correlated sample *t* tests, analyses of covariance, tests for homogeneity of variance, and the correlational analyses were computed at The University of Tennessee Computer Center. The data analyses utilized UTCC statistical programs SAS and SPSS.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of a Choice Awareness experiential workshop, utilizing a dyadic format, as a potentially contributive intervention strategy for women. More specifically, the study examined the effects of the treatment on locus of control, performance self-esteem and self-oriented attributions. Pretest and posttest scores for thirty-one subjects were obtained on the Rotter Internal-External Center for reinforcement Scale, the Feminine Role Valuing Inventory, the Performance Self-Esteem Scale, and the three dimensions (I-P-C) of the Levenson Locus of Control Scale.

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that non-significant positive effects, attributable to the Choice Awareness treatment, were demonstrated to some degree for each of the selected variables. Although the results were insufficiently high to achieve statistical significance, the detection of directional trends is encouraging enough to merit, with some modifications, further investigation of the Choice Awareness system with women.

I. SUMMARY

Dependent Variable Analyses

Internality (RIE). The Rotter instrument results indicate the degree to which respondents reflect either internal or external reinforcement expectancies. The lower the person's score, the greater is the extent of internality orientation.

The within group analysis revealed statistically significant dependent variable enhancement for the workshop participants, and control subjects reflected some minimal increase as well. The data failed to demonstrate significance, however, when the analysis of covariance procedure was applied to compare the posttest outcomes. While the overall results did not achieve significance, some intensification of the internality dimension was detected in the treatment group.

Self-orientation (FRV). The self-oriented woman (activity expanse) has committed to actualizing her own potentials and strives to view equally with those of others her own needs and satisfactions. The woman who is other-oriented (passivity expanse) is more traditionally motivated to encourage and support the achievements of others and to subordinate her own needs.

Although the change in self-orientation for the treatment subjects did occur in the predicted direction, the slight gains were not statistically significant. It is possible that eight weeks were insufficient time in which to effect significant changes in this self-evaluative variable.

Self-esteem (PSE). Stake (1980) reported a 12.22 point posttest over pretest PSE gain for ninety-six women in assertive training. This is roughly equivalent to the mean pretest difference (11.68) between the experimental and control groups in the present study. The higher mean for the control group could in part be due to the fact that members participated in other workshops prior to the initiation of this study. The statistical analysis took these pretest differences into account in comparing the outcome data.

The Performance-Self-Esteem Scale detected gains in positive self appraisal in nearly equal amounts for subjects in the experimental and control groups. The analysis of covariance revealed no statistically significant posttest difference.

Internality, powerful-others attributions, chance attributions (LLC I-P-C scales). Scores on the I scale reflected a modest treatment increase in internality

orientation (personal control), and statements which reflected chance attributions (C scale) were rated lower on the posttesting by the treatment subjects. The within group analysis of the P scale showed a statistically significant decrease in powerful-others attributions for the workshop participants; however, the results of the analysis of covariance showed no statistically significant differences for any of the three scales.

II. DISCUSSION

One of the contributing factors for statistical non-significance in comparing posttest data is the finding that some gains were made by control group subjects. Some of the controls had taken other short courses at the center, and some enrolled in assertive training during an interim between the pretesting and posttesting, confounding these results to some extent. The investigator could not control for this contingency.

The number of participants was within the ideal range recommended by Nelson (1979b) for the workshop experience. However, the fact that differences between the two groups could not be statistically supported at the .05 level may have been a result of the small sample size.

There was no provision for alternate contact time for any workshop sessions missed. Subjects were expected

to keep current in reading and complete on their own any missed assignments before the next meeting. It is unknown how much influence the contact variable exerted on the overall results.

The investigator and workshop facilitator recommended that a commensurate fee be charged the workshop participants. A legitimizing fee, it was believed, might attract persons who reflected more a sincerity of purpose and genuine commitment to growth exploration. The inability of those who expressed an interest to afford a fee was not the matter of concern. Rather, for the reason that data collected from the subjects would be used in a research project, Women's Horizons made the decision that no fees would be assessed. It is possible that the "no-charge" workshop may have contributed to a devaluing of the experience by some of the participants.

In intermittent reaction papers, some participants indicated that the workshop was not what they had expected. That the sessions were too highly structured was one complaint. It is true that women in groups, particularly at a community women's center, generally adhere to a structure which allows more spontaneous expressiveness.

