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An exploratory study of the relationships among sex-role orientation, communicative attitudes and perceptions of communicative behaviors

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY
OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG
SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION,
COMMUNICATIVE ATTITUDES
AND
PERCEPTIONS OF COMMUNICATIVE BEHAVIORS

A Thesis

Presented to the
Department of Communication
and the
Faculty of the Graduate College
University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
University of Nebraska at Omaha

by

Roberta J. McBride

June, 1988

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THESIS ACCEPTANCE

Accepted for the faculty of the Graduate College, University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Master of Arts, University of Nebraska at Omaha.

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6/10/88
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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express vast appreciation to my daughters Sarah and Abby for their support and patience, particularly during the last few months of this endeavor. Also, the constant encouragement of many friends provided more impetus than they know, and more than I can ever repay. A special note of gratitude goes to Barry Butterfield for his ever present help. Finally, to Dr. Robert Carlson, my advisor, mentor and, most importantly, friend, words alone fail. Thank you.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Communication, whether in spoken language, written form or non-verbal behavior, has been the object of scrutiny for as long as it has been practiced. The study of communication has become increasingly specialized and occasionally compartmentalized as the interest in communication and its effects has grown. Interpersonal, small-group, non-verbal and organizational are just some of the divisions within communication study and research.

Interpersonal communication and the study of how humans interact with one another is often studied through various perspectives. These perspectives are distinguished by how communication takes place, when and where communication occurs, what makes up the process, and other criteria meaningful to the person doing the studying.

Many factors affect human communication. One's attitude, emotional state, value system, education, environment, experience; all of these and more play a part to determine the outcome of a communication interaction. Three elements, sex-role orientation, assertiveness and communicative attitudes toward encoding messages, which all potentially affect communicative behavior, will be explored in this thesis to examine if relationships can be found among the three.

Literature Review

Sex-Role Orientation

Androgyny

Androgyny is an ancient concept which has been resurrected and reshaped in order to serve a somewhat different need today. An individual possessing a high level of masculine as well as feminine characteristics, discounting gender, is thought of as androgynous today. Classical mythology, literature and religion have not only viewed an androgynous being as a blending of masculine and feminine traits, but sometimes as a blending of sexual identities as well. Androgynous individuals were often viewed as ideal beings with unique capabilities.

The psychological benefits of androgyny were spoken of by Carl Jung. He believed animus (masculine) and anima (feminine) were a part of everyone's make-up and stressed the need for individuals to recognize the good qualities of both and to combine the two in order to become a fully mature and functioning person. Many psychologists (Olds, 1981; Bakan, 1966; and Block, 1973) emphasize the need for the balancing of the feminine and masculine traits and the ability to cope with the stress that may accompany the balancing act.

There has been some confusion of androgyny with hermaphroditism, bisexuality and even the absence of any sex-role identity. Various psychologists, counselors and therapists view androgyny as a behavioral goal for their clients (Cook, 1985). Researchers in the area of sex-roles generally agree that androgyny is a blending of

masculine and feminine traits resulting in a desirable form of sex-role behavior. Masculine characteristics have traditionally been such traits as: able to lead, strong-willed, independent, aggressive, and other traits which enable the individual to survive and succeed in today's world. Feminine characteristics, on the other hand, are traditionally associated with home and hearth, family concerns and personal nurture and care. Further definitions of androgyny and its components vary greatly due to the individual researcher as well as the question being asked.

Feminists have used androgyny as an escape from the "prison of gender". Society has reinforced preconceived notions of "appropriate" sex-role behavior at women's expense. Feminine traits have been found to be not as socially desirable as masculine traits for adults (Eakins and Eakins, 1978) but with the concept of masculine and feminine traits in a single person being not merely socially acceptable, but desired, feminists argue that feminine character traits will earn more respectability (Vetterling-Braggin, 1982).

There are several common assumptions made by researchers regarding androgyny. The first is that the concepts of masculinity and femininity are individual, theoretically meaningful constructs which are basically independent (Cook, 1985). Alfred Heilbrun takes exception to this assumption and argues that independence in the true statistical definition shows a true correlation of zero, and this is not shown by the current sex-role instruments. He takes the position that exclusiveness may indeed occur at certain levels of sex-role

behavior (i.e. high feminine women may not exhibit very many masculine qualities) but that the wide middle range of the population will not adhere to an independent correlation (Heilbrun, 1981).

The second assumption is that femininity and masculinity as psychological dimensions may have implications for various types of behavior. Sandra Bem in her early work hypothesized that a highly sex-typed individual might reject behavior not consistent with the sex-role stereotype (Bem, 1974). Spence and Helmreich (1978) pointed out that the correlation between masculinity and femininity and other sex-role variables is not likely to be as strong unless the variables are directly related to the instrumental/expressive domain. These two roles divide male and female roles into instrumental, which gives men the primary responsibility for the family's economic well-being, and expressive, which gives women the task of caring for the physical and emotional needs of the family in the home. At any rate, researchers agree that cause-effect statements are probably over-simplified and misleading.

The third assumption is that femininity and masculinity each have a powerful influence on behavior. Research has shown predictive value for both characteristics, with more documentation and stronger effects on the masculine side. Cook (1985) cites research noting the "male supremacy effect" put forth by Yager and Baker (p. 96), current social advantages and the belief held by some that femininity is often equated with weakness.

The fourth assumption is that particular combinations of

masculinity and femininity have "systematic, theoretically consistent effects on behavior" (Cook, 1985, p. 124). These effects have been most commonly studied by comparing individuals who have been classified into one of four sex-role categories by the use of the median-split method. Spence has promoted this method, but supports the use of the four-way classification as a means of demonstrating the effects of masculinity and femininity, rather than as a "representation of enduring distinctions extending above and beyond masculine/feminine self-descriptions" (Spence, as cited in Cook, 1985).

The fifth assumption is that sex (gender) interacts with different levels of femininity and/or masculinity to effect behavioral variations. Although some researchers have downplayed sex differences and others have insisted gender is essential to understanding related behavior, the relationship between gender and androgyny appears to be not well understood (Cook, 1985).

The sixth and final assumption deals with androgyny as an ideal. Although early research assumed androgyny would eventually be a model of psychological health (Bem, 1974), this assumption has not been fully supported by data gathered since its publication. Although androgynous individuals do seem to have more interpersonal skills and sensitivity (Baucom, 1980) and rate highest on self-esteem measures (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975), more research needs to focus on possible negatives associated with androgyny.

Masculinity/femininity/androgyny research has recently used a

dualistic approach rather than the bipolar method used earlier. The dualistic approach relies on the ability of masculine and feminine attributes to vary independently of one another, while the bipolar assumes that if an individual has more of one attribute, he/she will have less of the other. Many modern researchers use the dualistic method for examining gathered data, but Spence and Helmreich (1978) have found support for the bipolar model.

Some of their research using the PAQ (Personal Attributes Questionnaire) provided data confirming the bipolar model, while other studies they conducted disproved the bipolar conception and provided support of the dualistic. Their study of data still lent credence to their M-F scale which led them to retain it, "despite the conceptual embarrassment of having to embrace simultaneously a dualistic and bipolar model of masculinity and femininity" (Spence and Helmreich, 1978).

This discussion of feminine, masculine and androgynous characteristics would not be complete without a word of caution. By categorizing traits into convenient boxes and labeling them "masculine" or "feminine", we may thereby further reinforce the stereotypes of the culture. In the words of Linda Olds, there is an accompanying tendency to think of them as "social fictions" rather than "universal constructs that apply to either sex" (1981, p. 63). She also suggests that androgyny is best used as a metaphor for two clusters of human tendencies which can characterize a person of either sex. For example, masculine may refer to a "linear, rational and

aggressive way of interacting" and feminine may refer to an "intuitive, interrelated, receptive way of taking in information" (p. 63). Both men and women have equal access to each type of functioning.

There are several measuring instruments currently being used in sex-difference research. The four most popular are the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1974); the ANDRO scale, based on the Personality Research Form (Berzins, Welling & Wetter, 1978); the Adjective Checklist Sex Role Scales (ACL) (Heilbrun, 1976); and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) (Spence et al., 1974). There have been numerous studies done with each instrument, with corresponding volumes of data. More recently there have been comparisons of the four instruments examining concurrent validity (Wilson and Cook, 1984) and a study examining the underlying constructs of androgyny itself (Kaplan & Sedney, 1980).

The BSRI developed by Sandra Bem in 1974 was based on three assumptions: 1) masculinity and femininity are independent dimensions; 2) psychological androgyny is a reliable concept; and 3) highly sex-typed scores are a reflection of an individual's self-description relative to socially desirable standards for men and women (Bem, 1974). The instrument consists of 60 items, divided equally among masculine, feminine and socially desirable. The individual is asked to describe her/himself on a 7-point scale by indicating if the characteristic is: Never or almost never true (1 point) through Always or almost always true (7 points). There is an

individual score received for masculinity and femininity. A socially desirability score can also be computed (Bem, 1974).

Bem computed the internal consistency and the independence of femininity and masculinity. The results indicated all three scales to be highly reliable, and masculinity and femininity to be independent constructs. Originally, Bem used a subtraction formula to determine androgyny, but later re-examined the scoring and changed to a median split type, as advocated by others (Spence and Helmreich, 1978).

The PAQ instrument developed by Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1974, 1975) consists of 55 items and uses three scales: Masculinity (M), Femininity (F) and Masculinity-Femininity (M-F). They ask respondents to rate themselves on a 5 point scale, 0-4. High scores on the M and M-F indicate an extreme masculine response. After establishing normative values and determining medians for each scale, they devised the median split system of scoring.

The median split scoring box not only separates people into the categories of androgynous, feminine and masculine, but creates a fourth group called "undifferentiated". This group scores below the median on both the Masculine and Feminine scales, and before this system was implemented, was put into the Androgynous group. With the development of the scoring box, it became possible to make the distinction between high scoring and low scoring individuals who did not fit in either the feminine or masculine category. (See Table 1).

