

SEX ROLE IDENTIFICATION, SECURITY-INSECURITY AND
SELF-DISSATISFACTION IN ADOLESCENTS

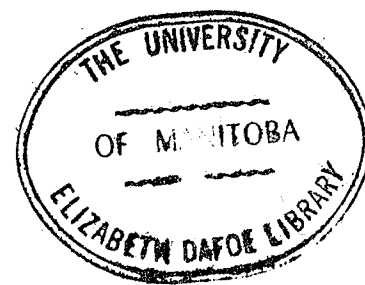
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Biranchi Narayan Puhan

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ABSTRACT

The studies of self concepts are usually done by studying the 'real self', the 'ideal self' or the relationships between them. The real self is the individual's statements about what "he is really like," whereas the ideal self is the person's stated views of what he thinks "he ought to be." The discrepancy between these two selves (S-I discrepancy) has been generally accepted as an index of self-dissatisfaction and has been related to many other personality variables. The purpose of the present study was to find out the determinants of such S-I discrepancy.

A detailed review of the theories relating to sex role identification, insecurity and S-I discrepancy led to the hypotheses that inappropriate sex role identification, and feelings of insecurity will increase the S-I discrepancy.

A total of 328 college going adolescents (177 boys and 151 girls) were tested on the Femininity Scale (Fe) of the CPI, Worchel's Self Activity Inventory, and Maslow's Security-Insecurity Inventory.

Analysis of variances with the levels of Fe as the independent and S-I discrepancy as the dependent variable were performed for boys and girls. The F ratios failed to reach the required significance level and subsequently, the first hypothesis was rejected. The same type of analyses with insecurity as the treatment variable and S-I discrepancy as the dependent variable confirmed the second hypothesis. In addition, all the possible correlations were performed for scores on real self,

ideal self, S-I discrepancy, Fe and Security-Insecurity. Also, a cross sex comparison was made for mean S-I discrepancy.

The obtained results were discussed and interpreted in terms of existing theories of self concept, sex role identification and insecurity. It was concluded that 1) the acceptance of inappropriate sex roles are unrelated to feelings of insecurity and to feelings of self-dissatisfaction; 2) feelings of insecurity is one of the basic determinants of self-dissatisfaction; and 3) the real self image contributes more to S-I discrepancy than the ideal self image.

With respect to the sex difference on mean S-I discrepancy, an empirical interpretation revealed that boys are more self defensive than girls. The limitations of the findings were discussed and suggestions were made for future research.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

SELF AND SELF CONCEPT

Meaning and Definition

Self psychology is one of the few branches that has received constant attention from the infancy of psychology, and has been enriched by a number of theories from time to time. This is probably the reason why there are as many definitions of self as there are authors in the area. Also, the highly abstract meaning attached to self encourages several ways of describing its meaning and the nature, thereby occasionally leading to confusion. Therefore, it has become an extremely difficult task to write an entirely satisfactory definition of self. Whether it is a private, central and changeable core of individual's being (Allport, 1961), or an idea of private experience and self evaluation such as "Who am I?" or "What am I?" (McCandless, 1955) or a self descriptive process of one's physical, intellectual, special talents and social attitudes and relationships, which consists of a person's awareness of his existence (Jersild, 1963), or a system of central meaning that an individual possesses about himself and his relation to the world about him, (Bronnfain, 1952), or a totality of unique personal experiences that is constantly emerging from the world of nature or the social world, (Moustakas, 1956), or the "individual as known to individual" (Murphy, 1937), self concept is essentially a set of attitudes, (the term attitude

is used broadly to include opinions, values with regard to the self) towards one self as viewed by Rosenberg (1965). Among all the attitudes which may be studied, self attitude is unique, because the person holding the attitude and the person towards whom the attitude is held are the same; viz. "I hurt myself," 'I hate myself' (Mead, 1934). In his recent writing, Rosenberg (1965) states that, 'self image' is a distinctive characteristic of the human animal, in that man is able to stand out himself and describe, judge and evaluate himself. In a sense the individual at this stage is both the observer and the observed, the judge and the judged, the evaluator and the evaluated. Although many authors such as Rosenberg and Mead have attempted to attach a definite set of meanings to 'self concept,' it seems that no two authors in the area perfectly agree with each other in this regard. Such a wide variability regarding the definition is directly related to the extent these authors are influenced by different theories which provide the basic framework for the construct of self concept.

