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DISSertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
Barbara Ann Passmore, B.S. in Ed., M.A. in Ed.

The Ohio State University
1977

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

With the onset of the Women's Liberation Movement and the Equal Rights Amendment, females are being granted "rights" and equal opportunities under the law in areas of employment and education. They are being encouraged to undertake many roles and behaviors in the world of work, education, and leisure which were previously reserved for males. Additionally, strict adherence to traditional sex role behaviors has relaxed in middle class families. This relaxation is strongly correlated to educational levels of the parents (Bardwick, 1971).

Although there is increased encouragement for women to undertake new roles now available, traditional socialization norms for females reinforce such feminine traits as nurturance, docility, submissiveness, and conservatism (Block, 1973). Thus, when today's women attempt to break out of the stereotypic female role, feelings of anxiety about possible social disapproval and loss of femininity may arise. This is so because society is in a period of change wherein old and new norms co-exist and the
norms of what is acceptable, desirable, or preferable are no longer clear. As a result, it is more difficult to achieve a feminine (or masculine) identity, to achieve self esteem because one is not certain when one has succeeded (Bardwick, 1971, p. 57).

Women tend to react in several ways to the problems of undertaking their new freedoms and roles. Some women have retreated to the stereotypic female role and have altogether rejected concepts of women's equality and rights. Others have become exceptionally aggressive. Still others have banded together to form such organizations as N.O.W., which encourage legal and political changes for the equality of women.

Whether a woman rejects her "rights," joins an aggressive women's liberationist group, or works in other ways toward political and legal solutions for her equality, she experiences an awareness of deficiencies in her personal growth. Jakubowski-Spector (1973) believes that three converging trends are responsible for a woman's awareness and concern over deficiencies in her personal growth. The first trend is the increase of interest in the 70's in personal growth through sensitivity and encounter groups. The second trend is the increasing experimentation of new role behaviors by women. And the third trend is the growth of the women's movement which encourages consciousness raising and self examination.

A result of these converging trends is that women are more accurately aware that society encourages them to
attend to other's needs and preferences, deny their own needs, and devote themselves to winning other's love and approval. As a result, many women lose a sense of their own identity which is indeed a grave deficiency. In fact, "women are often left not even being able to identify what their legitimate human rights and goals are" (Wolfe and Foder, 1975, p. 45).

In order to overcome the effects of out-dated socialized values and behaviors, women need to confront cultural expectations and their beliefs about themselves. If what they want and need does not fit the "old" version of who they "ought" to be, then they must learn new ways of interacting with others.

New ways of interacting with others take the form of finding the "middle ground" between the unassertive individual who conceals his emotions and allows others to take advantage of him and the aggressive individual who loses control of his emotions, thereby violating the rights and self-dignity of others (Cotler, 1975). The "middle ground" in interaction is called assertiveness.

Assertiveness is the expression of one's feelings, beliefs, opinions, and needs in a direct, honest, and appropriate manner. Such assertive behavior reflects a high regard for one's own personal rights and the rights of others (Lange, Rimm, & Loxley, 1975, p. 37).

Women can learn to be assertive through training which assists them in (1) expressing their feelings and emotions, (2) making free choices without undue anxiety or
guilt, and (3) acting in ways which do not violate the rights of others. This type of training was first described by Salter (1949) in his book entitled *Conditioned Reflex Therapy*, and further developed in the work of Wolpe and Lazarus (1958, 1966, 1969). Alberti and Emmons' book, *Your Perfect Right: A Guide to Assertive Behavior*, (1974) and Jakubowski-Spector's article, "Facilitating the Growth of Women through Assertive Training" (1973), were instrumental in popularizing assertion training for women.

With the advent of increased opportunities for women's participation in interscholastic and intercollegiate sports and the signing of Title IX, many role conflicts are occurring in female athletes. In sport, as in education and employment, women are encouraged and granted "rights" to participate in many new activities which were previously labeled as being in the "masculine domain." Yet, women are increasingly reinforced by their peers to subscribe to and act according to culturally decreed and traditional "female traits." Neal and Tutko suggest that many females withdraw from physical activity at an early age in response to social pressures and personal dissonance. They state that,

only those who are strong enough to erect an emotional barrier to criticism and discouragement offered by those around them can maintain enough motivation and courage within themselves to continue athletic participation (1975, p. 13).
Like Neal and Tutko, Tyler (1973) has discussed dissonance in the female athlete. However, she described dissonance experienced by female athletes as a split between two selves, the sport self and the social self. Unlike Neal and Tutko, she hypothesized that women athletes who remain in sport attempt to resolve the dissonance of sport self and social self by taking one of the following actions:

1. Eliminating the social self.
2. Extending the sport self into the social situation by becoming aggressive, assertive, toughminded, unempathic, domineering, and manly.
3. Being a sport self in sport settings and being a social self in social settings.

Both Neal and Tutko (1975) and Tyler (1973) present an explanation about women athletes which causes one to ask the general question: Are women athletes different than women in general, particularly in social situations? More specifically: Do women athletes differ from women in general on their level of assertiveness in social situations?

If Neal and Tutko (1975) are correct, one would expect women athletes to differ in social situations from women in general on their level of assertiveness. If Tyler (1973) is correct, one would expect any of the following: (1) women athletes who resolve their dissonance
by eliminating their social self would be less assertive in social situations than women in general; (2) women athletes who resolve their dissonance by extending their sport self into their social self would be more assertive in social situations than women in general; and (3) women athletes who resolve their dissonance by presenting a sport self in sport settings and a social self in social settings would be as assertive in social situations as women in general. In all but one prediction suggested by Tyler (1973), women athletes would differ in their level of assertiveness from women in general.

Level of assertiveness may be affected by several factors in the socialization of women athletes. The family influence, particularly the fathers, is a critical factor in sex role preferences (Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1964). Therefore, the fathers' participation in athletics may provide a role model for the daughter's assertive behavior. Also, sibling relationships have been found to influence sex role preferences (Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1968; Landers, 1970). More specifically, the sex of the sibling(s), particularly older sibling(s), seems to be related to the degree of femininity of the female (Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1964). Thus, sex of older sibling(s) may affect assertiveness of females.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to ascertain whether or not female college athletes are different from college women in general on the dimension of assertion.

The second intent of this study was to describe the relationship between assertiveness and the following selected variables: level of parents' education, parents' occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s). Since the level of assertiveness of women is assumed to be influenced by the socialization process, these selected variables were taken to be indirect measures of that process.

Within the above context, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Are women intercollegiate athletes different from college women in general with respect to assertiveness?

2. Are women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports different from women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports with respect to assertiveness?

3. Is there a relationship between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the following demographic variables: level of parents' education and occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s)?
Hypotheses

The research problems generated four hypotheses. The first two hypotheses are related to question one. Hypotheses three and four are related to questions two and three, respectively.

I. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general on the College Self Expression Scale (a measure of assertiveness).

II. There is no significant difference between the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes and the mean scores of the norm groups in Galassi's study using the College Self Expression Scale.

III. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports and women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports on the College Self Expression Scale.

IV. There is no significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes, as measured by the College Self Expression Scale, and the following demographic variables; level of parents' education, parents' occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s).
IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

This study adds to the growing body of research which describes the characteristics of women athletes. By examining the level of assertiveness of women athletes the study makes a unique contribution. The results of this study may indirectly encourage research in the area of the effectiveness of assertion training with women athletes.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms used throughout the study are defined below.

Assertiveness: Assertiveness\(^1\) is defined by Galassi as: (1) Positive assertiveness—expressing compliments, requesting favors, or expressing affection; (2) Negative assertiveness—expressing justified annoyance or anger; and (3) self affirmation—self denial—standing up for legitimate rights, refusing unreasonable requests, and exaggerated concern for the feelings of others.

Women Intercollegiate Athletes: Women intercollegiate athletes were defined as female students enrolled at Indiana State University during the Fall Semester, 1976, and whose names appear on an official team roster. (See

\(^{1}\)Aggression by contrast is defined by accomplishing ends at the expense of others. It is a "put down" of those others by humiliating and hurting them. It is the attainment of a goal by denying the rights of others.
Chapter III section entitled Population for a more extensive definition).

**College Women in General:** College women in general were defined as female students enrolled at Indiana State University during the Fall Semester, 1976, whose names do not appear on an official team roster. (See Chapter III section entitled Population for a more extensive definition.)

**Norm Groups:** For the purposes of this study the norm groups were defined as the groups used in Galassi's initial study of validity and reliability (Galassi, Delo, Galassi, & Bastien, 1975).

**Individual Sports:** Individual sports were defined as all games and activities in which one person can participate alone or with an opponent, or with a partner and a pair of opponents. In this study the following sports are considered individual: badminton, bowling, cross country track, golf, gymnastics, swimming, and tennis.

**Team Sports:** Team sports were defined as all games and activities in which five or more players participate simultaneously against another group of opponents. In this study the following sports are considered team sports: basketball, field hockey, and volleyball.

**Parents' Participation in Athletics:** For the purposes of this study, parents' participation in athletics was defined as: father's participation in interscholastic
and/or intercollegiate athletics; and mother's participation in interscholastic and/or intercollegiate athletics.

**Parents' Occupation:** For the purposes of this study parents' (mother's and/or father's) occupation was defined as a number code assigned according to Alba Edwards' Social-Economic Grouping of Occupations (Miller, 1970). Code numbers range from one to seven and represent the following socio-economic grouping of occupations, respectively: professional technical, and kindred workers; business managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical and kindred workers; craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers; operatives and kindred workers; laborers; and none.