Table 1

Spence and Helmreich's Median Split Scoring Box*

		MASCULINITY	
		Above Median	Below Median
FEMININITY	Above Median	ANDROGYNOUS	FEMININE
	Below Median	MASCULINE	UNDIFFERENTIATED

*Also used by Bem with the BSRI

Heilbrun keyed over 300 behavioral adjectives into masculine-feminine behaviors for the development of the ACL Sex-Role Scales and asked individuals merely to check the ones that were self-characteristic. The test was designed to measure the relative femininity or masculinity of the test-taker, not the androgyny.

The ANDRO scale (Berzins et al., 1978) is patterned after the BSRI, using items for their sex-typed desirability, consistent with the instrumental/expressive dimension spoken of earlier. The scale contains 56 true-false items (29 masculinity and 27 femininity) based on self-described behavior. Scoring is usually done with the median split method.

Assertiveness

Assertiveness is a concept brought to public awareness and made popular in the late 1960's, when "looking out for #1" was the phrase

of the day. Assertiveness training has become an important tool for therapists in the process of enabling non-assertive persons to gain self-respect without infringing upon the rights of others.

Although dozens of studies have dealt with some form of assertiveness, non-assertiveness or aggression with accompanying variables, the definition of the terms is usually not specifically addressed. Alberti and Emmons define assertion as:

"Assertive behavior enables a person to act in his or her own best interests, to stand up for herself or himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others."

(Alberti and Emmons, 1982, p. 13)

Alberti and Emmons continue with the description of non-assertive behavior as that which denies self, inhibits actual responses, produces anxiety and results in a non-achievement of individual goals. Aggressive behavior, on the other hand, involves hurting other people in order to satisfy one's own needs or desires (Alberti and Emmons, 1982).

Much of today's research is based on the concept of assertiveness as defined by Wolpe (1969). Wolpe's work was centered on working with neurotic patients and was not concerned with a firm delineation between assertiveness and aggression. In fact, Wolpe defines assertiveness as "more or less aggressive behavior..." which also includes positive expressions such as friendliness or affection.

DeGiovanni and Epstein (1978) argue that the confusion of assertiveness and aggressiveness continues to muddy the research done on assertiveness. In their work reviewing assertiveness measures

(1978) they note that several scales have items that confound assertion and aggression. The first item on the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule (Rathus, 1973), for instance, reads, "Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am." Swimmer and Ramanaiah (1985) point out that a "yes" response to the question, "Do you express anger or annoyance toward the opposite sex when it is justified?" (CSES, Galassi, DeLo, Galassi, and Bastien, 1974) can be either aggressive or assertive depending on how the anger is expressed.

Hollandsworth (1977) defines assertive behavior as the "direct, verbal, and nonverbal expression of one's feelings, needs, preferences, or opinions" and aggressive behavior as verbal or nonverbal "noxious stimulation" to another individual (p. 348-349). There are two problems with these definitions: 1) The behavior is perceived by another, and it may not be perceived correctly, and 2) The definition is limited to behavior and doesn't allow for intent, effect or the social-cultural context, as does Alberti's. Hollandsworth also makes a connection between assertion and legitimate power, defined as power which comes from socially shared value systems. Aggression is linked with coercive power which uses threats of punishment in order to achieve one's goals (1977).

The relationship between assertiveness and gender has been examined by several researchers with conflicting results. Both Kelly and Worell (1977) and Spence and Helmreich (1978) hypothesized that because of traditional sex-role stereotyping, male assertiveness would

be received more favorably than female assertiveness. Hess, Bridgwater, Bornstein and Sweeny (1980) conclude that the "perception of assertive behavior is markedly influenced by sex-related situational factors" (p. 56). In addition, Hess et al. found that negative assertion is more closely associated with masculine characteristics.

Kern (1982) found that the data did not indicate a sex-role bias as previously reported by Kelly, Kern, Kirkley, Patterson and Kean (1980) and suggests different stimulus situations as one possible cause. He points out "the inconsistent results are further indications of the complexity of reactions to assertive behavior..." (Kern, 1982, p. 496). Further, in a later study, Kern, Cavell and Beck indicate "only individuals reporting a conservative attitude toward women's roles in society...devalued female models' assertions and empathetic-assertions" (1985, p.70). They note that, in general, males report more conservative attitudes toward women's roles than do females, so that the assumption made by women that their assertions are taken less favorably are understandable.

Levin and Gross (1984) examined assertiveness in positive as well as negative situations, and found that assertive females are viewed more favorably than non-assertive women. However, the results of the study are limited by its use of only female subjects.

When assertiveness entered public domain in the 1960's and became the subject of training and therapy, instruments to gauge one's assertiveness proliferated. Many of these measurements were purely

for the therapist's benefit to help with the client's treatment. These have not been validated and are unsuitable for the purpose of this study.

There are three instruments frequently used for research in this area: the College Self-Expression Scale (CSES); the Wolpe-Lazarus Assertiveness Questionnaire (WLAQ) and the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule (RAS).

The CSES (Galassi, et al., 1974) consists of 50 items on a 5-point response scale. In comparison studies to determine convergent and discriminant validity (Kern and MacDonald, 1980; Swimmer and Ramanaiah, 1985), evidence supported both types of validity for the CSES.

The WLAQ (Wolpe and Lazarus, 1966) contains 30 true-false questions and has been widely used to evaluate effects of assertiveness training, as well as to gauge the respondent's level of assertiveness. Again, the WLAQ was found to have good reliability and good convergent and discriminant validity (Swimmer and Ramanaiah, 1985). A weakness of the measure lies in its dichotomous nature, with no allowance for situational influences.

Rathus (1973) designed the RAS to measure assertiveness by self-reporting on a 30 item questionnaire using descriptive scales ranging from a "+3 - very characteristic of me, extremely descriptive" to "-3 - very uncharacteristic of me, extremely non-descriptive" (p. 399). The score is then totaled to provide an overall rating of assertiveness.

Comparisons of the RAS and CSES by Nesbitt (1979) found that both tests were poor predictors of assertive behavior, as correlations with a separate situational test indicated that subjects actually tended to act opposite to how they had reported (Nesbitt, 1979). Another finding of this study was that question #1 on the RAS, "Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am" was actually the best single predictor for behavior. Subjects tended to behave consistently across different types of situations, indicating support for the argument that assertiveness is a global trait, and does not consist of different factors as maintained by Galassi et al (1974).

Attitudes toward Encoding Messages

The terms expressive and instrumental were used earlier to identify sex-role orientation, with masculinity associated with the instrumental, or "getting it done" approach, and femininity identified with the expressive or "concern for others" viewpoint. These terms are used in this section as well, but when speaking of communication, the two words are given somewhat different meanings.

The expressive approach to communication is thought of as a way to vent one's own feelings, regardless of the cost to the other, while an instrumental stance views communication as a process, whereby both parties seek to understand the situation and move toward a mutually acceptable goal. Hart and Burks (1972) equate the instrumental approach with a rhetorical perspective and define five characteristics of a "rhetorically sensitive" individual, i.e. characteristics that describe an "ideal" attitude set toward encoding spoken messages:

"The rhetorically sensitive person, then, (1) tries to accept role-taking as part of the human condition, (2) attempts to avoid stylized behavior, (3) is characteristically willing to undergo the strain of adaption, (4) seeks to distinguish between all information and information acceptable for communication, and (5) tries to understand that an idea can be rendered in multi-form ways."
(Hart and Burks, 1972, p.76)

Darnell and Brockreide (1976) expand Hart and Burks construct with the creation of a "sensitivity continuum" and place on this continuum at polar points the "Noble Self" and the "Reflector," with the "Sensitive" in between the two. The Noble Self individual can best be described by the phrase "looking out for #1". According to Darnell and Brockreide, this person has a unitary view of self, and choices are made in order to align all aspects of life to fit his or her personal norms. Any deviation of behavior from this model is viewed as hypocritical. The phrase "tell it like it is" was no doubt coined by a true Noble Self. In addition, the Noble Self makes choices about communication from this unitary point of view, and views "truth" (as he/she sees it) as the guide for conversations, even if it is to the detriment of the conversant's partner. The Noble Self wants to control the other and the environment rather than to share choices and is willing to use cleverness or force to achieve his or her own goals. A pure Noble Self is a closed system and can only find empathy with another Noble Self whose self-view and value system is similar (Darnell and Brockreide, 1976).

Reflectors are at the other point of this continuum, and are a perfect example of "pluralism gone wild" (p. 178). They are a mirror

image of whoever they meet, and in this sense, really have no self to call their own. Their communicative goal is to please the other and to be liked. Any decision the Reflector makes is usually a result of calculating what another person wants and trying to match it. Usually good at empathy, the goal is to identify enough with the other person so that the other's needs and wants can be accommodated. Reflectors are willing victims and the only controlling they want to do is to make other people take control.

The Sensitive individuals, if meeting the criteria set forth by Hart and Burks, have a much more difficult task to perform during communicative acts than either the Noble Self or the Reflector. For each situation, the Sensitive must pick and choose which self from an entire "repertoire of selves" is most appropriate. Sensitive may choose to act the Noble Self or the Reflector in given situations. Their goal is shared choice in order to achieve a win/win outcome for all involved parties. Communication, as perceived by the Sensitive, is transactional in nature and can be a struggle for understanding and reaching a mutually satisfying conclusion.

Carlson (1978) and Hart, Carlson, and Eadie (1980) presented definitive research on an instrument (named RHETSEN) devised to measure the communicative attitude sets of rhetorical sensitivity, noble selfness and rhetorical reflectoriness.

The RHETSEN instrument consists of 40 items which are responded to by means of a Likert-type scale. Individual items can measure more than one attitudinal construct through differentially weighting the

responses. Of the 40 items, 24 measure the Noble Self construct, 24 measure Rhetorical Reflector tendencies, and 28 measure Rhetorical Sensitivity.

Purpose of the Study

Some commonalities have emerged from surveying the research done in the areas of androgyny, assertiveness and rhetorical sensitivity. The various instruments used to measure sex-role orientation, the instruments used to measure assertiveness and RHETSEN are all self-report measures: the assertiveness instruments of perceived behavior, the RHETSEN of communicative attitudes and the sex-role instruments of perceived behavior. Similar descriptions of attitudes and behaviors hinted at unexplored relationships. When the descriptions are studied, an overlap of the three seems apparent.