THEORIES OF SELF CONCEPT

1. Phenomenological Theory

Phenomenological theory of self concept stresses the role of conscious self concept in determining a person's behavior and on the "study of direct awareness." Because the central role is accorded to conscious perception, cognition, and feeling, these theorists have often been labeled "phenomenological." Phenomenological research on self concept dates from the classic study of Raimy (1948). However, very

a
similar thought has played/dominant role in the theory of Snygg and Combs (1949), who made a striking contrast between the "objective" approach and the "phenomenological" approach in understanding self image. Subsequently, the phenomenological approach was adopted by Horney (1950), and Sullivan (1953) in clinical psychology. The whole idea of "client centered therapy" (Rogers, 1951) has been developed in a phenomenological frame of reference.

2. Existential Theory

Another theory which plays a significant role in research on self concept is existential theory which may be strictly considered as a by-product of the phenomenological theory of self. Maslow (1961) defines existentialism as essentially a radical stress on the concept of identity and the experience of identity as a sine qua non of human nature and of any philosophy or science of human nature. The existential approach has been widely used in therapeutic situations where it is concerned with finding methods of isolating factors and observing them from an "allegedly detached" base and selecting for investigation those phenomena which can be reduced to abstract general laws, (May, et al., 1953). Undoubtedly this approach has enriched, enlarged, corrected and strengthened psychologists' thinking about the human personality, even though it has not necessitated any reconstruction. As suggested by Maslow, (1961), it is possible that existentialism will not only enrich psychology, it may also be an additional push towards the establishment of another branch of psychology; the psychology of the fully evolved and authentic self and

its ways of being. In this context, Moustakas (1956) viewed self as a more global, personal, and existential construct. He maintains that, those terms such as "self-concept", "negative-self", "ideal-self", and so on, only serve to obstruct and obscure what the self really is in the person whom we seek to understand. An alternative phrasing of existentialism is that it deals radically with that human predicament presented by the gap between human aspirations and human limitations (between what the human being is and what he could be). This is not so far off from the identity problem of existentialism, as it might at first sound.

3. S-R Theory

The S-R theories which are presently spreading to almost all the areas of psychology have very little to say about the concept of self. Because of their main concern with the laws of stimulus-response bonds they have thoroughly over-looked the inner dynamics which are often abstracted by various hypothetical constructs. For this, "self" and "ideas related to self" are almost ignored or vaguely dealt with by S-R theorists. However, Skinner (1953) has tried to give a faint idea regarding S-R theorist's stand on self. He insists that Roger's "self-control," "self discipline" and "self-actualization" could be objectively analyzed, and therefore, the scope of self is not restricted to phenomenology. Therefore, S-R theorists, like Skinner, feel that self is a misnomer, or at least, wrongly defined by phenomenologists.

4. Nonphenomenological Theory

A fourth type of theory that has always run parallel with phenomenological and existential theories in explaining the nature of the self concept, may be labeled as nonphenomenological theory. Some theorists being strongly influenced by Freudian views, emphasize that, "unconscious self" will be more potent than the phenomenon self in determining behavior. Smith (1950), who reacted against the phenomenological approach in understanding self concept maintains that this approach can only describe conscious behavior rather than explaining it in terms of unconscious psychic mechanisms. Being impressed by anti-phenomenological revolt, Stoodley (1959) believed that one can hardly consider the dynamics of behavior without examining the relationships between the conscious, pre-conscious and unconscious dimensions of psychological mechanisms. Contrasting the view of Anderson (1952) and Snygg and Combs (1949), who assign more credit to consciousness in determining behavior, Stoodley views the unconscious as a dominant force in mental events and as an equally potent factor in influencing one's self image. He believes that one should be able to predict behavior from a knowledge of his unconscious self concept than one can from a knowledge of his conscious self concept. Nonphenomenological theory urges that, unconscious self concept, if added to conscious self concept measures will improve the predictiveness of the latter, because there are many psychological phenomena which are not free from unconscious mechanisms, (i.e., perception and motivation). Since nonphenomenological theorists deal with

some Freudian terms (i.e., unconscious determinants) there is a chance of confusion of self concept with some other Freudian concepts like "ego," "self," and "personality." Therefore, it is necessary to understand the close functional relationship between ego, personality and self and their interactions.