**Level of Parents' Education:** Level of parents' (mother's and/or father's) education was defined in this study as a number code. Code numbers range from one to seven and represent the following levels of education, respectively: completion of less than seven years of school, completion of junior high school, completion of partial high school, completion of high school, completion of partial college training, completion of college or university baccalaureate degree, completion of graduate professional training.
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The conclusions or generalizations made as a result of this study must be considered in light of the limitations discussed below.

1. The subjects in this study were selected from the population of freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior college women who were registered during the Fall Semester, 1976, at Indiana State University. The women's intercollegiate athletic group consisted of women whose names appeared on the following official team rosters: basketball, field hockey, volleyball, badminton, bowling, cross country track, golf, gymnastics, swimming, and tennis. The college women in general group consisted of those (a) whose names did not appear on one of the above official team rosters and (b) who were enrolled in all courses offered by the Women's Physical Education Department during the Fall Semester, 1976.

2. It is unknown if subjects in the college women in general group were participants in non-university athletics.

3. Assertion has been defined and measured in various ways (Bates & Zimmerman, 1971; Lawrence, 1970; McFall & Lillesand, 1971; Rathus, 1973). However, in this study Galassi's definition and measure of assertion, the College Self Expression Scale (Galassi, Delo, Galassi,
& Bastien, 1974), are employed. (See Chapter III section entitled Instrumentation.)

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

For the purposes of this study the following assumptions were made:

1. As with all self report data, responses on Galassi's College Self Expression Scale and the demographic data form are assumed to be accurate self reports.

2. Galassi's College Self Expression Scale is a valid indicator of assertiveness.
Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITÉRATURE
AND RESEARCH

This chapter is divided into the following sections: (1) socialization of the female, (2) literature and research on assertiveness, and (3) personality characteristics of the female athlete.

SOCIALIZATION OF THE FEMALE

Dependence, passivity, non-aggression, non-competitiveness, yieldingness, fragility, and emotional liability are words found in the literature describing femininity. Additional descriptors of femininity include: empathy, sensitivity, interpersonal orientation, nurturance, receptivity, and supportiveness (Silverman, 1970; Witkin, Lewis, Hertzman, Machover, Meissner, & Wapner, 1954; Kagan, 1964; Terman and Tyler, 1954; Douvan and Adelson, 1966). These descriptors are also the norms toward which females are socialized.

In infancy girls demonstrate certain behaviors which evoke specific responses from adults. Infant girls demonstrate greater sensitivity to social stimuli (Bayley, 1964), greater motoric passivity (Kagan and Moss, 1962; Lewis, Meyers, Kagan, & Grossberg, 1963), greater
reactivity to physical stimuli (Bell and Costello, 1964; Lipsitt and Levy, 1959), and are more advanced perceptually (McCall and Kagan, 1962), cognitively, and verbally than boys.

These differences enable girls to attend to, analyze, and anticipate stimuli more quickly and accurately than boys. Furthermore, these differences help them to conform earlier than boys to environmental demands, (Bardwick and Douvan, 1971).

During the childhood years, girls are permitted to demonstrate a wide range of behaviors taken from both feminine and masculine sex role norms. Bardwick (1971) describes these behaviors as bisexual. Girls are allowed the freedom to continue their passivity and dependency (Kagan and Moss, 1962). And they "continue to perceive their worth in terms of interpersonal acceptance and evaluation . . ."

(Bardwick, 1971, p. 118). However, girls are also encouraged to achieve both academically and athletically (Bardwick and Douvan, 1971). In fact, girls from age nine to puberty show a tentative swing toward male preferences (Koch, 1956).

On the other hand, as early as age two, boys are encouraged to give up their dependence upon adults for love and acceptance. They are pushed to seek their rewards and identity from outside sources and achievements (Bardwick and Douvan, 1971).
With the onset of puberty most girls begin to adopt behaviors closer to appropriate sex role norms (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Morgan, 1961). Girls begin to conform to cultural socialization since they are dependent upon others for feelings of affirmation and esteem, and since parents and peers begin to reward feminine traits. In women masculine traits, such as aggression, assertion, competition, and achievement threaten success in heterosexual relationships. Thus, the more masculine traits are given up.

Douvan and Adelson (1966), in their study of adolescence, interviewed 2,005 girls ranging in age from 11 to 18. Following are the categories which Douvan and Adelson assigned all adolescent girls.

1. Unambivalent, feminine girls. Girls in this category scored high on femininity; gained self esteem from helping others; showed little motivation toward personal achievement; had marriage, family, and popularity as goals. (Adelson and Douvan considered this group most typical of adolescent girls.)

2. Ambivalent, feminine girls. Girls in this group had both goals of marriage and family, and personal achievement and development.

3. Achievement oriented girls. Girls in this group wanted marriage and family but did not set these as end goals. Employment in masculine occupations was the general focus of these girls.
4. Boyish girls. These girls participated in boyish activities, such as sports. They did wish to marry eventually, but their focus was more on the present than on the future.

5. Neutral girls. These girls had neither masculine nor feminine goals.

6. Antifeminine girls. Girls in this group did not want to marry.

In their conclusion, Adelson and Douvan (1966) stated that girls in all groups, with the exception of the more traditionally feminine category (#1 above), were psychologically deviant or slow developers.

Factors Affecting Sex Role Preferences

Although girls demonstrate bisexual behaviors prior to puberty and conformance to sex role norms during and after puberty, there seem to be several factors which affect sex role preferences. Several of these factors are discussed below.

Family influence. Recent research supports the theory that children identify with both parents and that certain aspects of the parent's personality allow for the development of femininity and masculinity. Mussen and Rutherford (1965), in a study of five and six year olds, found that if a father is warm and nurturant in his relationship with his son, the latter is likely to become highly
masculine, even if the father does not have this characteristic or a high degree of self-acceptance and even if he does not encourage his son to participate in traditionally masculine activities (Mussen and Rutherford, 1965, p. 234).

The authors also found that fathers of highly feminine girls were highly masculine in their own interests and encouraged their daughters to participate in feminine activities. Additionally, those mothers whose daughters were the most feminine were not more feminine themselves nor did they encourage their daughters to participate in more feminine activities and games. These mothers, in addition to having warm relationships with their daughters were more personally self-confident and self-accepting and had the capacity for independent thinking and action.

Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith's study (1964) supported hypotheses that the father plays a more critical role in the development of the child's sex role preferences than the mother.

Dr. Matina Horner (1968) interviewed women executives in an effort to examine family dynamics as they relate to achievement motivation. Although female executives' relationships with their mothers were typically caring and nurturing, their relationships with their fathers were warmer, closer, and more supportive, and more sharing.

Henning's (1971) research revealed that both parents of women executives valued their daughter's
femininity, achievement, activity, and competitive success. Parents of these women also valued and reinforced each others' roles.

Sibling relationships. Sibling relationships also influence sex role preferences. Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith's study (1964) on ordinal position and sex role identification revealed that in families with two children, girls with male siblings were shown to be less feminine than girls with female siblings. In families with three children, girls with female siblings were found to be less masculine and less anxious than girls with male siblings. Furthermore, when ordinal positions were examined, girls with older brothers tended to be more masculine than girls with younger brothers. Additionally, the study suggested that girls with older sisters were less masculine than girls with older brothers.

In a further study Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1968) found that sibling sex status in families with two children, not ordinal position or interaction, had an effect on femininity scores. Female siblings (dyads) achieved higher femininity scores than opposite sex siblings (dyads).

Landers (1970) examined ordinal position and sibling sex status in relationship to femininity and degree of sport and recreation participation. His sample consisted of 56 college female physical education majors and 146 college
female education majors. No significant effects of ordinal position or sex status were found. In a post hoc analysis of the data, education majors who were first born and had a younger brother were found to have participated in significantly more masculine rated sports than females with an older brother. Also, these same education majors had lower femininity scores than did first born females with a younger sister. First born females with a younger sister were under-represented in the sample of female physical education majors.

Parents' education and occupations. In 1960 Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith conducted a partial replication of Terman's 1926 study. In both studies children in grades one through eight were asked to indicate preferences of games. Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1960) discovered that girls from middle class families selected more masculine games in 1960 than in 1926. Furthermore, girls from lower class families tended to choose more traditionally feminine games. Rabban (1950) found that toy preferences of lower class boys and girls were closer to traditional sex role choices than preferences of middle class boys and girls. Kohn (1959) found that traditional sex role conformity for 5th graders was encouraged more consistently and vigorously by white working class mothers than by white middle class mothers.
A longitudinal study by Kagan and Moss (1962) supported the Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1960) study. Kagan and Moss (1962) found that the higher the parents' level of education (a socio-economic indicator) the more tolerant the parents were of the daughters' deviations from sex role norms. Also, daughters were less conforming to adult demands. Furthermore, these girls were more verbally aggressive toward their peers than girls with less well educated parents.

Bardwick has hypothesized that "the confidence which accrues from being well-educated with a high-status vocation allows one to relax about conforming to other persons' expectations, which would include role expectations" (Bardwick, 1971, p. 151).

Although research findings aren't conclusive, family influence, sex of older siblings, and level of parents' education and occupation seem to have a socializing effect upon females. Furthermore, it is worthy to note that many of the studies reviewed above (1) were authored by males and (2) produced sex biased results. If some of these studies were replicated, results might differ because of the increased awareness of today's women.