Sex-role orientation seems to influence perceptions of assertive behavior (Kern, Cavel and Beck, 1985; Hess, Bridgwater, Bornstien and Sweeney, 1980), affinity-seeking strategies (Tolhizen, 1986), self-esteem (Bem, 1977; Spence, Helmreich and Stapp, 1975) and social skills such as friendliness, maturity and leadership (Baucom, 1980). A link tends to exist between high noble selfness and high assertiveness, and high rhetorical reflectoriness and low assertiveness when attitudes and perceived self behaviors are congruent (Carlson and Brilhart, 1980).

When the characteristics in Tables 2-4 are examined, these theoretical groupings emerge: 1) Noble selfness/high assertiveness/

masculinity; 2) Rhetorical reflectoriness/low assertiveness/femininity;
and 3) Rhetorical sensitivity/middle assertiveness/androgyny.

Table 2

Characteristics of Noble Selfness,
High Assertiveness and Masculinity

Noble Self Characteristics

Wants to control (Darnell & Brockreide, 1976)
Needs of self are primary (Ibid.)
Uses force or cunning (Ibid.)
Analytical (Ibid.)
Less cooperative (Eadie & Paulson, 1984)
Little flexibility (Eadie & Powell, 1986)
More dramatic (Eadie, 1986)

High Assertive Characteristics

Uses name calling (Alberti & Emmons, 1982)
Considers one's self only (Ibid.)
Uses unfair criticism (Ibid.)
Is controlling (Ibid.)
Devalues competency of others (Kern, 1982)

Masculine Characteristics

Dominant (Bem, 1974)
Competitive (Ibid.)
Analytical (Ibid.)
Aggressive (Ibid.)
Leadership oriented, demanding, temperamental
(Baucom, 1980)

Table 3

Characteristics of Rhetorical Reflectorness,
Low Assertiveness and Femininity

Rhetorical Reflector Characteristics

Very empathetic (Darnell & Brockreide, 1976)
 Wants to please others (Ibid.)
 Able to perceive others' needs and desires (Ibid.)
 Non-controlling (Ibid.)
 Non-argumentative (Ibid.)
 Conservative (Hart, Carlson & Eadie, 1980)
 Traditional (Ibid.)
 Tentative (Eadie & Powell, 1986)

Low Assertive Characteristics

Allows others to choose (Alberti & Emmons, 1982)
 Always puts others before one's self (Ibid.)
 Negative self-statements and expectations (Kern, 1982)
 Inoffensive, agreeable, considerate, flexible, kind,
 sympathetic (Kelly, Kern, Kirkley, Patterson and Keane, 1980)
 Viewed as less competent (Kern, Cavell & Beck, 1985)

Feminine Characteristics

Compassionate, gentle, eager to soothe hurt feelings
 (Bem, 1974)
 Sympathetic, sensitive to the needs of others,
 understanding, yielding (Ibid.)
 Dependent (Baucom, 1980)
 Nonassertive, questions ability to handle self (Ibid.)
 Conforming (Ibid.)

Table 4

Characteristics of Rhetorical Sensitivity,
Assertiveness and Androgyny

Rhetorical Sensitivity Characteristics

Multi-ordinal (Hart & Burks, 1972)
Tries to maintain the character of the
relationship (Eadie & Powell, 1986)
Pleasant and friendly (Eadie & Paulson, 1984)
Feels personally competent (Carlson, 1978)
Concern for others within boundaries (Ibid.)
Shared control desired (Darnell & Brockreide, 1976)
Views themselves and others as worthwhile (Ibid.)
Rational but not unyielding (Ibid.)

Assertive Characteristics

Direct and firm (Alberti & Emmons, 1982)
Expresses feelings comfortably (Ibid.)
Places self first, but takes others into account (Ibid.)
Socially responsible (Ibid.)
Appropriate decisions for person and situation (Ibid.)

Androgynous Characteristics

High self-esteem (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975)
High rating in assertion skills (Campbell, Steffen
& Langmeyer, 1981)
High in leadership, maturity and concern for others
(Baucom, 1980)
Greater flexibility in their affinity-seeking strategies
(Tolhuizen, 1986)
Highest in social poise (Kelly & Worell, 1977)

Definition of terms

Several of the terms used in this study have more than one meaning, and some have been used in a different sense than is intended in the results, discussion and conclusion sections of this thesis. Therefore, the following definitions and clarifications are offered in explanation.

Two terms, feminine and masculine, (or, occasionally, femininity and masculinity, dependent upon usage) are used when referring to the separate scales contained within the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI).

The BSRI was used in this study for several reasons. The instrument has been widely used and has been shown to be reliable and valid. Also, the scale used for scoring was consistent with the other scales chosen for the survey. The BSRI scales will be distinguished by the following:

MAS refers to the score an individual received on the Masculinity scale of the BSRI. If the MAS score is equal to or greater than 4.75, and the FEM score is less than 4.5, the individual is said to be masculine.

FEM refers to the score an individual received on the Femininity scale of the BSRI. If the FEM score is equal to or greater than 4.5, and the MAS score is less than 4.75, the individual is said to be feminine.

These scales are the basis for determining the sex-role orientation of all four types. An individual scoring equal to or greater than both medians for the MAS and FEM is said to be

androgynous, and the person scoring below both medians is undifferentiated.

ASSERT refers to the score received on the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule. The Rathus Assertiveness Schedule was chosen to measure assertiveness for this study, both for the predictive value of item #1, and for the Lickert-type scale which allows for more situational consideration. The determination was made that the scale similarity of the three instruments would offer the respondent more latitude. The lower the ASSERT score, the more assertive the person is. The higher the ASSERT, the less assertive the individual.

NS, RR and RS refer to the scores received by an individual on the RHETSEN sub-scales of Noble Self, Rhetorical Reflector and Rhetorical Sensitive respectively.

Statement of the Hypotheses

Based on the theoretical characteristics presented in Tables 2-4, and the preceding definition of terms, the following hypotheses are put forth:

- H 1. There is a correlation between MAS, NS and ASSERT.
- H 2. There is a correlation between FEM, RR, and ASSERT.
- H 3. Masculine types (as defined by the BSRI) are more Noble Self and more assertive than feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated types.
- H 4. Feminine types (as defined by the BSRI) are more Rhetorical Reflector and less assertive than masculine, androgynous or undifferentiated types.

H 5. Androgynous types (as defined by the BSRI) are more rhetorically sensitive than masculine, feminine or undifferentiated types; less assertive than masculine types; and more assertive than feminine types.

CHAPTER II

Methodology

Subjects

Students enrolled in five sections of a basic speech course at an urban university were asked to participate in this study through the completion of a 132-item questionnaire during the first week of class. Students were given the option of participating with complete anonymity assured.

Instruments

Three instruments, the BSRI, RAS and RHETSEN, were used in this study with items numbered in a continuous format, 1-130. Two demographic questions regarding age and sex were added at the end, making the entire questionnaire 132 items long. Separate instructions were retained for each of the sections, and answers were recorded on mark-sense computer scan sheets.

BSRI

As discussed in the earlier section, the Bem Sex-Role inventory was developed in 1974 by Sandra Bem. Bem was attempting to develop a measuring technique that did not require masculinity and femininity to be at opposite ends of a bipolar continuum, as had been the standard concept, both in psychology and society itself. With masculinity and femininity viewed as opposites, according to Bem, no allowance is made

for the presence of both attributes in a single individual, disallowing the notion of androgyny, and also restricting a person who is strongly sex-typed to a prescribed behavior in varying situations (Bem, 1974).

Through the use of 100 student "judges", Bem narrowed over 400 items to the present 20 masculine, 20 feminine and 20 socially desirable traits that make up the questionnaire. Mean desirability scales found men and women nearly equal in their perceptions of sex-appropriate and inappropriate traits. In a study of concurrent validity of four androgyny instruments, this scale was judged to be the best for exploring stereotypic sex-role behavior (Wilson and Cook, 1984).

Scoring of the BSRI is normally done with a median-split method, although that was not the original method. Bem did not differentiate between individuals with low scores on both. With the median-split approach, true androgynous (high masculine/high feminine scores) are separated from the "undifferentiated" (low masculine/low feminine scores) for a more accurate portrayal of the individual. One drawback of using the median-split is that by classifying individuals into an undifferentiated category, it creates a category not designed into the scale itself.

Another appropriate caution must be given about the convenience of continuing sex-role stereotypes. In 1974, items found on the feminine side such as "loyal", "affectionate", and "sensitive to the needs of others", and masculine items such as "ambitious",

"independent", and "willing to take risks", may have been more easily classified as masculine or feminine then than now, and the same may not be true today. As acceptable roles for men and women have evolved, the line defining sex-appropriate traits may also have evolved.

RAS

The Rathus Assertiveness Schedule, also discussed earlier, consists of a 30 item questionnaire using a Likert-type scale designed to measure an individual's assertiveness or "social boldness". The scale ranges from +3 to -3, omitting zero, with several of the items reversed during score tabulation to obtain an assertiveness rating.

Rathus determined the validity of the RAS by comparing its scores to two external measures of assertiveness, one study involving impressions subjects made on other people and the other using impartial raters' impressions of subjects' reported behavior.

Item #1 on the RAS, "Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am", has been found to be one of the best single predictors of an individual's actual behavior (Nesbitt, 1979). Rathus, in fact, views his scale as a global measure of assertiveness.

The same item also points to a concern expressed by researchers concerning assertion, the confusion of assertion and aggression. Some researchers use a behavioral definition of aggression involving threats and punishment (Hollandsworth, 1977), while others, like Rathus and Wolpe, use the terms interchangeably. Awareness of this potential problem and corresponding caution is necessary, as stated by

DeGiovanni and Epstein (1978).

For ease in data analysis, the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule was scored in a manner to make all scores positive. Scores were reversed on negatively scored items to accomplish this purpose.

RHETSEN

In 1980, Roderick Hart, Robert Carlson and William Eadie reported the development of a scale to measure rhetorical sensitivity. The instrument measures individuals' attitudes toward encoding spoken messages via a 40 item Likert-type scale. This instrument contains three subscales which profile the three attitudinal sets toward encoding messages labeled Rhetorical Sensitive, Noble Self and Rhetorical Reflector.