PERSONALITY, SELF AND EGO

Perhaps the most widely accepted definition of personality has been advanced by Allport. He believes that (Allport, 1937) "personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determined his unique adjustment to his environment." In this definition the personality is clearly a function of the undefined "individual." While extending the relationship, Bertocci (1945) suggested letting "the individual" mean the complex unity of cognitive-conative activities, and this he thinks is the definition of self. A self's personality, according to Bertocci, is the dynamic organization of its own unique psychophysical wanting and ability which renders adjustments to its environment unique. In other words, the self is referred to the dynamic unity of many complex and unitary activities of sensing, remembering, imagining, perceiving, wanting, feeling, and thinking. While distinguishing ego and personality, Allport (1943) is under the opinion that these two phenomena are not co-extensive or identical. According to him, ego is only "one portion, one region....of personality." However, it should be made clear that the self, its personality, and ego are not like layers of an onion, but are interpenetrating psychological

organizations. The self challenges the culture in which it is born, even if it responds to its moulding norms. Thus, the ego and the personality are never merely the subjective side of culture. They are always, in varying degree, the means the self has taken in developing itself among the possibilities suggested to it by the surrounding world.

The self concept does not, of course, explain the existence of any one system, or any specific development within personality, and in that sense, it has no specific experimental value. But, if we experiment in order to improve our understanding and interpretation of human experience, in terms of self-acceptance or self-dissatisfaction, then this interpretative concept may be an extremely useful area for empirical studies. For this, it has warranted the increased attention of many psychologists since the beginning of the middle twentieth century, and self-acceptance was probably the first problem with which psychologists were confronted.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Self-acceptance, Real Self, Ideal Self, and Real-ideal Discrepancy

According to Crowne and Stephens, (1961) the concept of self-acceptance is derived from the construct of self-concept. Operationally defined, self-acceptance may be considered as congruent with the individual's description of his ideal-self. A common denominator in the definition of self-acceptance, judging from the operations employed in its assessment, would seem to be the degree of self satisfaction in self evaluation. This definitional consensus, however, is achieved at

the level of operations, and other meanings may be implied by the self-acceptance construct.

Self-acceptance has been viewed from various angles. Allport, (1961) suggested that the young infant is not aware of himself. He does not separate 'me' from the rest of the world, because self-consciousness and consciousness are not the same, neither for infants nor for adults. The infants, though presumably conscious, lack self consciousness, but the adults have both. The concept of self consciousness brought about two types of selves viz., 'real self' and 'ideal self,' respectively. Real self, otherwise known as actual self, is the individual's total attitudes about what 'he is really like,' when he is asked to describe himself as he thinks he is in different spheres of his activities. The ideal self is the sum total of a person's views of what he wished he was or thinks he ought to be, as distinguished from 'what he is' (Jersild, 1963). In other words, ideal self or ego ideal is a name for the integrated set of roles and aspirations which direct the individual's life and is usually revealed by the question 'the person I would like to be like' (Havighurst, et al., 1946). The real self and the ideal self seldom coincide with each other; hence a discrepancy between the two is obviously expected from different individuals that may vary in degree. To obtain a discrepancy between the real self and ideal self, the scores obtained from tests measuring the perceived self are subtracted from the scores measuring ideal self. Bearing this theoretical construct a number of instruments testing Real-Ideal (Self-Ideal or S-I) discrepancy have been developed.