LITERATURE AND RESEARCH ON ASSERTIVENESS

Traditional concepts of marriage, work, family, and sex roles are shifting in contemporary American
society. Child bearing is no longer a central source of identity for many women today. Child rearing is increasingly becoming the shared responsibility of wife and husband. Work roles are becoming interchangable and available to both sexes (Mead, 1972). Thus, both women and men find themselves in a society which confronts them with co-existing and often conflicting "old" and "new" values based on sex roles.

According to Jakubowski-Spector (1973), women have become increasingly aware of their own uncertainty arising out of past cultural expectations for women and contemporary changes in sex roles. Three trends appear to account for women's increased awareness.

The first trend was the increased number and variety of work roles. Increased number and variety of work roles was brought about through such laws as the 1964 Civil Rights Act and Executive Order 11246 which prohibits discrimination by sex or race (Papachriston, 1976).

The second trend responsible for women's awareness was the wide interest in the personal growth of the individual. Sensitivity and encounter groups were the vehicles by which interest in personal growth was fostered.

The third trend which increased women's awareness was the women's movement. After political organizations such as N.O.W had begun to effect legal changes, small splinter groups of women formed leaderless groups which encouraged self awareness and personal growth in
participant members. An outgrowth of the leaderless groups was the need for some "strategy for dealing with social oppression" (Flowers, 1975, p. 3). One such strategy was assertion training.

However, assertion training was not valued merely because women needed a way to cope with social oppression. The value of assertive behavior in American society was fostered by at least three additional events: (1) recent concern over individual personal rights, (2) increasing need for non-aggressive means to resolve conflict, and (3) recent emphasis in the counseling profession on preventive as opposed to remedial counseling. (Flowers, 1975.)

Assertive behavior was and is defined as that behavior which "enables a person to act in his own best interests, to stand up for himself without undue anxiety, to express his honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise his own rights without denying the rights of others . . . ." (Alberti and Emmons, 1974, p. 2). Assertive behavior is contrasted with non-assertive and aggressive behavior. Non-assertive behavior was and is defined as that behavior which (1) is self denying, (2) allows others to choose for the individual, and (3) does not achieve desired goals. Aggressive behavior was and is defined as that behavior which (1) enhances the self at the expense of others, and (2) achieves desired goals by choosing for others or violating other's rights.
Alberti and Emmons provide a fuller definition of assertive, non-assertive, and aggressive behavior in the chart reproduced below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NON-ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR</th>
<th>AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR</th>
<th>ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>As Actor</strong></td>
<td><strong>As Actor</strong></td>
<td><strong>As Actor</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-denying</td>
<td>Self-enhancing at expense of another</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhibited</td>
<td>Expressive</td>
<td>Expressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurt, anxious</td>
<td>Depreciates others</td>
<td>Feels good about self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allows others to choose for him</td>
<td>Chooses for others</td>
<td>Chooses for self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not achieve desired goal</td>
<td>Achieves desired goal by hurting others</td>
<td>May achieve desired goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>As Acted Upon</strong></th>
<th><strong>As Acted Upon</strong></th>
<th><strong>As Acted Upon</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guilty or angry</td>
<td>Self-denying</td>
<td>Self-enhancing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depreciates actor</td>
<td>Hurt, defensive, humiliated</td>
<td>Expressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieves desired goal at actor's expense</td>
<td>Does not achieve desired goal</td>
<td>May achieve desired goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1974, p. 11)

Assertive behaviors were first mentioned in Salter's (1949) book, *Conditioned Reflex Therapy*. He labeled these behaviors as "excitatory reflexes" and presented six rules for assertive responses. The six rules described assertive behavior in terms of (1) non-verbal expression of feelings, (2) verbal expression of feelings, (3) expression of
disagreement through verbal statements of contradiction and attack, (4) use of "I" statements, (5) acceptance and communication of praise to self and others, and (6) ability to live for the present. Salter believed that training for these behaviors should be given to all clients.

Wolpe (1958, 1966, 1969) first used the term "assertive." Unlike Salter, he preferred a more narrow use of the training. He felt that only clients who were anxious in interpersonal relationships should have this training.

Numerous articles on assertive behavior and assertion training were published following Salter's (1949) and Wolpe's (1958, 1966, 1969) books. These publications (Wagner, 1968; Wilson and Smith, 1968; Varenhorst, 1969) described the use of assertion training in therapy.

Shortly after Alberti and Emmons' book Your Perfect Right: A Guide to Assertive Behavior (1970), which provided a rationale for teaching assertive behavior to the general public, studies using behavioral rehearsal as an assertion training method for special groups became numerous (McFall and Lillesand, 1971; Fersterheim, 1972). Thus, assertion training became a widely used program for skill building, no longer restricted to the special occasions of individual and group therapy.

Two converging events resulted in the use of assertion training for women. Jakubowski-Spector published an article entitled "Facilitating the Growth of Women through Assertive Training" (1973). In addition to
describing assertion training, she suggested that assertion training was of special importance to the personal growth of women.

At about the same time women began to conduct "consciousness raising" groups. These small groups had an atmosphere of openness, trust, ease, and camaraderie. Experiences were shared and analyzed. Gradually, women began to identify a commonality of problems and frustrations (Papachriston, 1976).

Once consciousness was raised, various techniques such as role modeling and behavioral rehearsal were used to assist women in acting upon their newly acquired knowledge.

Brodskey (1973), in her discussion of consciousness raising groups, stated that "the therapeutic processes that occur in these groups are akin to assertive training, personal growth groups, achievement oriented training, or simply self development groups" (Brodskey, 1973, p. 26).

With the popularity of assertion training came the need for measuring the variable, assertive behavior. Historically, the Willoughby Neuroticism Schedule, developed in 1934, was first used to measure this behavior. Later, the Wolpe-Lang Fear Survey Schedule (Wolpe and Lang, 1964) was used for this purpose.

Wolpe and Lazarus (1966) and Lazarus (1971) developed a questionnaire to assess patients' deficiencies in assertiveness. But formal reliability and validation
of this questionnaire was very limited (Eisler, Miller, & Hersen, 1973; McFall and Marston, 1970).

Rathus (1973) developed a paper and pencil evaluation which was based upon questions used by Wolpe and Lazarus (1966). The Rathus Assertive Scale was directed at the assertive behavior of male and female college populations. The scale's reliability was confirmed but the method the author used to test validity drew criticism.

Additional scales were developed. McFall and Lillesand's Conflict Resolution Inventory (1971), a paper and pencil assessment, focused on a specific homogenous subclass of assertive behavior, refusal of unreasonable requests. More recently, the Fear of Powerlessness Scale (Good, Good, & Golden, 1973) and the College Self Expression Scale (Galassi et al., 1974) were designed for the purpose of evaluating assertiveness in college students. Additionally, the Adolescent Assertion Discrimination Test (Shoemaker, 1973) and the Assertiveness Inventory (Gambrill, 1973) were developed and are still undergoing standardization.

Several contrived behavior tasks have been employed to assess assertive behaviors. Friedman (1971) used an interpersonal situation which was directed toward irritating the subject. The responses to the irritation by the subject were rated according to 24 behaviors and a sum score was obtained.
McFall and Marston (1971) used a behavioral role playing test where subjects responded to a series of audio taped interpersonal situations. Responses were recorded and rated. Eisler et al. (1973) adapted the McFall and Marston (1971) scale and had judges rate video tapes of subject's verbal and nonverbal responses.

Recently, assessment of assertive behaviors has focused upon paralinguistic behaviors, speech content, and motoric behaviors. These assessment studies have gathered much information on very few subjects (Eisler et al., 1973; Eisler, Miller, Hersen, and Alford, 1974; McFall, Galbraith, and Twentyman, 1971a, 1971b; McFall and Twentyman, 1973).

Assertion training has been demonstrated to be effective with a variety of problems over a wide range of populations. Assertion training is currently being used by professionals, for many populations in various settings. Publications are extensive on both assertive behaviors and assertion training. However, these publications place most emphasis on the "How to" approach. Research emphasis is centered on effectiveness of assertion training and development of measures of assertive behaviors. What is still minimal in the literature are descriptions of assertiveness of various populations such as women and women athletes.
Conflicts in roles of female athletes are partially attributed to the socialization of females and to the availability of increasing opportunities to participate in previously male dominated roles.

Klafs (1973) believes that today's girls and women can be athletically skilled without feeling that their femininity is being relinquished. However, many authors think, as does Gilbert, that participation in athletics casts "... doubts on a female athlete's morals, sanity, and womanhood" (1973, p. 99). The female athlete is viewed as socially abnormal (Fleshin, 1974) and is considered to be unfeminine and a slow developer (Douvan and Adelson, 1966). Thus, "... the woman who wishes to participate in sports and remain womanly faces great stress. By choosing sport she usually places herself outside the social mainstream" (Hart, 1971, p. 64).

Traits which are considered culturally undesirable in women include dominance, aggression, ambition, self-confidence, and goal directedness. Possession of these very same traits are necessary for female athletes if they are to successfully engage in the arena of sport according to Cheska (1970) and Harris (1973). Monk has concluded "... that the role conflict is a manifestation of a clash between traits which are necessary for success in
A number of research studies have attempted to describe the personality traits of women athletes. Bird (1970), Dayries and Grim (1970), Neal (1963), and Williams, Hoepner, Moody, & Ogilvie (1970) conducted studies in which they administered the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (E.P.P.S.) to women athletes. Collectively, these studies showed that women athletes scored higher than the nonathlete/norm group with which they were compared on the Achievement and Autonomy scales of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (E.P.P.S.). And, with the exception of Bird's study (1970), scores were high on the Exhibition scale. However, inconsistencies were found on the scales of Order, Intraception, Affiliation, and Nurturance. The findings for these studies hold true across various age groups (high school through adult) and across various levels of athletic competition (interscholastic through Pan-American Games).