Through the developmental work of the RHETSEN instrument, they determined that it was indeed a valid and reliable scale which measured constructs not previously addressed by any other scale (Hart, Carlson and Eadie, 1980). RHETSEN allows researchers in the area of communication the availability of a scale designed precisely for exploration of communicative attitudes.

Scoring is done by assessing different values for items on each of the three scales, RS, NS and RR. This gives each respondent an individual score on each of the sub-scales, which provides a measure and proportion of the three differing attitudes each individual possesses.

Chapter III

Results

One hundred and eighteen questionnaires were administered to five basic speech classes at an urban university. These questionnaires were formulated to allow measurement and analyses of the following six variables: RS, NS, RR, FEM, MAS, and ASSERT. Table 5 contains the means and standard deviations for variables included in the study.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of Rhetorical Sensitivity (RS), Noble Self (NS), Rhetorical Reflector (RR), Feminine (FEM), Masculine (MAS), and Assertiveness (ASSERT) (N= 118)

VARIABLE	MEAN	STD DEV	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
RS	33.49	7.32	11.00	49.00
NS	12.41	6.18	.00	32.00
RR	7.28	4.86	1.00	26.00
FEM	4.98	.58	3.55	6.40
MAS	4.88	.77	3.20	6.70
ASSERT	103.35	18.06	53.00	164.00

The means for RS, NS and RR shown in Table 5 all fall within normative ranges established in previous studies. For example, when comparing them with their counterparts in the study done by Hart, Carlson and Eadie (1980), an RS of 33.5 was found, compared to 31.8 by Hart, et.al. The NS mean of this study was 12.41 compared to 15.1, and the RR was 7.28, compared to the 7.0 mean found by Hart, et al.

The FEM and MAS medians of this study were FEM= 5.00; MAS= 5.10. These are comparable to the medians found by Uleman and Weston (1986) of FEM= 4.93 and MAS= 5.06.

In addition to the means, the median split, based on a FEM of 4.5 and MAS of 4.75, as suggested by Spence and Helmreich, resulted in the cell distribution reported in Table 6. Other studies have reported a more equitable cell distribution (i.e. Androgynous= 80, Feminine= 76, Masculine= 68 and Undifferentiated= 68 [Tolhuizen, 1986] and Androgynous= 16, Feminine= 25, Masculine= 23 and Undifferentiated= 18 [Uleman and Weston, 1986]). The Uleman and Weston study was evenly divided between male and female subjects, and the Tolhuizen study consisted of 99 male and 193 female subjects.

Table 6

Cell Distribution of Feminine, Masculine, Androgynous
and Undifferentiated--Bem Sex-Role Inventory

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
ANDROGYNOUS	52	44.1
FEMININE	38	32.2
MASCULINE	16	13.6
UNDIFFERENTIATED	<u>6</u>	<u>5.1</u>
TOTAL	118	100.0

The frequencies and percentages of male and female and the frequencies and percentages of the seven age groups are contained in Table 7 and Table 8, respectively.

Table 7

Frequency and Percent of Males and Females

	Frequency	Percent
Male	38	32.2
Female	77	65.3
missing	3	2.5
Total	118	100.0

Table 8

Frequency and Percent of Age Groups

	Frequency	Percent
Below 18	1	0.8
18-23	72	61.0
23-29	20	16.9
30-35	11	9.3
36-41	9	7.6
42-47	1	0.8
Above 47	0	0.0
missing	4	3.4
Total	118	100.0

Figures 1 through 6 contain the frequency distribution of the variables of Rhetorical Sensitivity, Noble Self, Rhetorical Reflector, Femininity, Masculinity and Assertiveness. Like the means and standard deviations for these variables, the frequency distributions are similar to normally anticipated patterns.

Percentages of males/females and age distribution of the subjects, while normal for the types of classes from which the subjects were derived, are not representative of the general population.

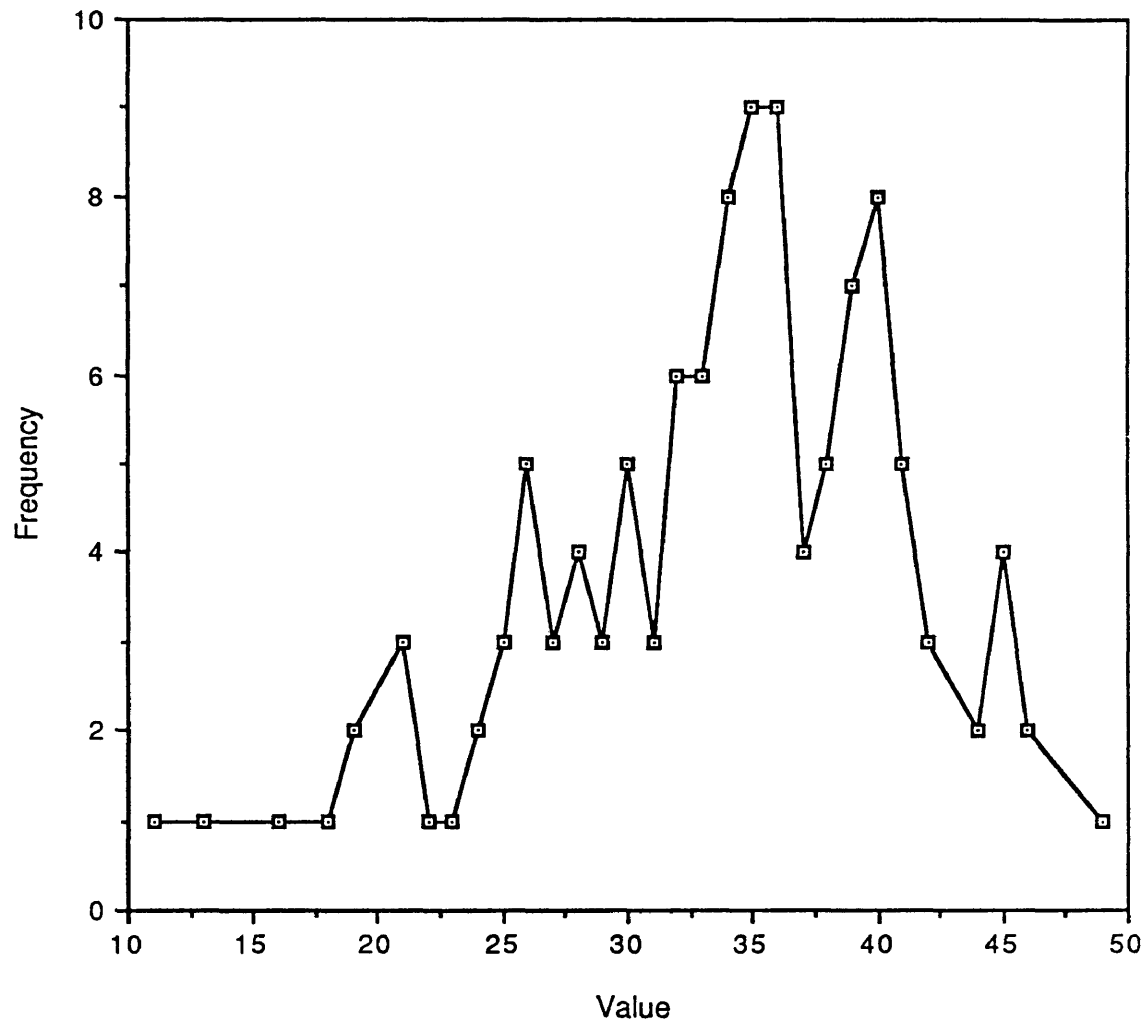


Figure 1. Total score frequency distribution, RHETSEN Rhetorical Sensitivity Scale