Instruments Measuring Real-Ideal Discrepancy

At present numerous tests are available to measure real-ideal discrepancy, and can be subsumed under four broad categories. Firstly, the Q sort technique includes the self-ideal-others (SIO), (Rogers & Dymond, 1954). Secondly, the Adjective Rating Scale includes the Index of Adjustment and Values (Bills, 1958, Bills, et al., 1951). A third category of tests is the Adjective Check list of Gough (1955) Buss Scale (Buss & Gerjuoy, 1957; Zuckerman & Monashkin, 1957) and Interpersonal Check List (LaForge & Suczek, 1955). A final category includes all the rating scales, i.e., Self-Rating Inventory (Brownfain, 1952), Berger Self-Acceptance Scale (Berger, 1952), and Self Activity Inventory (Worchel, 1957). The validity and reliability of many of these instruments may be questioned.

Validity, Reliability, Inter-item and Intra-item Consistency

Criterion validation of self-acceptance tests is, of course, logically impossible and attempts at construct validation do not lend much faith in the validity even of a popular test. Face validity, however, has apparently been assumed without question. The acceptance of face validity - that is, manifest similarity - implies adherence to a further assumption incorporated in phenomenological theory - that of the validity of self-reports (Rogers, 1951). According to the notion of face validity, what looks like a test of self-acceptance is such, by definition. All that such tests are required to do is to elicit self-evaluative statements from Ss. Crowne and Stephens (1961) made a

critical survey of the validity of the instruments mentioned above. Their survey showed that the psychological tests designed to assess self-concepts do not stand the tests of validity criteria. Tests which purport to measure the same construct, show very low intercorrelations. Bills (1958) reported a correlation of .24 between the self concept score on the Index of Adjustment and values (IAV) and the "self-score" of the Phillips Attitudes Toward Self and Others Questionnaire (1951). Omwake (1954) found a correlation of .55 between the IAV self-acceptance score and the self-score on the Phillips questionnaire. In another study, Cowen (1956) found that two self-acceptance measures yielding self-ideal discrepancy were uncorrelated.

However, the reliability has been sometimes reported to be fairly high. For example Worchel (1957) reported reliability coefficients of .79, .72, and .78 for self, ideal and others while re-administering his 54 item Self Activity Inventory after eight weeks. It was recently reported (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1969) on the basis of factor analytic studies made of Worchel's SAI that there are few basic dimensions underlying the inventory, therefore, the SAI can neither qualify as a multi-dimensional or a uni-dimensional instrument. Wylie (1961) has given a thorough and thought-provoking assessment of the reliabilities and validities of the instruments which purport to measure various phases of the self concept. Until the time Wylie raised those critical and pertinent questions, there have been few attempts to assess the instruments themselves.

Serious objections have been raised with regards to the question of S's insight into his own self (Wylie, 1961), social desirability effect on the response set (Edwards, 1957), and the effect of "defensive behavior" on S's judgment of his self (Butler & Haigh, 1954, Zuckerman & Monashkin, 1957). All these objections are against the response sets which may mistakenly be assumed to be a description of the self, whereas in effect the response sets may be a function of either defensiveness or social desirability or even a lack of insight into one's self.

Even though the concept of real-ideal discrepancy is fraught with many limitations, yet it is considered to be a useful tool for purposes of prediction and diagnosis of behavior and maladjustment, and has been used as such by many investigators.

Real-Ideal Discrepancy as Related to Different Personality Variables

First, it should be made clear that the researches pertaining to real-ideal discrepancy and related personality variables do not emphasize antecedent consequent (S-R) or cause and effect design. This is because of the fact that self concept is frequently assumed to be an all pervasive phenomena and sensitive to almost all kinds of personality variables. Due to the problems associated with operationalizing and objectively studying the phenomenon self, most investigators have tended to use the correlational approach.

The correlational (R-R) studies on self-concepts can be treated under three major categories. Firstly, studies which are concerned with correlations between the phenomenal self-concept and theoretically

relevant personality variables without specifying the direction of the hypothesized antecedent-consequent relationship. In other words, this category includes studies that attempt to relate self concepts with a number of personality variables like those of MMPI.