Studies by Peterson, Weber, & Trousdale (1967), Malumphy (1968), Bird (1970), Williams et al. (1970), Mushier (1970), and Shofar (1971), using Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, showed no consistent personality factors of female athletes. In several studies, Bird (1970), Williams et al. (1970), Peterson et al. (1967), and Mushier (1970), female athletes did score high on
self-sufficiency. These same four studies found that female athletes also score high on aggressiveness, and radicalism of temperament. Taken collectively, the studies cited above were inconsistent and inconclusive on other traits such as imaginative vs practical; adventurousness vs shyness; sensitivity vs toughmindedness; and intelligence vs dullness.

Four studies cited in the previous paragraph compared differences between athletes and norm groups of nonathletes. Bird (1970), Mushier (1970), and Williams et al. (1970) found that female athletes scored higher on intelligence, aggression, and radicalism of temperament than the norm group. Malumphy (1968), Mushier (1970), and Williams et al. (1970) found that female athletes scored higher on practicality than the norm groups.

Several studies employing the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire attempted to assess differences in female team sport participants and female individual sport participants. Peterson et al. (1967) concluded that skilled women athletes (AAU and Olympic team members) who competed in individual sports were more dominant and aggressive, more adventurous, more introverted, more imaginative, more radical, more self-sufficient, and more resourceful than women who engaged in team sports. The authors also found that women participating in individual sports tended to appear less sophisticated and less
inhibited than women who participated in team sports. Team sports athletes tend to be self-sufficient, practical, steady, dependable, self-reliant, responsible, and emotionally disciplined. Both groups were found to be more intelligent, "... more conscientious, aggressive and persevering than the norms for others of equivalent age and education. Socially, both groups tend to be somewhat cool and aloof" (Peterson et al., 1967, p. 689).

Malumphy (1968) also found differences do exist between women who competed in individual sports, team sports, both individual and team sports, and "subjectively judged" sports. She discovered that female individual sports participants were less anxious than team sports participants. These athletes were also more adventuresome and more extroverted and scored higher on the factor of leadership than team sports members and team-individual sports members.

The "subjectively judged sports" group, which consisted of sixteen females who participated in gymnastics and synchronized swimming, was found to be less anxious than the team sports group. This group was also more venturesome and extroverted than the team and the team-individual sports group and scored higher on the leadership factor than all sports participant groups.

The team sports group was less venturesome, less extroverted, scored lower on the factor of leadership, and
was more reserved than the individual sports group and the "subjectively judged" sports group. The team sports group was also more reserved than the team-individual group.

Although Malumphy's results summarized above were found to be significant, generalization of her findings is limited due to the small size and unique composition of the sample.

Shofar (1971) investigated female interscholastic athletes and found that female participants in individual sports were more intelligent than female non-participants. Women team sports participants were found to be more trusting, practical, and group dependent than women non-athletes. Women nonathletes were more self-sufficient than woman athletes.

Most recently, research on female athletes conducted by Rector (1972), Ziegler (1972), and Kennicke (1972) at The Pennsylvania State University, has investigated more closely the female athlete's perception of her behavior in specific sport competition situations and in social situations. Female athletes were asked to describe their social self and their competitive self using Gough's Adjective Check List. In Rector's study (1972) women athletes in individual sports scored significantly higher in competitive situations on the scales of Achievement, Endurance, Aggression, and Dominance than in social situations. In Ziegler's study (1972) high school female
basketball players saw themselves more Changeable, Affiliative, and Hetrosexual in social situations as opposed to Aggressive, Achievement Oriented, and Dominant in competitive situations.

Kennicke's study (1972) examined female athletes who participated in creative activities such as dance and female athletes who participated in structured activities. Using Gough's Adjective Check List she compared differences in perceptions of these athletes in both competitive and social situations. Neither group perceived themselves differing from one another in social situations. Both groups did perceive themselves as more Aggressive and Achievement Oriented in competitive situations.

In summary, research suggests that female athletes are indeed different from their nonathlete counterparts. They are higher on traits of Achievement, Autonomy, Exhibitionism, Self-Sufficiency, Aggression, Radicalism of Temperament, and Practicality than the nonathlete. Women participating in individual sports appear to differ from women participating in team sports. However, the differences may be situation specific. Furthermore, investigation of the dimension of assertiveness in female athletes is very limited in the literature on personality characteristics of female athletes.
Chapter III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This chapter presents a description of the methods and procedures used in the study. It includes the following sections: (1) hypotheses investigated, (2) population, (3) instrumentation, (4) collection of data, and (5) analysis of data.

HYPOTHESES INVESTIGATED

The hypotheses investigated in this study are stated below in null form:

**Hypothesis 1.** There is no significant difference between the mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general on the *College Self Expression Scale*, (a measure of assertiveness).

**Hypothesis 2.** There is no significant difference between the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes and the mean scores of the norm groups in Galassi's study using the *College Self Expression Scale*.

**Hypothesis 3.** There is no significant difference between the mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports and women intercollegiate
athletes who participate in individual sports on the College Self Expression Scale.

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes, as measured by the College Self Expression Scale, and the following demographic variables: level of parents' education, parents' occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s).

POPULATION

The subjects for this study were drawn from a population of undergraduate college women students who were registered during the Fall Semester, 1976, at Indiana State University. Only undergraduate college women who completed Galassi's College Self Expression Scale and a demographic data form were considered as subjects.

These subjects constituted two different groups; women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general.

Women Intercollegiate Athletes

For the purposes of this study the women's intercollegiate athletic group was defined as follows: all women (a) who were freshman, sophomores, juniors, or seniors at Indiana State University during the academic year, 1976-77, and (b) whose names appeared on one of the following ten
official team rosters; basketball, field hockey, volleyball, badminton, bowling, cross country track, golf, gymnastics, swimming, and tennis.

The group of women intercollegiate athletes was comprised of 131 subjects. Collectively, these subjects indicated 30 different declared majors in academic areas representing all the schools and colleges at Indiana State University: the schools of Business; Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; Education; Nursing; and Technology; and the College of Arts and Science. Eighty-four of these subjects were physical education majors and their ages ranged from 17 years to 22 years. The median age for the women intercollegiate athletes was 19 years.

College Women in General

For the purposes of this study college women in general were defined as follows; women (a) who were freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors at Indiana State University during the academic year, 1976-77, (b) whose names did not appear on one of the above official team rosters. This is the defining characteristic of a team member established by the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women in the AIAW Handbook 1976-1977 (1976). These official team rosters must be sent to the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women prior to the team's first scheduled competition. Once this roster is submitted, players may not be added to teams.
rosters, and (c) whose names were randomly selected from lists of all undergraduate college women enrolled in courses\(^1\) offered by the Women's Physical Education Department during the Fall Semester, 1976.

This group was comprised of 131 subjects. Collectively, these subjects indicated 37 different declared majors in academic areas representing all the schools and colleges at Indiana State University: the schools of Business; Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; Education; Nursing; and Technology; and the College of Arts and Science. The largest concentration (n=50) of academic majors for this group was in the College of Arts and Science. The age range of these students was 17 years to 64 years; and the median age for the college women in general group was 19 years.

**INSTRUMENTATION**

Two methods of measuring assertiveness currently exist. Paper and pencil inventories have been widely used. Secondly, a variety of strategies which elicit subject behaviors to audio or video taped stimuli have been employed. Typically such a strategy requires that the subject's behavioral responses to stimuli be recorded on

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\(^1\)All undergraduate women at Indiana State University must enroll for two credit hours of physical education as part of a 50 credit hour general education requirement.
audio or video tape. Raters code subject responses for paralinguistic behaviors, speech content, or motoric behaviors. Assertiveness in college populations has been studied exclusively through the use of paper and pencil inventories.

Issues surrounding the establishment of validity for paper and pencil inventories and codings of subjects' behavioral responses are numerous and complex. Establishing validity for paper and pencil inventories usually consists of demonstrating that scores on the inventory are related to (1) instruments which have been shown to validly measure the construct or behavior under study and/or (2) actual behaviors of subjects in simulated or real situations. Additionally, the paper and pencil instrument must be designed to be relatively free of response bias and social desirability. Establishing validity for methods of coding actual subject behaviors usually centers on (a) adequacy of the training program for raters, and (b) demonstration of the relationship between the behavior(s) coded and the construct or concept which such behaviors are thought to represent.

The College Self-Expression Scale, developed by Galassi et al. (1974), was selected to measure assertiveness in this study. Selection of this scale was based upon the following considerations: (1) instrument items measuring a wide range of assertive behaviors encountered by college
students, (2) time required for administration of the instrument, and (3) validity of the instrument.

Five scales which measure assertive behaviors encountered by college students are currently available. These include: (1) the Constriction Scale (Bates and Zimmerman, 1971), (2) the Conflict Resolution Inventory (McFall and Lillesand, 1971), (3) the Lawrence Assertive Inventory (Lawrence, 1970), (4) the Rathus Assertive Schedule (Rathus, 1973), and (5) the College Self Expression Scale (Galassi et al., 1974).