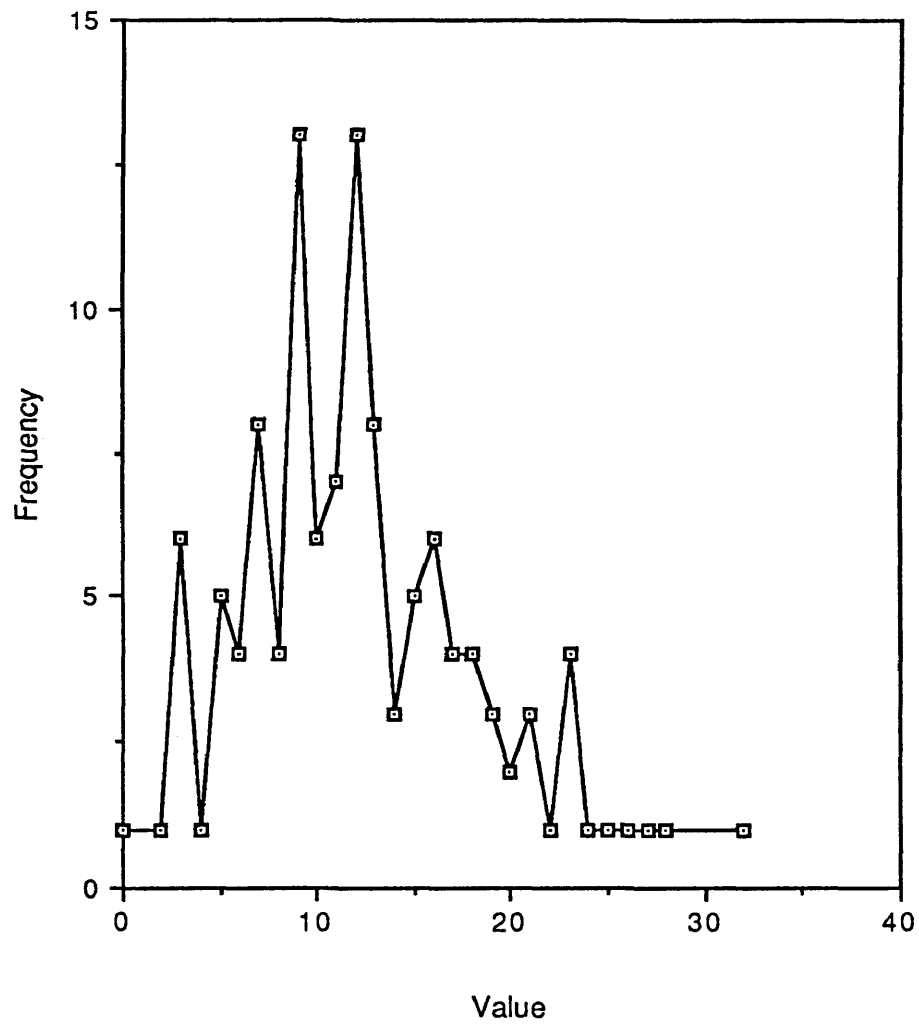


Figure 2. Total score frequency distribution,
RHETSEN Noble Self Scale

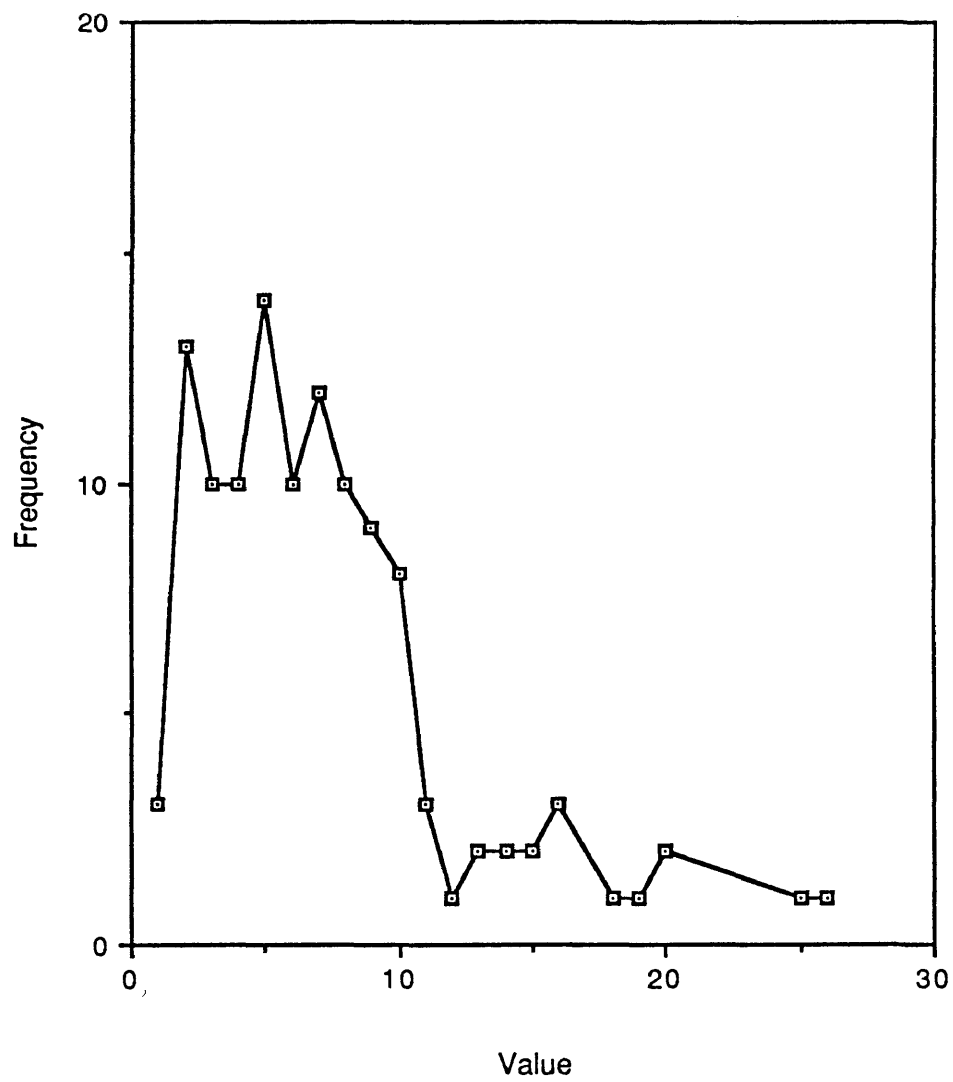


Figure 3. Total score frequency distribution,
RHETSEN Rhetorical Reflector Scale

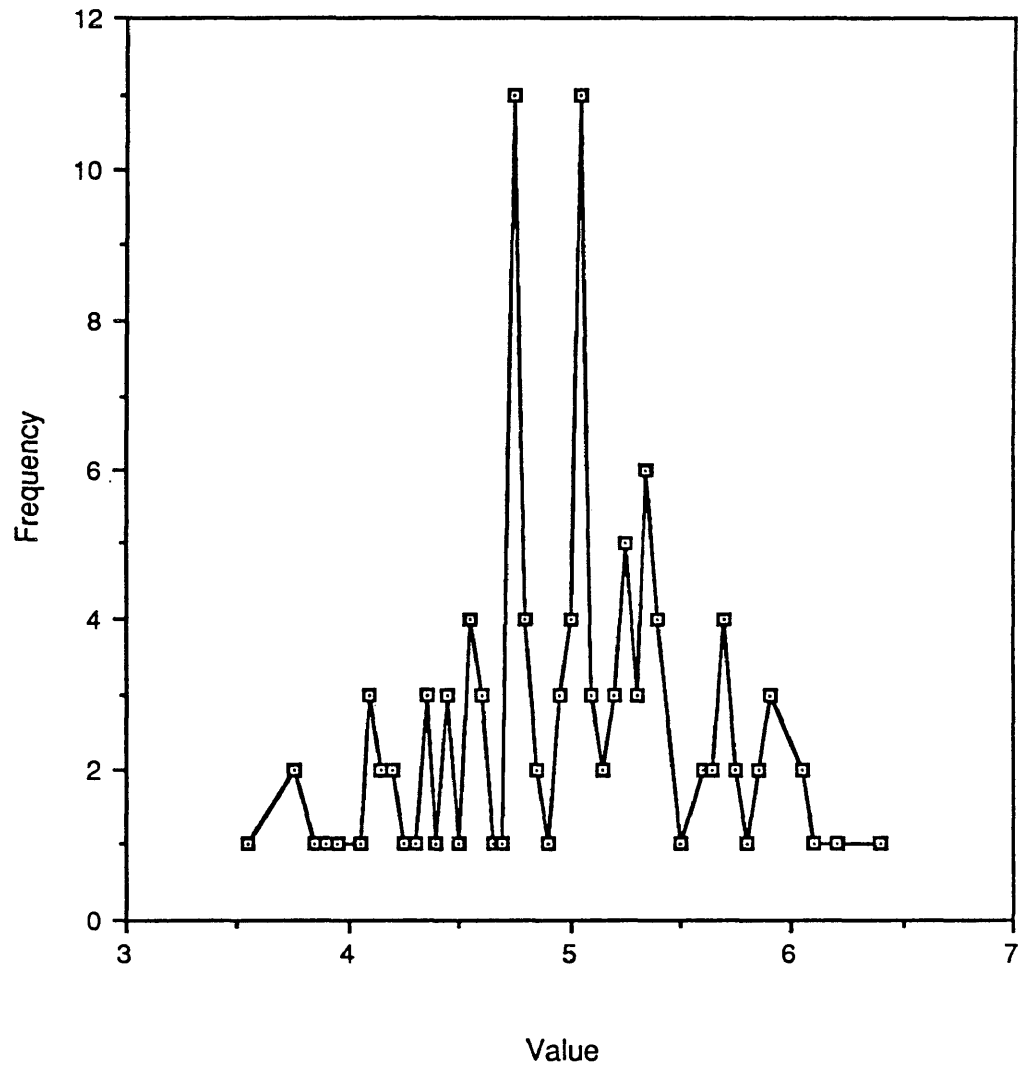


Figure 4. Total score frequency distribution,
BRSI Femininity Scale

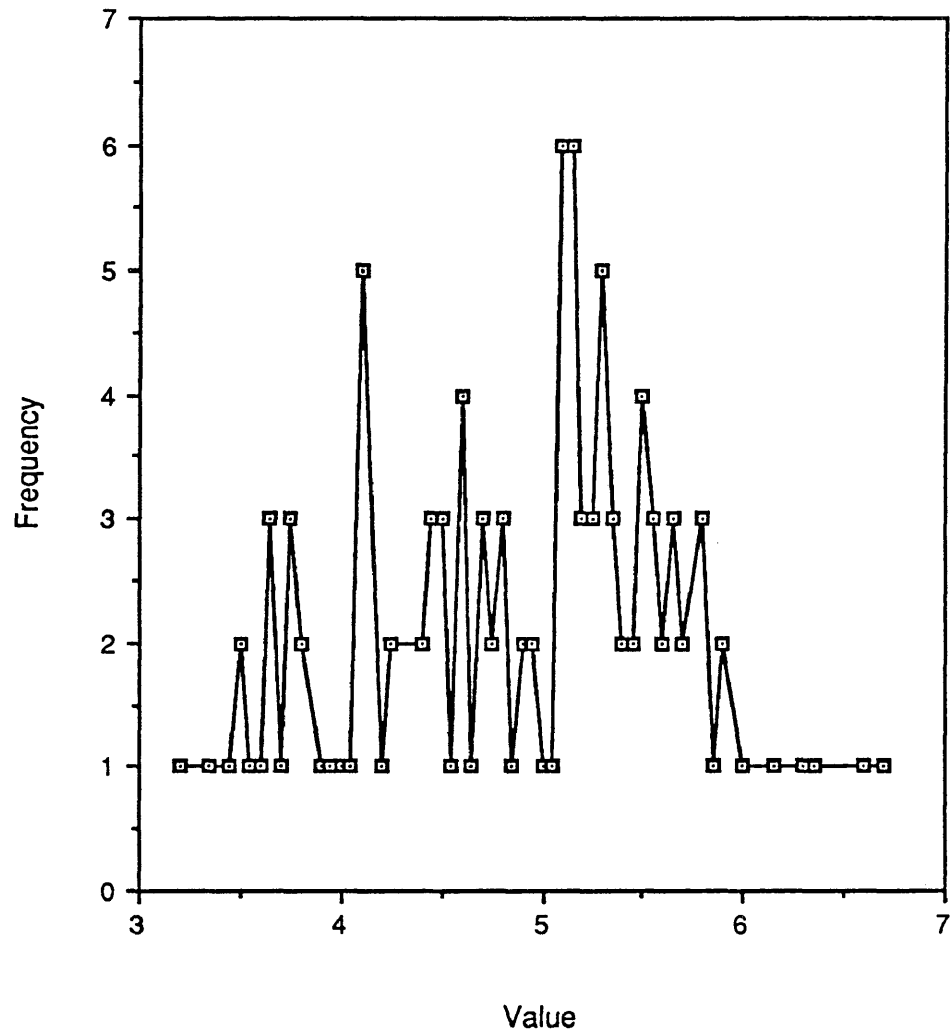


Figure 5. Total score frequency distribution, BRSI Masculinity Scale

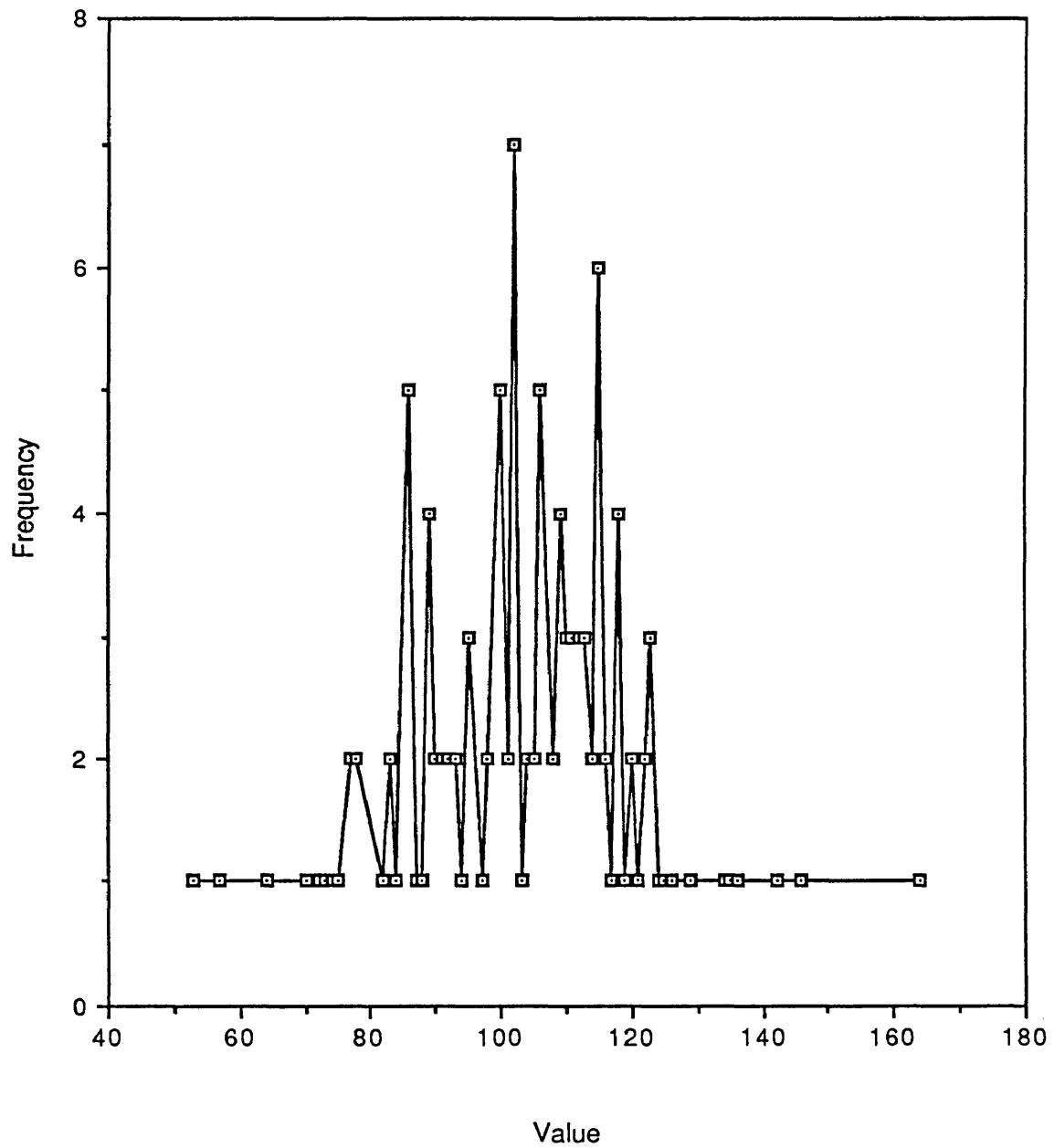


Figure 6. Total score distribution, ASSERT

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed between the variables of Rhetorical Sensitivity (RS), Noble Self (NS), Rhetorical Reflector (RR), Femininity (FEM), Masculinity (MAS) and Assertiveness (ASSERT) and are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

	NS	RR	MAS	FEM	ASSERT
RS	-.67**	-.52**	-.02	-.07	.09
NS		-.25**	.15*	.03	-.26**
RR			-.17*	.02	.16*
MAS				-.16*	-.61**
FEM					.21*

* indicates $p < .05$,

** indicate $p < .01$.

A one-way analysis of variance was done, using the Bem type as the independent variable, to determine what effect, if any, a subject's sex-role orientation had on RS, NS, RR or ASSERT.

The only significant differences were found between Rhetorical Sensitivity and Bem type and Assertiveness and Bem type (see Table 10).

Table 10

Analysis of Variance Summary:
Sex-Role Type with RS, NS, RR and ASSERT

	RS*	NS	RR	ASSERT*
F RATIO	3.7740	2.2687	1.1210	10.4661
F PROB.	.0128	.0847	.3439	.0000

*Detailed ANOVA given in a separate table.

The details of the significant ANOVA and the follow-up Student-Newman-Keuls procedures are given in Tables 11 through 14. Table 11 presents the analysis of variance of RS scores among Bem sex-role types. The Student-Newman-Keuls shows the Undifferentiated group to be less rhetorically sensitive than any of the other three groups, but no difference in RS scores is shown among the other three sex-role types (See Table 12). Table 13 presents the analysis of variance of assertiveness scores among Bem sex-role types. Table 14 shows the Feminine group of subjects to be less assertive than the other three groups, but no difference is shown in assertiveness among the Masculine, Androgynous and Undifferentiated types.

Table 11

Analysis of Variance: RS with Bem Sex-Role Type

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	3	585.17	195.06	3.77	.0128
Within Groups	108	5581.94	51.68		
Total	111	6167.11			

Table 12

Student-Newman-Keuls Analysis: RS with Bem Sex-Role Type

Group	4		
*Mean	24.00		
Group	1	3	2
*Mean	33.46	34.38	34.42

Group 1 = Androgynous; Group 2 = Feminine; Group 3 = Masculine; and Group 4 = Undifferentiated.

* means with common subscripts do not differ significantly from each other ($p = .05$).

Table 13

Analysis of Variance: ASSERT with Bem Sex-Role Type

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	3	8124.48	2708.16	10.47	.0000
Within Groups	108	27945.48	258.75		
Total	111	36069.96			

Table 14

Student-Newman-Keuls Analysis: ASSERT with Bem Sex-Role Type