Another objection concerned activities which clearly were not designed for female dyads. Implicit in many of the partner exercises and activities was that a personal relationship existed for the pairs outside the group.

Nelson (1979b) indicates that the person-to-person format is "designed to bring together a variety of people who wish to enhance their interpersonal skills," and that "the leader may exercise the option of assigning pairs for the period of the individual session or for the duration of the workshop" (p. 3). Dyadic assignments in this study were at first assigned for the eight weeks of the workshop. Once the sessions were in progress, however, a preference for dyadic rotation was indicated by a number of participants and a plan for dyads to be chosen at individual sessions was implemented.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

Time Considerations

The present study evaluated the effects of an experiential Choice Awareness workshop over an eight-week period. Sixteen hours were insufficient to include all of the planned exercises and activities. Moreover, the pretesting and posttesting consumed some of the scheduled time. It is recommended that the length of time for the workshop be expanded to twenty-four hours or even longer. Variations in the scheduling of meetings, e.g., four six-hour sessions, eight three-hour sessions, or twelve two-hour sessions, may also be considered.

That the time frame was insufficiently long to effect behavioral changes of such magnitude to achieve statistical significance is a possibility. Future studies could investigate, along with an expanded treatment period, the effects of delayed posttesting and follow-up testing.

Instrumentation

The limited direct validity evidence for the instruments utilized in this study is reported in Chapter III. It is strongly believed by this researcher, however, that the failure to achieve statistical significance within the design of this study is related more to time factors and extraneous variables than to the inability of the measurement devices to detect changes. Therefore, additional work with the instruments used in this study is suggested for future research. Other locus of control measures, such as the Nowicki and Duke (1974) scale could also be considered.

Future researchers are cautioned in the selection of instrumentation for reasons other than validity and reliability concerns. Kogan and Dorris (1978) acknowledged, for example, a "strong masculine bias" (p. 756) in the Choice Dilemmas Questionnaire.

In the future, an effort could be made to develop valid and reliable instrumentation for assessing both the perceived latitude of choice options and the quality

of choice behaviors, within the Choice Awareness paradigm. An anecdotal journal maintained by participants over the course of the workshop could provide self-evident judgments about choice behaviors.

Participants

Volunteer participants on a first-come, first-served basis were necessarily utilized in the present study. Future research could develop a purposeful suitability criteria for prospective workshop participants. As a part of the screening process, participants should be oriented to realistic expectations for the workshop experience. The facilitator reported in her journal that some of the women had entered the workshop with unrealistic expectations for the experience and its outcomes.

Despite reported problems in interpersonal relating experienced by some of the workshop dyads, a discontinuance of the format is not recommended. Rather, it is believed that a conditional orienting of participants to the dyadic structure to determine their interest and insure their cooperation is necessary in the future.

Materials

The utility of the Leader's Manual (Nelson, 1979b) would be greatly improved if it were reorganized to follow a sequential session progression rather than its present differential activity format.

It is also suggested that literary revisions be made in the materials to be more specifically applicable to women. The inclusion of female pictures and voices in the existing materials would enhance its appeal with this subject population. Supplementary films and video tapes might also be considered. It is essential that role models be available in some form to women in transition to provide added psychological incentives.

Theoretical Rationale

The functional relationship between a woman's desire to take control of her life and her conceptions of the female role are irrefutable. Perhaps the most vital concern of all for future research is how to incorporate into limited intervention strategies with women an approach to understanding the nature of role constraints. How can true dissonance reduction over role conflict be managed within the confines of the Choice Awareness system? What are the implications of the uniquely feminine cognitive styles?

With the goal of direct exploration of how sex role socialization limits choices and imposes behavioral constraints, the inclusion in the Choice Awareness system of cognitive restructuring experiences specifically designed for women seems warranted. Mausner and Coles (1978) express concern that women be able to "walk through

the doors which are opening for them and cope with the many problems of role conflict and role strain which await them along with success" (p. 48). Furthermore, Tyrell (1977) cautions that values must change before goals can change and that "any educational process which ignores this simple fact is doomed to futility" (p. 2).

IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Throughout the literature, researchers suggest that female behavior is far more complex, variable, and less well understood than that of males. Some theorists caution about a too simplistic interpretation of female research findings and a need to detect multivariable and combinational effects (Nowicki, et al., 1978).