The Constriction Scale by Bates and Zimmerman (1971), was not considered for use in this study because, although statistical analysis of this scale is extensive, it had very little cross-validation and normative data available. Also the Constriction Scale has had very limited use in assertion research.

The Conflict Resolution Inventory (McFall and Lillesand, 1971) has a high concurrent validity ($r = .82$). However, this instrument was eliminated from consideration because it measures only one type of assertive behavior, refusing unreasonable requests.

The Lawrence Assertive Inventory was not considered for use because of several disadvantages. This scale significantly correlates ($r = .28$, p. .01) with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Lacks and Connelly, 1975). Therefore, it is subject to responses which are
socially desirable. Also, this scale takes more time to administer than was desirable for this study (13 to 48 minutes).

Although the Rathus Assertive Schedule (Rathus, 1973) has a high validity ($r = .70$), the method by which validity was established has been questioned by several reviewers. Another reason this scale was not considered for use in this study was its significant correlation with social desirability scores ($r = .27$, p .01) and its moderate correlation with aggressiveness ($r = .60$). In fact, visual inspection of this scale reveals several items which appear to measure aggression rather than assertion.

Therefore, selection of the College Self Expression Scale was based on this scale's briefness (average time required for administration is 8 minutes), its lack of correlation with social desirability and aggression, and its comparable validity with other scales. Finally, this instrument has been the most widely used in assertion research.

The College Self Expression Scale was designed to measure three aspects of assertiveness in college students: positive assertiveness, negative assertiveness, and self denial-self affirmation. The instrument consists of a 50-item, self-report inventory utilizing "a five point Likert format (0-4) with 21 positively worded items and 29 negatively worded items" (Galassi et al., 1974, p. 168).
The scale, which was derived from the work of Lazarus and Wolpe (1966), measures the subject's level of assertiveness in a number of interpersonal contexts with such people as strangers, authority figures, family, and opposite sex peers.

The measure of assertiveness is determined by adding all the subject's responses to the positively worded items and reverse scoring and summing all the negatively worded items. High total scores are indicative of a generalized assertive response pattern.

Test-retest reliability data was collected over a two week period from two samples: (1) 91 students enrolled in an introductory psychology course at West Virginia University, (2) 47 upper division and beginning graduate students enrolled in a personality theory course and an introductory testing course at West Virginia University. Product-moment correlation coefficients computed for sample one and two were 0.89 and 0.90 respectively (Galassi et al., 1974).

Construct validity was established when the College Self Expression Scale was shown to correlate significantly \((r = 0.30)\) with Gough's Adjective Check List (Gough and Heilburn, 1965). The College Self Expression Scale correlated positively and significantly with the following Adjective Check List scales: Number Checked, Defensiveness, Favorable, Self Confidence, Achievement, Dominance,
Intraception, Hetrosexuality, Exhibition, Autonomy, and Change (Galassi et al., 1974). All of the above scales, according to Gough's definition, suggested characteristics of assertiveness. "The assertive individual is expressive, spontaneous, well defended, confident, and able to influence and lead others" (Galassi et al., 1974, p. 169). Furthermore, the College Self Expression Scale correlated negatively and significantly with the following Adjective Check List scales: Number Checked; Unfavorable, Succorance, Abasement, Deference, and Counseling Readiness.

An initial study of concurrent validity of the College Self Expression Scale was conducted using 41 elementary and 82 secondary school student teachers at Fairmont State College. The College Self Expression Scale scores of the combined groups were correlated with ratings of their assertiveness made by supervising teachers. A correlation of 0.19 (p < .04) was low but significant (Galassi et al., 1974).

Galassi and Galassi (1974) conducted another concurrent validity study using 28 male and 47 female dorm residents at West Virginia University. The dorm resident's scores on the College Self Expression Scale were correlated with ratings of their assertiveness made by their four residence hall floor counselors. The correlation between the residence hall counselor ratings and the dorm resident's level of assertiveness was 0.33 (p < .005).
Two additional concurrent validity studies by Galassi and Galassi (1974) approached validation through the method of contrasted groups as described in Anastasi (1968). In one study results of a one way analysis of variance between four male groups; (1) 28 dorm residents, (2) 18 math majors, (3) 45 engineering majors, and (4) 24 student legislators, revealed significant differences between groups ($F = 6.89$, $df = 3/111$, $p < .001$). The male student legislators were found to differ significantly from the other three groups. In the same study results of a one way analysis of variance revealed significant differences between three female groups; (1) 47 dorm residents, (2) 45 child development and family relations majors, and (3) 8 student legislators ($F = 4.86$, $df = 2/97$, $p < .01$). Both the female dorm residents and female student legislators scored significantly higher than the child development and family relations majors.

In the second study, a $3 \times 2$ (group by sex) analysis of variance was performed on scores of students in three groups: (1) students who sought personal adjustment counseling, (2) students who sought vocational-educational counseling from the Student Counseling Center, and (3) non-counseled students. A significant $F$ ratio was obtained for groups ($F = 6.44$, $df = 2/90$, $p < .005$). Personal adjustment counselees were less assertive than vocational-educational counselees and non-counselees.
A final study of concurrent validity was concerned with validation of the **College Self Expression Scale** against behavioral performance criteria (Galassi, Hollandsworth, Radecki, Gay, Howe, & Evans, 1976). Subjects (518 undergraduates at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill) who scored low, moderate, and high on the **College Self Expression Scale** role played situations which required assertive behaviors. Nonorthogonal multivariate comparisons revealed significant differences between the low groups and the combined moderate/high groups (F = 3.51, df = 4/39, p < .05) and between the low and high group (F = 2.84, df = 4/39, p < .05) on the following variables: assertive content, eye contact, subjective anxiety, and response latency. Univariate comparisons showed significant differences between the low and high groups on percentage of eye contact (F = 6.66, df = 1/42, p < .01) and assertive content (F = 4.28, df = 1/42, p < .025). Also, there were significant differences between the low and combined moderate/high groups on eye contact (F = 11.34, df = 1/42, p < .001) and on assertive content (F = 2.64, df = 1/42, p < .06). Differences on the anxiety measures approached significance.
COLLECTION OF DATA

Women Intercollegiate Athletes

The College Self Expression Scale (CSES) and the demographic data form\(^3\) were administered by the author to all women who tried out for the ten intercollegiate teams included in this study. The administration of these instruments occurred during the third day of each team's pre-season practice.

The procedure for administration included first the distribution of the demographic data form to the subjects for completion. Secondly, answer sheets and the College Self Expression Scale with written instructions were distributed. Verbal instructions were read by the author (See Appendix B) and subjects were asked to complete the scale.

Three team members were absent during these administrations, a volleyball player, a badminton player, and a gymnast. In each case the instruments were administered to the athlete during the fourth day of the team's pre-season practice.

\(^3\)The demographic data form was attached to each College Self Expression Scale answer sheet. This form asked for the following information from each subject: name, major, year in school, athletic team(s) participation in high school and/or college, parents' education, parents' occupation, parents' participation in interscholastic and/or intercollegiate sports, and number, ages, and sports participation of older brothers and sisters. (See Appendix A)
Only those women (1) whose names appeared on the official team rosters during the Fall semester of the 1976-77 academic year and (2) who completed the College Self Expression Scale and the demographic data form were included in the sample of women intercollegiate athletes. There were 131 women in this group.

College Women in General

Subjects for the college women in general group were randomly selected using a two-step procedure. There were ten women's intercollegiate teams and 90 courses offered by the Women's Physical Education Department during the Fall Semester, 1976. Enrollment lists for these 90 courses were randomly sorted into ten groups of nine enrollment lists each.

For each women's intercollegiate team, names were randomly selected, with replacement, from the nine enrollment lists until the number of college women in general equaled the number of women athletes for a specified team. Whenever a subject's name was drawn a second time that subject's name was placed in the pool of names and drawing was continued. Similarly, whenever the name of an athlete was drawn, that name was returned to the pool and the drawing continued. This procedure was repeated ten times.

Upon contacting subjects in the college women in general groups, it was discovered that four subjects had dropped all physical education courses. Therefore, these
subjects did not qualify as college women in general. The four subjects were replaced through additional random selection from the appropriate pool of enrollment lists.

The procedure for administration as described in the above section entitled Women Intercollegiate Athletes was replicated. The instruments were administered to the identified college women in general subjects and the women intercollegiate athletes, concurrently. There were 131 women in this group.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data for the first hypothesis were analyzed using a t-test of the difference between two means for independent samples (Ferguson, 1971, pp. 151-153). For the purposes of this study, the level of significance needed for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05. The t-test for independent samples was used to determine if the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes was significantly different from mean score of college women in general on the College Self-Expression Scale.

The second hypothesis was tested using a one way analysis of variance (Ferguson, 1971, pp. 210-215) to determine whether or not the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes was significantly different from mean scores of the norm groups in Galassi's study on the College
Self Expression Scale (hypothesis 2). Since there was a series of mean scores to compare to the mean score of the women intercollegiate athlete group, a one way analysis of variance was selected because it is a more rigorous test than a series of 't' tests. The level of significance needed for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05.

To test hypothesis 3, the t-test of the difference between two means for independent samples was used to determine whether or not the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes who participated in team sports differed from the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes who participated in individual sports on the College Self Expression Scale. Again the level of significance needed for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05.