Group	3	1	4
*Mean	96.13	97.63	99.17
Group	2		
*Mean	115.37		

Group 1 = Androgynous; Group 2 = Feminine; Group 3 = Masculine; and Group 4 = Undifferentiated

*Means with common subscripts do not differ significantly from each other ($p = .05$).

To determine if there were any differences related to gender of the subjects, a series of t tests were run on RS, NS, RR, ASSERT, MAS, and FEM between males and females. Table 15 shows that females in the

study were more Rhetorically Sensitive, less Noble Self, less masculine and more feminine than males. No differences were shown between males and females in Rhetorical Reflectorness or assertiveness.

Table 15

t Test: Summary of RS, NS, RR, ASSERT, MAS and FEM Based on Gender

	RS	NS	RR	ASSERT	MAS	FEM
Females/Mean Score	34.48	11.55	7.16	104.35	4.68	5.10
Males/Mean Score	31.42	14.13	7.61	100.00	5.28	4.76
t Value	2.12	-2.13	1.22	1.22	-4.24	2.99
2-tail probability	.036*	.035*	.226	.226	.000**	.003**

*p<.05

**p<.01

In terms of Bem types, Table 16 shows the frequency distributions based on gender.

Table 16

Bem Sex-Role Type Distribution Based on Gender

Bem Type	Androgynous	Feminine	Masculine	Undifferentiated
Gender				
Females	30	35	5	2
Males	22	2	10	4

As can be seen from Table 16, there were very few masculine females (5), feminine males (2) or undifferentiated (6 total).

To determine if there were any differences in RS, NS, RR or ASSERT among androgynous females, androgynous males, feminine females and masculine males, one-way analyses of variance were run on the variables among these four types. Table 17 presents a summary of these analyses of variance.

Table 17

Analysis of Variance Summary: Androgynous Females,
Androgynous Males, Feminine Females and Masculine Males
with RS, NS, RR, and ASSERT

	RS	NS	RR	ASSERT*
F Ratio	1.79	1.98	.10	8.41
F Prob.	.15	.12	.96	.0001

*Detailed ANOVA given in separate table.

As can be seen from Table 17, the only difference between androgynous females, androgynous males, feminine females and masculine males is in assertiveness. Table 18 presents the detailed ANOVA and Table 19 presents the follow-up Student-Newman-Kuels test which shows that feminine females are less assertive than androgynous females, androgynous males or masculine males. There is no difference in assertiveness among androgynous females, androgynous males and masculine males.

Table 18

Analysis of Variance: ASSERT with Androgynous Females,
Androgynous Males, Feminine Females and Masculine Males

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	3	6123.68	2041.23	8.41	.0001
Within Groups	93	22560.07	242.58		
Total	96	28683.75			

Table 19

Student-Newman-Keuls Analysis: ASSERT with Androgynous
Females, Androgynous Males, Feminine Females and Masculine Males

Group	4		
*Mean	114.60		
Group	2	1	3
*Mean	101.10	97.82	97.50

Group 1= Androgynous Males; Group 2= Masculine Males; Group 3= Androgynous Females; Group 4= Feminine Females

*means with common subscripts do not differ significantly from each other ($p = .05$).