The exclusion of women as subjects in psychological research has delayed empirical validation of female behavior. Prescott's (1978) recent inquiry into the publications of sixty-two researchers revealed, in studies with single sex subjects (male), that 70 percent failed even to mention sex of subjects, and over 90 percent of all-male studies were generalized to women. The compelling desire among some researchers to explain the total range of human behavior while excluding women creates a question of theoretical legitimacy.

How women are characterized in research is another growing concern. Since developmental inferiority is directly attributable to the masculinist standards by which quality is measured, other researchers are calling for a feministic perspective in behavioral inquiry to insure that women are not characterized as deviant or abberant. Gilligan (1977) argues for "an expanded developmental theory that would include, rather than rule out from developmental consideration, the difference in the feminine voice" (p. 516).

The feminist focus on personal choice is thought by many to be the key to enhanced psychological functioning in women (Faunce, 1980). The essence of a newly acquired competency is the exercise of choice and a willingness to be responsible for that choice. It is the onus of responsibility that will demand confrontation and subsequent invalidation of role restraints by individual female persons.

Perhaps the truest measure of the efficacy of Choice Awareness with women will be how successfully role factors can be assimilated into the theoretical growth potential constructs. The Choice Awareness system commits to the maximization of human potential and offers promise for women who want to claim more personal control in their lives. Presently, however, it falls short in alerting women to their own uniquely personal value systems.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

IT IS UNDERSTOOD THAT DATA FURNISHED BY PARTICIPANTS IS INTENDED FOR USE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT: ANY AND ALL INFORMATION WILL BE KEPT STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL. THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY WILL BE FURNISHED UPON REQUEST.

_____ _____

PARTICIPANT DATE

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT DATA FORM

NAME_____ ID NUMBER_____

_____

_____

PHONE HOME_____ WORK_____

AGE _____ MARITAL STATUS_____

EDUCATION_____

CHILDREN (Please indicate gender and age)

_____

_____

_____

WORK

Are you presently?

_____ Unemployed outside your home

_____ Employed full time outside your home

_____ Employed part time outside your home

DESCRIBE THE NATURE OF WORK THAT YOU ARE PRESENTLY DOING AND/OR HAVE DONE IN THE PAST.

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

Table 8. Subject Demographic Data

	Group	Age	Marital Status	Children	Education	Employment
1	Experimental	79	Married	None	Some College	Part time
2	Experimental	27	Single	None	Some College	Full time
3	Experimental	35	Married	Two	Some College	Full time
4	Experimental	30	Married	None	Master's Degree	Unemployed
5	Experimental	51	Divorced	Two	Some College	Unemployed
6	Experimental	28	Divorced	None	Some College	Unemployed
7	Experimental	51	Divorced	Three	Some College	Full time
8	Experimental	59	(Blank)	Five	High School	Unemployed
9	Experimental	52	Married	None	Some School	Part time
10	Experimental	43	Married	None	Master's Degree	Full time
11	Experimental	53	Married	None	High School	Full time
12	Experimental	52	Married	None	High School	Full time
13	Experimental	49	Divorced	None	Some College	Full time
14	Experimental	46	Single	None	Master's Degree	Full time
15	Control	55	Separated	Three	Some College	Unemployed
16	Control	61	Married	One	Some College	Full time
17	Control	45	Married	None	Some College	Part time
18	Control	53	Married	Four	Some College	Part time
19	Control	33	Married	None	Bachelor's Degree	Full time
20	Control	31	Married	None	High School	Full time
21	Control	30	Divorced	Two	Some College	Full time
22	Control	55	Divorced	Three	Bachelor's Degree	Part time
23	Control	62	Divorced	Four	High School	Unemployed
24	Control	24	(Blank)	None	Bachelor's Degree	Part time
25	Control	46	Divorced	Three	Some College	Full time
26	Control	49	Married	None	Bachelor's Degree	Full time

Table 8. (Cont'd)

	Group	Age	Marital Status	Children	Education	Employment
27	Control	30	Single	One	Some College	Unemployed
28	Control	20	(Blank)	None	High School	Full time
29	Control	44	Married	Three	Some College	Part time
30	Control	33	Divorced	None	Master's Degree	Full time
31	Control	31	Divorced	None	Some College	Part time

APPENDIX D

ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN SCALE

The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the role of women in society which different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feeling about each statement by indicating whether you (A) Agree strongly, (B) Agree mildly, (C) Disagree mildly, or (D) Disagree strongly. Please indicate your opinion by circling the letter preceeding the statement which best describes your personal attitude.