To test hypothesis 4, correlational techniques were used to describe the relationships between assertiveness and selected demographic variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Ferguson, 1971, pp. 96-119) was used to compute the relationships between assertiveness and the two demographic variables: level of parents' education and parents' occupation. Level of parents' education and level of parents' occupation are considered to be continuous. A point biserial correlation (Ferguson, 1971, pp. 356-358) was used to compute the relationship between assertiveness and the demographic variables, parents' participation in athletics and the sex of older
sibling(s). This type of correlation technique was used because the two demographic variables are dicotomous. The level of significance designated for rejection of the null hypothesis was .05.
Chapter IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In comparing women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general on a measure of assertiveness, four hypotheses were investigated. Included in this chapter are the results of the statistical analyses of the data, as well as a discussion of the results. For purposes of this study, the level of significance needed for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at $p < .05$.

FINDINGS

Assertiveness of Women Intercollegiate Athletes and College Women in General

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference between mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general on the College Self Expression Scale, (a measure of assertiveness).

Findings. Prior to conducting the $t$-test, distributions of the two groups under consideration were examined. The distributions were found to be similar.

Table 1 is a presentation of the mean scores, standard deviations, and independent $t$-test of difference between mean scores for the women intercollegiate athlete
group and for the college women in general group on the College Self Expression Scale. The difference between mean scores of the two groups was 1.2748. The t-value was 0.51. With two-hundred sixty degrees of freedom the t-value was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, H1 was not rejected. The women intercollegiate athlete group did not differ significantly from the college women in general group on the measure of assertiveness.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women Intercollegiate Athlete Group</th>
<th>College Women in General Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122.6259</td>
<td>18.528</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p < .05  
d.f. 260

Assertiveness of Women Intercollegiate Athletes and Galassi's Norm Groups

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference between the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes and the mean scores of the norm groups in Galassi's study on the College Self Expression Scale.
Findings. Table 2 is a presentation of the sums of squares, degrees of freedom, mean squares, and F ratio for the women intercollegiate athlete group and Galassi's norm groups on the College Self Expression Scale. The F ratio of 0.8782 was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, \( H_2 \) was not rejected. The women intercollegiate athlete group did not differ significantly from Galassi's norm groups on the measure of assertiveness.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sums of Squares</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1428.2095</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>285.6418</td>
<td>0.8782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>95620.5625</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>325.2400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>97048.7500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( p < .05 \)

Assertiveness of Women Team Sports Participants and Women Individual Sports Participants

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes who participated in team sports and women intercollegiate athletes who participated in individual sports on the College Self Expression Scale.
Findings. Table 3 is a presentation of the means, standard deviations, and independent t-test of difference between mean scores for the women intercollegiate team sports group and the women individual sports group on the College Self Expression Scale. The difference between means of the two groups was 1.5239. The t-value was 0.47. With one hundred-twenty-nine degrees of freedom the t-value was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, $H_3$ was not rejected. The women intercollegiate team sports group did not differ significantly from the women intercollegiate individual sports group.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women Intercollegiate Team Sports Group</th>
<th>Women Intercollegiate Individual Sports Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121.8000</td>
<td>18.979</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t' = 0.47$

$p < .05$, d.f. 129

Assertiveness of Women Intercollegiate Athletes and Selected Demographic Variables

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes, as
measured by the College Self Expression Scale, and the following demographic variables: level of parents' education, level of parents' occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s).

**Findings.** Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the various demographic variables were: level of mothers' education, -.006; level of fathers' education, -.073; level of mothers' occupation, -.056; and level of fathers' occupation, -.021. All coefficients were statistically nonsignificant at the .05 level.

On the other hand, a point biserial correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the demographic variable, fathers' participation in athletics yielded a coefficient of .203. This, in contrast, was statistically significant at the .05 level.

Three point biserial correlations were computed to explore the relationship between assertiveness scores of women intercollegiate athletes and sex of older sibling(s). The first examined the relationship of assertiveness scores and whether or not the woman intercollegiate athlete had an older brother(s). This correlation yielded a coefficient of -.110. The second examined the relationship of assertiveness scores and whether or not the woman intercollegiate athlete had an older sister(s). This correlation yielded a coefficient of .037. The third
examined the relationship of assertiveness scores and whether or not the woman intercollegiate athlete had both an older brother and an older sister. This correlation yielded a coefficient of -.58. All were statistically nonsignificant at the .05 level.

With the exception of the demographic variable, fathers' participation in athletics, hypothesis 4 was not rejected. Assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes did not correlate significantly with the following demographic variables, level of parents' education, level of parents' occupation, mothers' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s). However, assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes did correlate significantly with the demographic variable: fathers' participation in athletics.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Discussion of Results for Hypothesis 1

There was no significant difference between mean scores of the two groups on the College Self Expression Scale. This result suggests that women intercollegiate athletes are no more assertive than college women in general.

There are several explanations for these results. It is possible that both the women intercollegiate athletes and the college women in general may have increased their
level of assertiveness. Because of today's shift in traditional sex role norms and increased freedom for females to participate in new roles previously reserved for males, assertiveness, a traditionally masculine attribute, may now also be a feminine attribute. As Cheska (1970) has pointed out, those traits which are undesirable in a woman, such as assertiveness, ambition, or aggression, are exactly those attributes women must have if they are to succeed in attaining new roles.

However, if the above explanation is tenable, a comparison between the groups in this study and Galassi's norm groups (Galassi et al, 1974) should show this trend. In order to test this explanation a one way analysis of variance was run to determine whether or not the college women in general group and Galassi's norm groups differed on the level of assertiveness. Table 4 is a presentation of the sums of squares, degrees of freedom, the mean squares, and the F ratio for the groups on the College Self Expression Scale. The F ratio of 0.6422 was not significant at the .05 level. The nonsignificant F ratio demonstrates that the college women in general group in this study is not significantly different from Galassi's norm groups. Thus, the above explanation that both the women intercollegiate athletes and the college women in general groups have increased their level of assertiveness in not tenable.
Table 4
College Women in General and Galassi's Norm Groups: One Way Analysis of Variance on the College Self Expression Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Sums of Squares</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1244.4976</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>248.8995</td>
<td>0.6422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>113947.5625</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>387.5767</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115192.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p < .05

Alternately, in 1977 Cheska's (1970) statement may no longer hold true, i.e., the athlete of the past needed to be more aggressive and assertive than the athlete of today. However, there is no data available to substantiate this possible explanation.

The findings that women intercollegiate athletes are no more assertive than college women in general, could be a function of the type of item on the College Self Expression Scale. The College Self Expression Scale is based upon social situations encountered by college students. This explanation is supported by situation specific research which found that women intercollegiate athletes perceived themselves as much more aggressive, achievement oriented, and dominant in competitive situations than in social situations (Rector, 1972; Kennicke, 1972; Ziegler, 1972). Harris stated that "it appears that the female athlete
must assume the role of the chameleon, in that she must change her behaviors in much the same way that the chameleon must change his color, depending upon situation and environment" (Harris, 1973, p. 229). Had the College Self Expression Scale included items specific to competitive situations, there might have been a difference between women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general on assertiveness.

Discussion of Results for Hypothesis 2

There was no significant difference between the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes and mean scores of Galassi's norm groups on the College Self Expression Scale. This result suggests that women intercollegiate athletes are no more assertive than Galassi's norm groups.

The following explanations may account for this result. Society still values more traditional feminine roles. Although role freedom is available to today's women, sex role stereotypes still persist. Women still may continue to gain their self esteem in interpersonal (heterosexual) relationships through noncompetitive, nonassertive, and nonaggressive behaviors (Bardwick and Douvan, 1971). Therefore, assertiveness in today's female may not be a desirable trait and may still be detrimental to interpersonal relationships. Thus, the woman athlete, although she may value a more assertive self, may still be pressured
to maintain her more feminine image in social situations and her sport self in sport settings (Tyler, 1973).

Discussion of Results for Hypothesis 3

There was no significant difference between mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports and women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports on the College Self Expression Scale. This result suggests that women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports are no more assertive than women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports.

Although research suggests that women participating in individual sports differ from women participating in team sports, no single personality factor consistently differentiates the two groups across studies reviewed (Malumphy, 1968; Peterson et al., 1967; Shofar, 1971). However, women participating in individual sports and women participating in team sports were consistently found to be similar on the following factors: intelligence (Malumphy, 1968; Peterson et al., 1967; Shofar, 1971), perserverence; seriousness; acceptance; and self confidence (Malumphy, 1968; Peterson et al., 1967). The present study suggests that women team sport participants and women individual sports participants are similar on the factor of assertiveness.
The results of hypothesis 3 also suggest that women team sports participants and women individual sports participants are similar to each other in social situations on the measure of assertion. It is not known whether sports participants would differ in competitive situations on the measure of assertion. Since previous research found differences between individual and team sports participants (Malumphy, 1968; Peterson et al., 1967), it is possible that female athletes would differ on a measure of assertion specific to individual and team sports situations. This explanation again tends to support Rector's (1972), Kennicke's (1972), and Ziegler's (1972) findings.

Discussion of Results for Hypothesis 4

Parents' Level of Education. There was no significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes, as measured by the College Self Expression Scale, and the demographic variable, level of parents' education. Thus, assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes is apparently unrelated to the mothers' or fathers' level of education. The determining factor in the degree of assertiveness in the daughter may be the assertiveness of both or either parent rather than the level of education. Although Kagan and Moss (1962) found that the higher the parents' level of education, the more tolerant the parents' were of the daughters' deviations
from sex role norms, this study found no parallel relationship between assertiveness and level of education.