Chapter IV

Discussion

This study was undertaken to explore potential relationships among sex-role orientation, assertiveness and communicative attitudes toward encoding messages through the administration of questionnaires designed to examine the variables of RS, NS, RR, FEM, MAS and ASSERT as described in Chapter II. Although other studies have examined different combinations of sex-role orientation, assertiveness and communicative attitudes toward encoding messages, none have examined all three elements together.

This discussion will individually examine each of the five hypotheses formulated in Chapter I in the light of the results reported in the previous chapter.

Hypothesis #1

The first hypothesis stated, "There is a correlation between masculinity, noble selfness and assertiveness." This hypothesis was supported by the analysis of the data.

Pearson correlation procedures showed a significant ($p < .05$) correlation between masculinity and noble selfness ($r = .15$) and between masculinity and assertiveness ($r = -.61$) (the higher the assertiveness score, the less assertive the individual). In addition, noble selfness correlated in the expected direction with assertiveness ($r = -.26$). In other words, as one's Noble Self tendencies increase, the more assertive tendencies are shown. This result is very similar

to the correlation of Noble Self/assertiveness of $r = -.28$ found by Carlson and Brilhart (1980). Although the correlation of $r = .15$ for masculinity and Noble Self is of small magnitude, it does indicate that a relationship exists between the two characteristics as suggested by the literature reviewed.

The strong ($p < .01$) correlation of $r = -.61$ between masculinity and assertiveness has interesting implications. A correlation this large would account for over 37% of the variance and indicates a large overlap of the two variables.

One possible explanation of this large overlap could be that some of the masculinity items in the BSRI are also components of assertiveness. In fact, one item on the BSRI that is scored as a masculine characteristic is assertiveness. Other items are: aggressive, competitive, dominant, forceful, and willing to take a stand.

Hypothesis #2

This hypothesis was partially supported. It states, "There is a correlation between femininity, rhetorical reflectoriness and non-assertiveness."

Although no correlation between FEM and RR was found, FEM did correlate with ASSERT ($r = .21$, $p < .05$) in the expected direction. The feminine-scaled items on the BSRI do not exhibit as strong of a disassociation with assertiveness as the masculine items exhibit association. This may, in part, explain the lower (although still significant) correlation.

In addition, femininity showed a negative correlation with masculinity ($r = -.16$), as expected. Females showed a higher mean score on FEM and a lower mean score on MAS than did males (Table 15) and feminine females were shown to outnumber feminine males by 17 to 1. Also, feminine females were shown to be less assertive than androgynous females, androgynous males or masculine males (See Table 19).

Rhetorical Reflector scores correlated with assertiveness ($r = .16$, $p < .05$) in the manner expected; the higher the RR score, the less assertiveness is shown. This relationship gives confirmation to the Carlson and Brilhart (1980) correlational finding of $RR/ASSERT = .27$.

It is interesting to note that the Rhetorical Reflector scores and the femininity scores did not show a positive correlation as expected. Femininity and Rhetorical Reflectorness, as shown in the literature, share many of the same characteristics. While the lack of correlation between femininity and Rhetorical Reflectorness was unexpected, perhaps it relates to today's changing role perceptions by women. If this is the case, femininity, as defined by the BSRI, may not accurately reflect the norms of today's society.

Hypothesis #3

"Masculine types (as defined by the BSRI) are more Noble Self and more assertive than feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated types."

Masculinity was found to have a high positive correlation to assertiveness ($r = -.61$; $p < .01$) as predicted. The more assertive the

individual, the higher the masculine score. The strong correlation, as mentioned earlier, could indicate the two scales are measuring some of the same factors.

The one-way analysis of variance using the Bem type as the independent variable to determine the effect of sex-role orientation on RS, NS, RR or ASSERT failed to show a significant difference between NS and sex-role type. However, in contradiction to previous studies, men were shown to be more NS than women. As reflected in Table 15, males mean score was NS= 14.13 compared to females NS mean score of 11.55 suggesting that men in the sample possess more Noble Self characteristics than women. This is in direct contrast to the Hart, Carlson and Eadie (1980) national study which found no gender difference with scores of 15.2 and 14.9 for females and males, respectively. The lower NS mean for females found in this study is somewhat surprising, and there is no immediate answer as to why.

Masculine types (as defined by BSRI) were found to be more assertive than BSRI feminine types through the use of an ANOVA and follow-up Student-Newman-Keuls test. This finding is in partial support of the hypothesis, however, there were no differences found in assertiveness between masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated types.

It becomes important here to point out the unevenness of the cell size of the BSRI. With 44% (n= 52) of the sample in one cell (Androgynous) and 5% (n= 6) in another (Undifferentiated), differences in means must be very large in order to show significance. In

addition, 61% (n= 72) of the sample was in one age category (18 to 23), and females outnumbered the males 2 to 1. Although the total number of subjects (n= 118) was large enough to allow for statistically significant findings, the individual group disproportionment causes some concern.

Hypothesis #4

The fourth hypothesis stated, "Feminine types (as defined by the BSRI) are more Rhetorical Reflector and less assertive than masculine, androgynous or undifferentiated types."

Again, ANOVA did not show a difference of RR scores among the four sex-role types. The lack finding a difference in RR, especially between FEM and MAS is somewhat surprising given the similar theoretical characteristics.

ANOVA procedures with ASSERT and the four Bem Sex-role orientations did indicate a difference within the BSRI types. Follow-up Student-Newman-Keuls procedures showed a difference between Feminine and the other three sex-role orientations, with the Feminine group exhibiting a higher ASSERT (i.e. lower assertiveness) score than the other three sex-role types. There was no difference in ASSERT scores between the masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated types.

The relationship of low assertiveness with femininity and female gender was reinforced by the one-way analysis of variance of ASSERT with the following groups: androgynous females, androgynous males, feminine females and masculine males and the follow-up Student-Newman-Kuels procedure. Feminine females had a mean ASSERT score of

114.60, compared to the total mean of 103.35, indicating lower assertiveness than any of the other groups. No difference in ASSERT scores was shown between any of the other three groups. These findings support previous assertiveness and gender studies done by Kelly et al. (1980), and Hess et al. (1980).

Hypothesis #5

The final hypothesis states, "Androgynous types (as defined by the BSRI) are more rhetorically sensitive than masculine, feminine or undifferentiated types; less assertive than masculine types; and more assertive than feminine types."

This hypothesis was partially supported by ANOVA procedures which showed a difference of scores of RS among sex-role types. Follow-up Student-Newman-Kuels procedures showed androgynous individuals to be more rhetorically sensitive than undifferentiated subjects, but no more rhetorically sensitive than either masculine or feminine individuals. The results of the t test showed females to have a higher RS than males (female RS= 34.48; male RS= 31.42) again in contrast to the Hart, Carlson and Eadie (1980) study (female RS= 31.6; male RS= 32.1). Just as with the fact that females in the sample were less Noble Self than males, there is no explanation offered as to why females in the study were more Rhetorically Sensitive than anticipated.

Some of the results obtained by this study may have been affected by the uneven cell size of the four sex-role types in this study, or may simply reflect a need to re-examine the scales within the BSRI to

determine whether or not the definitions of masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated, as measured by this scale, fit today's definitions.

ANOVA procedures revealed androgynous subjects to be more assertive than feminine types, but no difference was shown between androgynous, masculine and undifferentiated in their assertiveness levels.

Chapter V

Conclusions

Many of the relationships were predicted and supported by the analysis of the data. The relationship between masculinity and assertiveness was shown to be a strong one. Other predicted relationships, however, were not supported. For example, the data did not yield a positive correlation between femininity and Rhetorical Reflectorness.

Of the five hypotheses, the first was supported by data analysis, and the remaining four were at least partially supported. The following is a summary of the significant findings:

- * A significant correlation ($r = .15$; $p < .05$) in the expected direction was found between Noble Self and Masculinity. Therefore, the more Noble Self, the more masculine.

- * A significant negative correlation ($r = -.17$; $p < .05$) was found between Rhetorical Reflectorness and Masculinity. Therefore, the more rhetorically reflective, the less masculine.

- * There was a significant negative correlation ($r = -.26$; $p < .01$) between Noble Selfness and assertiveness, meaning the more Noble Self, the more assertive.

- * A significant positive correlation ($r = .16$; $p = < .05$) was found between assertiveness and Rhetorical Reflectorness, indicating that as Rhetorical Reflectorness increases, assertiveness decreases.

- * Between Masculinity and assertiveness, there was a significant correlation ($r = -.61$; $p = < .01$), showing a high degree of co-variance; the greater the masculinity, the higher the assertiveness.

- * A significant correlation ($r = .21$; $p = < .05$) exists between femininity and assertiveness, indicating that assertiveness decreases as femininity increases.

* Individuals typed as Undifferentiated are less Rhetorically Sensitive than any of the other three Bem sex-role types.

* Feminine individuals are less assertive than androgynous, undifferentiated and masculine Bem types.

* Feminine females were shown to be significantly less assertive than androgynous females, androgynous males and masculine males.

* The women outnumbered the men 2:1 on the FEM scores; conversely, the men outnumbered the women 2:1 on MAS.

Although many anticipated outcomes materialized, some that were anticipated did not. The lack of correlation between Femininity and Rhetorical Reflector is surprising, given the theoretical similarities. There were several indicators that pointed to the logic of assuming the relationship. Why a stronger connection did not emerge is not clear, but would be an interesting follow-up study.

The lack of evidence found to support claims of androgynous individuals as being more effective and adaptable in their daily lives (i.e. more rhetorically sensitive) could be considered disappointing, but not entirely surprising, as previous research regarding androgyny has had conflicting conclusions with regard to "effectiveness."

Limitations

Several limiting factors are inherent in the subject matter itself of this thesis. Assertion has not been completely separated from aggression, and as a result, the instruments intended to measure assertion may not be "pure" measures of assertiveness.