(A) Agree strongly
(B) Agree mildly
(C) Disagree mildly
(D) Disagree strongly

A B C D 1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.

A B C D 2. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.

A B C D 3. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.

A B C D 4. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.

A B C D 5. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

A B C D 6. Women should assume their rightful places in business and all the professions along with men.

A B C D 7. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.

A B C D 8. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.

A B C D 9. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.

A B C D 10. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.

A B C D 11. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.

A B C D 12. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.

A B C D 13. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.

A B C D 14. Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.

A B C D 15. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.

A B C D 16. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together.

A B C D 17. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.

A B C D 18. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.

A B C D 19. Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone before marriage, even their fiances.

A B C D 20. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income.

A B C D 21. Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.

A B C D 22. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.

A B C D 23. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

A B C D 24. On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to economic production than are men.

A B C D 25. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given to the modern boy.

APPENDIX E

ROTTER INTERNAL-EXTERNAL CENTER OF REINFORCEMENT SCALE

This is a questionnaire to find out the ways in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives letter a or b. Please select the one statement of each pair (only one) which you more strongly BELIEVE to be the case as far as you are concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously there are no right or wrong answers.

You may circle your a or b choice for each item on the sheet. Be sure to include your ID number in the space provided.

Please answer these items carefully, but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to select an answer for every choice. In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. Also, try to respond to each item independently when making your choice: do not be influenced by your previous choices.

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
   b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.

2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
   b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
   b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
   b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
   b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
   b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
   b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
   b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.

9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
   b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
    b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
    b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
    b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
    b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

14. a. There are certain people who are just no good.
    b. There is some good in everybody.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

23. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
    b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
    b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.

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

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

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

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

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

APPENDIX F

FEMININE ROLE VALUING INVENTORY

PLEASE RESPOND TO THESE STATEMENTS WITH YOUR TRUE OPINION. KEEP IN MIND THE WAY YOU REALLY ARE.

1. STRONGLY AGREE
2. AGREE
3. NO OPINION/DON'T KNOW
4. DISAGREE
5. STRONGLY DISAGREE

_____ 1. An ambitious and responsible husband does not like his wife to work.
_____ 2. I usually pay no attention to other people's feelings.
_____ 3. A woman who works cannot possibly be as good a mother as the one who stays home.
_____ 4. I would like to do something that everybody knows is important.
_____ 5. I try to do what I think people want me to do.
_____ 6. A woman has a conflict in what she has to do as a woman and what she wishes to do for herself.
_____ 7. A woman should get married even if the man does not measure up to all her hopes.
_____ 8. I sometimes feel that I must do everything myself, that I can accept nothing from others.
_____ 9. The needs of a family come before a woman's personal ambitions.
_____10. I am not sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices.
_____11. I like listening to people better than talking.
_____12. I argue with people who try to give me orders.
_____13. Marriage and children should come first in a woman's life.
_____14. When I am with a group of people, I usually become the leader.
_____15. I worry about what people think of me.
_____16. I express my ideas strongly.
_____17. Single women need personal success, but all a married woman needs is her husband's success.
_____18. I would not get married if I had to give up what I really believe in order to get along with another person.

_____19. It is up to the woman to make a marriage work.
_____20. A working mother can get along as well with her children as can a mother who stays at home.
_____21. The greatest help a wife can give her husband is to encourage his progress.
_____22. It is unfair that women have to give up more than men in order to have a good marriage.
_____23. I can put myself in the background and work hard for a person I admire.
_____24. A wife's opinion should be as important as the husband's opinion.
_____25. My main interest is to raise normal, well-behaved children.
_____26. How I develop as a person is more important to me than what others think of me.
_____27. If we disagree, I would give in to my husband more often than I would expect him to give in to me.
_____28. The greatest satisfactions in life come from what you do yourself.
_____29. I would like to marry a man to whom I can really look up to.
_____30. A woman should have interests outside the home.
_____31. I am sure that what a woman gains from marriage makes up for sacrifices.
_____32. Modern mothers should bring up their boys and girls to believe in absolute equal rights and freedoms for both sexes.
_____33. A woman's place is in the home.
_____34. I would rather be famous, admired and popular throughout the nation than have the constant affection of just one man.