**Parents' Level of Occupation.** There was no significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the demographic variable, level of parents' occupation. This result suggests that assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes is apparently unrelated to the mothers' or fathers' level of occupation.

These results do not concur with Bardwick's hypothesis that the confidence which comes from holding high status vocations allows people freedom from conforming to others' role expectations. In accounting for these results, it is possible that parents' with high level (status) occupations are no more assertive than parents' with lower level (status) occupations. Therefore, level of occupation of parents would not be related to the assertiveness of the daughter. The determining factor in the daughters' assertiveness may be the assertiveness of both or either parent rather than occupation level.

**Parents' Participation in Athletics.** There was no significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the demographic variable, mothers' participation in athletics. Thus, assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes is apparently unrelated to mothers' participation in athletics.
There was a significant correlation between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the demographic variable, fathers' participation in athletics. Caution is warranted in the interpretation of this result. Since the number of fathers (N=87) participating in athletics was relatively large as compared to the number of fathers (N=44) not participating in athletics, the significant point biserial coefficient could very likely be a statistical artifact. Given the aforementioned caution, assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes may be related to fathers' participation in athletics.

Research suggests that children identify with both parents and that certain aspects of the parents' personality allow for development of masculinity and femininity (Bardwick, 1971; Rothbart & Maccoby, 1966; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957; Slater, 1955). However, the father plays the more critical role in the development of the child's sex role preferences than the mother (Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1964). The results of the Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1964) study tend to be supported by the significant correlation between women intercollegiate athletes and fathers participation in athletics. Fathers who participate in athletics may provide an atmosphere for their daughters which encourages the learning of assertive behaviors. In fact, it may be possible that fathers who
participated in athletics are themselves more assertive than fathers who did not participate in athletics.

**Sex of Older Sibling(s).** There was no significant correlation between women intercollegiate athletes and the demographic variable, sex of older sibling(s). Thus, assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes is apparently unrelated to the sex of older sibling(s).

Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith's (1964) findings showed that girls with older brothers tended to be more masculine than girls with younger brothers. Also, girls with older sisters were found to be less masculine than girls with older brothers. In an attempt to explore the relationship between sex of older sibling(s) and assertiveness, women intercollegiate athletes with older brothers, older sisters, or both were found to be no more assertive than women intercollegiate athletes without older siblings. Although having older sibling(s) may be related to a woman's sexuality (Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1964), it does not appear that having older sibling(s) is related to assertiveness in the woman athlete. The determining factor for the assertiveness of women athletes may in fact be the assertiveness and/or sexuality of the older sibling(s). The degree of assertiveness may also be determined by the extent to which the older sibling(s) is used as a role model.
Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The summary and conclusions are presented in this chapter. Recommendations are then given for future research studying assertiveness in women athletes.

SUMMARY

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare the level of assertiveness between women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general. The focus of the study was to determine whether or not women intercollegiate athletes are different from college women in general on the dimension of assertion as measured by the College Self Expression Scale. Furthermore, it was the intent of the study to determine if there were any differences on the measure of assertion between women intercollegiate athletes and the norm groups used to validate the College Self Expression Scale (Galassi et al., 1974), and to determine whether women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports differ in their level of assertiveness from women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports.
sports. Finally, this study investigated the relationship between assertiveness in women athletes and the following selected variables: level of parents' education, level of parents' occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s).

Review of Literature

A review of the literature first focused upon the socialization of females. Family influence, sex of older siblings, and level of parents' education and occupation seem to have a socializing effect upon females. It was pointed out that much of the research in this area is outdated and somewhat sex biased.

Secondly, the review traced the development and assessment of assertion training programs. Areas of literature and research on which the review focused included the identification and measurement of assertive behaviors and the use of assertion training with special populations, such as women. Limited descriptive research has been conducted which explores assertiveness in various populations.

Finally, a review of research on personality characteristics of women athletes was presented. Female athletes were found to be more aggressive, achievement oriented, self sufficient, practical, and autonomous than the female nonathletes. Differences were found between
women athletes participating in individual sports, and women athletes participating in team sports. Recent findings have supported these differences in competitive situations, but not in social situations. Research completed on the dimension of assertiveness of women athletes is extremely limited.

Sample

The sample of this study was composed of 262 undergraduate college women registered during the Fall Semester, 1976 at Indiana State University. These subjects constituted two different groups: women intercollegiate athletes (N=131) and college women in general (N=131).

The women intercollegiate athlete group consisted of women whose names appeared on one of the following ten official team rosters: basketball, field hockey, volleyball, badminton, bowling, cross country track, golf, gymnastics, swimming, and tennis. This group indicated 30 different academic majors with the largest concentration of majors being in the School of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (N=84). The age range of these subjects was 17 years to 22 years. The median age was 19 years.

The college women in general group consisted of women whose names did not appear on one of the official team rosters and whose names were randomly selected from lists of all undergraduate college women enrolled in courses offered by the Women's Physical Education
Department during Fall Semester, 1976. This group indicated 37 different declared academic majors with the largest concentration of majors being in the College of Arts and Science (N=50). The age range of these subjects was 17 years to 64 years. The median age was 19 years.

Collection of Data

The College Self Expression Scale and the demographic data form were administered by the author to the women intercollegiate athlete group and the college women in general group. These instruments were administered to the women intercollegiate athlete group on the third day of each team's pre-season practice. The women intercollegiate athlete group was defined as women whose names appeared on one of the ten official rosters. These 131 women completed the College Self Expression Scale and the demographic data form.

The college women in general group was selected using a two step procedure. Enrollment lists for the 90 courses offered by the Women's Physical Education Department during the Fall Semester, 1976 were randomly sorted into 10 groups corresponding to the number of women's athletic teams. Names were then randomly selected, with replacement, from each group of enrollment lists until the number of college women in general equalled the number of women athletes for a specified team. The
instruments were then administered to each group concurrently with the team administrations.

Analysis of Data

The data were analyzed using a t-test of the difference between means for independent samples to compare the mean scores of the women intercollegiate athletes and the college women in general on the College Self Expression Scale. A one way analysis of variance was used to test whether the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes were significantly different from mean scores of the norm groups in Galassi's study on the College Self Expression Scale. The t-test of the difference between two means for independent samples was also to test whether or not the mean score of the women intercollegiate athletes who participated in individual sports differed from the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes who participated in team sports on the College Self Expression Scale. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to compute the relationship between assertiveness and the two demographic variables: level of parents' education and level of parents' occupation. A point biserial correlation was used to compute the relationships between assertiveness and the demographic variables: parents' participation in athletics and sex of older sibling(s). For purposes of this study, the level of significance needed for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05.
Results of the Study

The results of the analysis of the data related to the four research hypotheses are summarized below.

1. A nonsignificant 't' was obtained in the comparison of mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general on the College Self Expression Scale. This evidence suggested that both women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general are equally assertive.

2. A nonsignificant F ratio was obtained in the comparison of the mean score of women intercollegiate athletes and the mean scores of the norm groups in Galassi's study using the College Self Expression Scale. This evidence suggested that both women intercollegiate athletes and women in the norm groups in Galassi's study are equally assertive.

3. A nonsignificant 't' was obtained in the comparison of mean scores of women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports and women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports on the College Self Expression Scale. This evidence suggested that women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports and women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports are equally assertive.

4. No significant correlation coefficient was obtained between assertiveness of women intercollegiate
athletes and the level of mothers' education, level of fathers' education, level of mothers' occupation, and level of fathers' occupation. A low but significant correlation was obtained between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and fathers' participation in athletics. However, the significant point biserial correlation may be attributed to a statistical artifact. No significant correlation was obtained between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and mothers' participation in athletics. Finally, no significant correlation was obtained between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and sex of older sibling(s).

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions reached from the analysis of data reported in Chapter 4 are made within the limitations and assumptions of this study. These conclusions will be discussed within the framework of the research questions posed in this study. These research questions are:

1. Are women intercollegiate athletes different from college women in general with respect to assertiveness?

2. Are women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports different from women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports with respect to assertiveness?
3. Is there a relationship between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and the following demographic variables: level of parents' education and occupation, parents' participation in athletics, and sex of older sibling(s)?

Women intercollegiate athletes at Indiana State University were found to be no more assertive than college women in general at Indiana State University. It was first thought that these results could be attributed to an increase in assertiveness of both women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general. However, when assertiveness scores from the college women in general group were compared to scores from Galassi's norm groups (1974), this speculation was shown to be untenable. Women intercollegiate athletes' assertiveness scores were also compared to assertiveness scores of Galassi's norm groups. These groups were also found to be equally assertive.

Research reviewed for this study showed that women athletes who participate in team sports and women athletes who participate in individual sports differ on a number of personality factors. However, data in this study revealed that women intercollegiate athletes who participate in team sports are no more assertive than women intercollegiate athletes who participate in individual sports.

Assertiveness was not significantly related to two measures of socio-economic status: level of parents'
education and level of parents' occupation. There was a low but significant relationship between fathers' participation in athletics and assertiveness of the daughter who participated in intercollegiate athletics. This significant result tended to support research by Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1964) who found that fathers were the critical factor in the child's sex role preferences. There was no significant relationship between the mothers' participation in athletics and the assertiveness of the daughter. Finally, no significant relationship was obtained between assertiveness of women intercollegiate athletes and sex of older sibling(s).