Androgyny tests, including the BSRI, do not measure the relationships between the character traits, but rather the presence or absence of them. Also, since these measures make no allowance for

cross-situational considerations, they may create one-dimensional data.

The components of femininity and masculinity are changing even as this thesis is being written, and changing rapidly. Sex roles are shifting and being redefined. There is sometimes confusion as a result of this transformation, and this confusion may be reflected in the results obtained from the questionnaire.

All of the instruments used are self-reporting measures and what individuals report that they do or are may not accurately reflect their behavior. Studies with RHETSEN addressed this issue with regard to self-reported attitudes, behavior and essential hypertension (Carlson and Brillhart, 1980). However, Kaplan (1980) expressed concern about the difficulty associated with any instrument that equates measurement of self-described androgynous traits with actual behavior. This concern merits consideration whenever inferences are being drawn about self-reported behavior.

Specific items of concern relating to this particular study are: 1) uneven cell size due to age and sex, and 2) irregular norms of some variables, e.g. female subjects' Noble Self and Rhetorical Sensitivity scores.

Recommendations for Further Study

Assertiveness and masculinity showed a very high correlation coefficient accounting for more than 37% of the variance. This could indicate that they may be measuring some of the same factors. Further

research is recommended to examine these constructs and their relationship.

The data obtained herein did not support a positive correlation between femininity and Rhetorical Reflector attitudes. Perhaps further research would give a more definitive picture of the relationship of these two "sister" constructs.

An examination and update of the feminine/masculine scales of the BSRI is in order, given the changes in attitudes of both men and women in the last 15 years. Sex-roles and gender-related issues have been of concern, not only in academia, but in business as well.

Since this was the first study to examine the combined elements of sex-role orientation, assertiveness and communicative attitudes toward encoding spoken messages, the results may be useful as a springboard to additional studies using one or more of the same survey instruments.

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TO: ALL SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

Please complete the following questionnaire. There are four parts numbered continuously from 1-132. Please use a No. 2 lead pencil ONLY and follow the directions provided at the beginning of each section.

Mark only on the answer sheet provided.

DO NOT MARK IN THE BOOKLET.

All results will be strictly confidential. This is not a test and there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

Your participation in this research is greatly appreciated.

ROBERTA J. McBRIDE

In this inventory, you will be presented with sixty personality characteristics. You are to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, you are to indicate, on a scale of 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Describe yourself according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never True	Usually Not True	Sometimes, but Infrequently True	Occasionally True	Often True	Usually True	Always or Almost Always True
___ 1. Self-Reliant						___ 31. Makes decisions easily
___ 2. Yielding						___ 32. Compassionate
___ 3. Helpful						___ 33. Sincere
___ 4. Defends own beliefs						___ 34. Self-sufficient
___ 5. Cheerful						___ 35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings
___ 6. Moody						___ 36. Conceited
___ 7. Independent						___ 37. Dominant
___ 8. Shy						___ 38. Soft-spoken
___ 9. Conscientious						___ 39. Likable
___ 10. Athletic						___ 40. Masculine
___ 11. Affectionate						___ 41. Warm
___ 12. Theatrical						___ 42. Solemn
___ 13. Assertive						___ 43. Willing to take a stand
___ 14. Flatterable						___ 44. Tender
___ 15. Happy						___ 45. Friendly
___ 16. Has strong personality						___ 46. Aggressive
___ 17. Loyal						___ 47. Gullible
___ 18. Unpredictable						___ 48. Inefficient
___ 19. Forceful						___ 49. Acts as a leader
___ 20. Feminine						___ 50. Childlike
___ 21. Reliable						___ 51. Adaptable
___ 22. Analytical						___ 52. Individualistic

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| ___ 23. Sympathetic | ___ 53. Does not use harsh language |
| ___ 24. Jealous | ___ 54. Unsystematic |
| ___ 25. Has leadership abilities | ___ 55. Competitive |
| ___ 26. Sensitive to the needs of others | ___ 56. Loves children |
| ___ 27. Truthful | ___ 57. Tactful |
| ___ 28. Willing to take risks | ___ 58. Ambitious |
| ___ 29. Understanding | ___ 59. Gentle |
| ___ 30. Secretive | ___ 60. Conventional |

Listed below are a number of statements to which we would like your reaction. Please respond to each statement individually and be assured that there are no absolutely right nor absolutely wrong answers. For each statement, please indicate your opinion by choosing one of the following:

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------------------|--|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Almost Always
True | Frequently
True | Sometimes
True | Infrequently
True | Almost Never
True |
| ___ 61. | People should be frank and spontaneous in conversation. | | | |
| ___ 62. | An idea can be communicated in many different ways. | | | |
| ___ 63. | When talking with someone with whom you disagree, you should feel obligated to state your opinion. | | | |
| ___ 64. | A person should laugh at an unfunny joke just to please the joketeller. | | | |
| ___ 65. | It's good to follow the rule: before blowing your top at someone, sleep on the problem. | | | |
| ___ 66. | When talking to others, you should drop all of your defenses. | | | |
| ___ 67. | It is best to hide one's true feelings in order to avoid hurting others. | | | |
| ___ 68. | No matter how hard you try, you just can't make friends with everyone. | | | |
| ___ 69. | One should keep quiet rather than say something which will alienate others. | | | |
| ___ 70. | You should share your joys with your closest friends. | | | |
| ___ 71. | It is acceptable to discuss religion with a stranger. | | | |
| ___ 72. | A supervisor in a work situation must be forceful with subordinates to be effective. | | | |
| ___ 73. | A person should tell it like it is. | | | |

- ___ 74. "Look before you leap" is the most important rule to follow when talking to others.
- ___ 75. You should tell friends if you think they are making a mistake.
- ___ 76. The first thing that comes to mind is the best thing to say.
- ___ 77. When conversing, you should tell others what they want to hear.
- ___ 78. When someone dominates the conversation, it's important to interrupt them in order to state your opinion.
- ___ 79. When angry, a person should say nothing rather than say something he or she will be sorry for later.
- ___ 80. When someone has an irritating habit, he or she should be told about it.
- ___ 81. When talking to your friends, you should adjust your remarks to suit them.
- ___ 82. You really can't put sugar coating on bad news.
- ___ 83. A person who speaks his or her gut feelings is to be admired.
- ___ 84. You shouldn't make a scene in a restaurant by arguing with a waiter.
- ___ 85. Putting thoughts into words just the way you want them is a difficult process.
- ___ 86. A friend who has bad breath should be told about it.
- ___ 87. If you're sure you're right, you should argue with a person who disagrees with you.
- ___ 88. If people would open up to each other the world would be better off.
- ___ 89. There is a difference between someone who is "diplomatic" and one who is "two-faced."
- ___ 90. You should tell people if you think they are about to embarrass themselves.
- ___ 91. One should not be afraid to voice his or her opinion.
- ___ 92. If your boss doesn't like you, there's not much you can do about it.
- ___ 93. You should tell someone if you think they are giving you bad advice.
- ___ 94. Saying what you think is a sign of friendship.
- ___ 95. When you're sure you're right, you should press your point until you win the argument.
- ___ 96. "If you feel it, say it," is a good rule to follow in conversation.
- ___ 97. If a man cheats on his wife, he should tell her.

- ___ 98. It is better to speak your gut feelings than to beat around the bush.
- ___ 99. We should have a kind word for the people we meet in life.
- ___ 100. One should treat all people in the same way.

Indicate how characteristic or descriptive each of the following statement is of you by choosing one of the following:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very Charac- teristic	Rather Char- acteristic	Somewhat Char- acteristic	Somewhat Uncharac- teristic	Rather Un- character- istic	Very Uncharac- teristic

- ___ 101. Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am.
- ___ 102. I have hesitated to make or accept dates because of "shyness."
- ___ 103. When the food served at a restaurant is not done to my satisfaction, I complain about it to the waiter or waitress.
- ___ 104. I am careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings, even when I feel that I have been injured.
- ___ 105. If a salesman has gone to considerable trouble to show me merchandise which is not quite suitable, I have a difficult time in saying "No."
- ___ 106. When I am asked to do something, I insist upon knowing why.
- ___ 107. There are times when I look for a good, vigorous argument.
- ___ 108. I strive to get ahead as well as most people in my position.
- ___ 109. To be honest, people often take advantage of me.
- ___ 110. I enjoy starting conversations with new acquaintances and strangers.
- ___ 111. I often don't know what to say to attractive persons of the opposite sex.
- ___ 112. I will hesitate to make phone calls to business establishments and institutions.
- ___ 113. I would rather apply for a job or for admission to a college by writing letters than by going through with personal interviews.
- ___ 114. I find it embarrassing to return merchandise.
- ___ 115. If a close and respected relative were annoying me, I would smother my feelings rather than express my annoyance.
- ___ 116. I have avoided asking questions for fear of sounding stupid.
- ___ 117. During an argument I am sometimes afraid that I will get so upset that I will shake all over.

- ___ 118. If a famed and respected lecturer makes a statement which I think is incorrect, I will have the audience hear my point of view as well.
- ___ 119. I avoid arguing over prices with clerks and salesmen.
- ___ 120. When I have done something important or worthwhile, I manage to let others know about it.
- ___ 121. I am open and frank about my feelings.
- ___ 122. If someone has been spreading false and bad stories about me, I see him (her) as soon as possible to "have a talk" about it.
- ___ 123. I often have a hard time saying "No."
- ___ 124. I tend to bottle up my emotions rather than make a scene.
- ___ 125. I complain about poor service in a restaurant and elsewhere.
- ___ 126. When I am given a compliment, I sometimes just don't know what to say.
- ___ 127. If a couple near me in a theatre or at a lecture were conversing rather loudly, I would ask them to be quiet or to take their conversation elsewhere.
- ___ 128. Anyone attempting to push ahead of me in a line is in for a good battle.
- ___ 129. I am quick to express an opinion.
- ___ 130. There are times when I just can't say anything.

PLEASE INDICATE:

1	2
Male	Female

___ 131.

AGE GROUP:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Below 18	18-23	24-29	30-35	36-41	42-47	Above 47

___ 132.