APPENDIX G

PERFORMANCE SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Describe Yourself

1 - Never or almost never untrue
2 - Usually not true
3 - Sometimes but infrequently true
4 - Occasionally true
5 - Often true
6 - Usually true
7 - Always or almost always true

Productive		Self-sufficient	
Assertive		Self reliant	
Friendly		Easily hurt	
Tough		Good sense of humor	
Clever		Inefficient	
Creative		Enjoys a challenge	
Self critical		Pleasant	
Able to give orders		Persuasive	
Nervous		Has initiative	
Businesslike		Willing to take risks	

Powerful	
Acts as a leader	
Logical	
Likes responsibility	
Neighborly	
Feels good about own accomplishments	
Pessimistic	
Good business sense	
Makes mistakes when flustered	
Sociable	
Yielding	
Headed for success	
Competent	

Indecisive	
Forceful	
Intelligent	
Self-conscious	
Warm	
Unstable	
Able to put ideas across	
Individualistic	
Willing to take a stand	
Gullible	
Ambitious	
Fun to be with	
Avoids competition	
Lack confidence	

APPENDIX H

LEVENSON TRI-DIMENSIONAL LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

Using the scale -3, -2, -1, +1, +2, and +3, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following items. Let -3 represent complete disagreement and +3, complete agreement. Put the number representing the degree of your agreement or disagreement by each item.

_____ 1. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.
_____ 2. To a great extent, my life is controlled by accidental happenings.
_____ 3. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.
_____ 4. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am.
_____ 5. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.
_____ 6. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad-luck happenings.
_____ 7. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.
_____ 8. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power.
_____ 9. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.
_____10. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
_____11. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.
_____12. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck.
_____13. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.
_____14. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.
_____15. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.

_____16. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.
_____17. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends.
_____18. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.
_____19. I am usually able to protect my personal interests.
_____20. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.
_____21. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.
_____22. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.
_____23. My life is determined by my own actions.
_____24. It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends.

APPENDIX I

Table 9. Summary of Pretest/Posttest Means, Standard Deviations and Adjusted Means for Treatment and Control Groups on Six Dependent Measures

Dependent Measure	Group	Pretest $\bar{X}$	Pretest SD	Posttest $\bar{X}$	Posttest SD	Adjusted $\bar{X}$
RIE	Experimental	9.50	3.92	7.79	3.38	7.74
	Control	8.12	4.04	7.71	3.35	
FRV	Experimental	22.71	12.63	23.57	10.37	20.81
	Control	18.24	15.16	18.53	15.45	
PSE	Experimental	86.50	27.67	91.00	28.72	97.03
	Control	98.18	25.30	102.00	25.08	
LLC-I	Experimental	12.79	4.84	15.21	5.42	13.97
	Control	11.82	6.47	12.94	6.27	
LLC-P	Experimental	-3.14	9.93	-8.21	8.46	-9.06
	Control	-9.12	5.90	-9.76	7.02	
LLC-C	Experimental	-7.36	7.96	-9.14	6.89	-7.55
	Control	-5.76	8.88	-6.24	10.03	

VITA

Barbara Cooksey Matthews is an Associate Professor of Psychology at Palm Beach Community College. There she was instrumental in the planning and development of the campus Center for Early Learning which serves children of students, staff, and faculty. She developed three curricula programs in Early Childhood Education in conjunction with the center which is endorsed by the State of Florida as an exemplary educational program. The C.E.L. is the only public college Montessori teacher training facility in the country. Her elementary education was received in Miami, Florida, and she graduated from Central High School in Nashville, Tennessee. A graduate of the National Academy of Broadcasting in Washington, D.C., she pursued broadcasting, U.S. Government, and private industry careers prior to completing her college education. She received the Bachelor of Arts degree, summa cum laude, from Florida Atlantic University in 1966 and the Master's degree the following year. The doctoral residency at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, was completed in 1975, after which she pioneered the development of Women's Studies on her campus with Feminist Psychology. At the first annual awards for women ceremony in 1978, she was recognized by the Palm Beach County Commissioners for her community

service contribution in education and research. The Doctor of Education degree in Educational Psychology and Guidance was awarded in June 1980. She is the mother of one son, Kyle.