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the investigator's experience in conducting this study, a number of recommendations are presented below. These recommendations include extensions of the present study to different populations and uses of additional instrumentation.

A follow-up study is recommended. If the same data were collected on the two groups studied, it would be possible to assess whether or not, as a result of additional college training and/or additional athletic competition, college women in general and women intercollegiate athletes change in their level of assertiveness.

It would be interesting to repeat the present study using a sample of male intercollegiate athletes and
college males in general. If such a study were conducted, information would be added to the general pool or research on personality characteristics of athletes. Additionally, some light may be shed on sex differences, especially intercollegiate athletes, on the variable of assertiveness.

Little information is currently available with respect to the level of assertiveness of women or men who are not college students. Thus, it is recommended that the current study be extended by adding comparison groups of noncollege women.

Since the **College Self Expression Scale** asks persons to respond to social situations commonly encountered by college students, this study could not directly assess whether women intercollegiate athletes are differentially assertive. An interesting question is: Are college women athletes more assertive in athletic competition than they are in social situations? To answer such a question, it is recommended that the present study be repeated but with the **College Self Expression Scale** modified to include items specific to athletics. An alternative recommendation would be to design a new assertion instrument. This instrument would include items specific to intercollegiate athletic competition. The recommendations outlined in this paragraph concur with recent suggestions for future research on athletes (Harris, 1977; "Psychological Testing of Athletes," 1977).
The **College Self Expression Scale** does not measure aggression. It is recommended that the present research be expanded to include an instrument which measures aggression. If such a study were conducted it would be possible to begin to answer the following question: In social situations what is the difference between the level of assertion and the level of aggression of women intercollegiate athletes and college women in general?

As sex role stereotypes continue to change it would be interesting to study how women intercollegiate athletes change. One way to study changes in women intercollegiate athletes is to collect data which measures their perception of their own sexuality on the dimensions of androgyny, femininity, masculinity, and undifferentiated. The **Personal Attributes Questionnaire** (Spence & Helmreich, 1974) does measure these four aspects of sexuality. If female athletes do adjust their own sex role stereotypes, perhaps their scores on such an instrument would reflect such an adjustment. Thus, the present study could be repeated and additional data on sex role stereotyping could be collected.

Additional research is encouraged which examines the relationship between assertiveness in women intercollegiate athletes and family influence. The present study could be extended with assertiveness data being collected on the athletes' mothers, fathers, and siblings.
Such a study would allow for an examination of the influence of levels of assertiveness of selected family members on the assertiveness in female athletes.
APPENDIXES
APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

Name__________________________ Age___ Social Security No.______

1. Major field of study?__________ Minor or Emphasis?__________

2. Year in school? (check one) Freshman__ Sophomore__ Junior__ Senior__

3. Parent's level of education? (check one)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Level of Education</th>
<th>Mother's</th>
<th>Father's</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Professional Training. (Persons who complete a recognized professional course leading to a graduate degree.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard College or University Graduation. (All individuals who complete a four-year college or university course leading to recognized college degree.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial College Training. (Individuals who complete at least one year but not a full college course. Most individuals in this category complete from one to three years of college.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate. (All secondary school graduates whether from a private preparatory school, a public high school, a trade school, or a parochial high school.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial High School. (Individuals who complete the tenth or eleventh grades, but do not complete high school.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High School. (Individuals who complete the seventh through the ninth grades.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Than Seven Years of School. (Individuals who do not complete the seventh grade.)</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Parents' Occupations?

Mother's______________ Father's______________
5. Parents' Participation in Athletics? (check yes or no for each parent)

Mother's participation in high school and/or college athletics?
Yes____ No____

Father's participation in high school and/or college athletics?
Yes____ No____

6. Older Brothers and Sisters?

Older Brother(s) Ages Specify high school and/or college athletic(s) participation

High School Sport(s)? College Sport(s)?
_________________________ __________________________
_________________________ __________________________
_________________________ __________________________

Older Sister(s) Ages Specify high school and/or college athletic(s) participation

High School Sport(s)? College Sport(s)?
_________________________ __________________________
_________________________ __________________________
_________________________ __________________________

7. Types of Competitive Experience

a. Participation on high school varsity (V) or junior varsity (JV) athletic team(s)?

Yes____ No____ If yes, specify sport(s)__________________________

_________________________ __________________________

b. Athletic team on which you are currently participating?_______

gc. Other athletic team(s) for which you intend to try out this year?

_________________________ __________________________

d. Do you hold an athletic scholarship? Yes____ No____ If yes, specify sport__________________________
APPENDIX B

THE COLLEGE SELF EXPRESSION SCALE

VERBAL INSTRUCTIONS

The College Self Expression Scale consists of 50 questions. If in responding to any of the 50 questions you find that the situation described is not presently applicable to you—for example you do not have a roommate, please do not skip the question. Instead, answer it in terms of how you think you would be likely to react if you were in the situation—for example, if you had a roommate. Please do not skip any of the questions. Now read the paragraph at the top of the first page and begin.
THE COLLEGE SELF EXPRESSION SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS
The following inventory is designed to provide information about the way in which you express yourself. Please answer the questions by checking the appropriate box from 1-5 (Almost Always or Always, 1; Usually, 2; Sometimes, 3; Seldom, 4; Never or Rarely, 5) on the computer answer sheet. Your answer should reflect how you generally express yourself in the situation.

1. Do you ignore it when someone pushes in front of you in line?

2. When you decide that you no longer wish to date someone, do you have marked difficulty telling the person of your decision?

3. Would you exchange a purchase you discover to be faulty?

4. If you decided to change your major to a field which your parents will not approve, would you have difficulty telling them?

5. Are you inclined to be over-apologetic?

6. If you were studying and if your roommate was making too much noise, would you ask him to stop?

7. Is it difficult for you to compliment and praise others?

8. If you are angry at your parents, can you tell them?

9. Do you insist that your roommate does his fair share of the cleaning?

10. If you find yourself becoming fond of someone you are dating, would you have difficulty expressing these feelings to that person?

11. If a friend who has borrowed $5.00 from you seems to have forgotten about it, would you remind this person?

12. Are you overly careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings?

13. If you have a close friend whom your parents dislike and constantly criticize, would you inform your parents that you disagree with them and tell them of your friend's assets?
14. Do you find it difficult to ask a friend to do a favor for you?

15. If food which is not to your satisfaction is served in a restaurant, would you complain about it to the waiter?

16. If your roommate without your permission eats food that he knows you have been saving, can you express your displeasure to him?

17. If a salesman has gone to considerable trouble to show you some merchandise which is not quite suitable, do you have difficulty in saying no?

18. Do you keep your opinions to yourself?

19. If friends visit when you want to study, do you ask them to return at a more convenient time?

20. Are you able to express love and affection to people for whom you care?

21. If you were in a small seminar and the professor made a statement that you considered untrue, would you question it?

22. If a person of the opposite sex whom you have been wanting to meet smiles or directs attention to you at a party, would you take the initiative in beginning a conversation?

23. If someone you respect expresses opinions with which you strongly disagree, would you venture to state your own point of view?

24. Do you go out of your way to avoid trouble with other people?

25. If a friend is wearing a new outfit which you like, do you tell that person so?

26. If after leaving a store you realize that you have been "short-changed," do you go back and request the correct amount?

27. If a friend makes what you consider to be an unreasonable request, are you able to refuse?

28. If a close and respected relative were annoying you, would you hide your feelings rather than express your annoyance?
29. If your parents want you to come home for a weekend but you have made important plans, would you tell them of your preference?

30. Do you express anger or annoyance toward the opposite sex when it is justified?

31. If a friend does an errand for you, do you tell that person how much you appreciate it?

32. When a person is blatantly unfair, do you fail to say something about it to him?

33. Do you avoid social contacts for fear of doing or saying the wrong thing?

34. If a friend betrays your confidence, would you hesitate to express annoyance to that person?

35. When a clerk in a store waits on someone who has come in after you, do you call his attention to the matter?

36. If you are particularly happy about someone's good fortune, can you express this to that person?

37. Would you be hesitant about asking a good friend to lend you a few dollars?

38. If a person teases you to the point that it is no longer fun, do you have difficulty expressing your displeasure?

39. If you arrive late for a meeting, would you rather stand than go to a front seat which could only be secured with a fair degree of conspicuousness?

40. If your date calls on Saturday night 15 minutes before you are supposed to meet and says that she (he) has to study for an important exam and cannot make it, would you express your annoyance?

41. If someone keeps kicking the back of your chair in a movie, would you ask him to stop?

42. If someone interrupts you in the middle of an important conversation, do you request that the person wait until you have finished?

43. Do you freely volunteer information or opinions in class discussions?
44. Are you reluctant to speak to an attractive acquaintance of the opposite sex?

45. If you lived in an apartment and the landlord failed to make certain necessary repairs after promising to do so, would you insist on it?

46. If your parents want you home by a certain time which you feel is much too early and unreasonable, do you attempt to discuss or negotiate this with them?

47. Do you find it difficult to stand up for your rights?

48. If a friend unjustifiably criticizes you, do you express your resentment there and then?

49. Do you express your feelings to others?

50. Do you avoid asking questions in class for fear of feeling self-conscious?
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Harris, D. V. An Interactional Approach: Person-Physical Activity Situation. Paper presented at the Third Symposium on Integrated Development of Psycho-Social Behavior of Sport, Purdue University, April 1977.