The second group of studies are concerned with the influence of the antecedent phenomenal self-concept (Real-Ideal discrepancy) upon subsequent behavior. It has been reported by various authors (McCandless et al., 1956; Lipsitt, 1961; Roynerson, 1957; Howard, 1957; & Mitchell, 1959) that the degree of discrepancy between real self and ideal self may be an index of the degree of activities in various facets of the individual's life. There is almost unanimous agreement that the greater the discrepancy, the greater the anxiety associated therewith, (McCandless, et al., 1956; Lipsitt, 1961; Roynerson, 1957). Delinquency (Howard, 1957), self rejection characterized by chronic attributes of self-disapproval, self-distrust, feeling of being unworthy, allowing self-criticism (Mitchell, 1959) are generally associated with large discrepancies between real and ideal self. On the other hand, these studies suggest that the smaller the difference between real and ideal self, the less anxious the person is, and his adjustment is generally better than under greater discrepancies; there is also greater chance of self acceptance and consequently less chance of delinquency than in cases of large discrepancies. However, this assumption of linearity between low discrepancies and self-acceptance holds true only to an optimal level, after which low discrepancies may result in maladjustment.

A too low discrepancy has been suspected to be an indicator of some severe psychological malfunctions. Most of these studies have been designed to measure the extent to which the discrepancy between real and ideal self can be taken as a determinant of different personality variables, i.e., adjustability, anxiety, etc. It seems that not many studies have been done to explore the possible determinants of such discrepancy itself.

The present study, therefore, aims to provide the scope for a third category of studies which is concerned with the influence of antecedent factors upon the consequent phenomenal self concept and real-ideal discrepancy. Here it is assumed that inappropriate sex role identification, and level of security may be two major determinants of discrepancy between real and ideal self concept or self dissatisfaction.

DETERMINANTS OF SELF-DISSATISFACTION

Inappropriate Sex Role Identification

It has been found that adjustment, anxiety and self acceptance are remarkably influenced by social approval. Gray (1957) found that inappropriate sex role identification among adolescents (i.e., feminine sex role of boys and masculine sex role of girls) often leads to social disapproval. This disapproval may adversely effect overall adjustment and self acceptance, and produce anxiety. Scheinfeld (1956) found that adolescent boys with inadequate masculine physique suffer from personality conflict and psychosomatic disorders. Psychoanalytic literature

suggests that adequate identification with one's sex role is positively associated with more general aspects of social and psychological adjustment while inadequate sexual identification is often associated with psychopathology (Cameron, 1963). In another study Spock (1960) suggested the possibility that the construct of confusion in sex role identification might represent several types or levels of deviations in sex role concepts and preferences, and that these, in turn, might be associated with quite diverse patterns of social maladjustment. In general, these studies indicate that an inappropriate sex role identification results in some overall maladjustment which is significantly related with self rejection and ultimately self dissatisfaction (i.e., large discrepancies between real and ideal self). This is also expected to be true in an adolescent population.

Social acceptance which precedes social approval has been characterized as positively associated with general adjustment of children (Burchinal, 1956), and that in turn was found to be an indicator of the relation between the real and the ideal self (Hanlon, et al., 1954). It has been suggested also that appropriate sex role identification facilitates a normal aggressive reaction to situations requiring an aggressive response (Leventhal, et al., 1968). This means greater adjustabilities in the individuals having appropriate sex role identification, and lesser discrepancy between the real and ideal self than in persons with inappropriate sex role identification.

It is expected that social approval and disapproval of femininity is differently associated with the two sex groups. A more feminine

girl is expected to receive more social approval than the less feminine girl who may be socially disapproved. On the other hand, a more feminine boy is expected to receive more social disapproval than a masculine boy whose behavior may be approved of by society. This means that inappropriate sex role identification may result in a large discrepancy between real and ideal self concept whereas an appropriate sex role identification is likely to minimize such discrepancy. Becker (1968) found that individuals of either sex whose sex role identifications were masculine scored lower on the real-ideal discrepancy scale than individuals whose sex role identification were feminine. Further, in another finding (Becker & DiLeo, 1967) males obtained lower real-ideal discrepancy scores than did the females. Becker explained these findings on the basis of self-approval-seeking tendencies among males and females predominantly masculine orientation vs. social-approval-seeking tendencies among males and females with predominantly feminine orientation. The present study is based on the assumption that boys with masculine sex role identification will tend to show small discrepancies, whereas girls with masculine sex role identification may show large discrepancies between the real and ideal self. It is also assumed that feminine sex role identification of girls will tend to be associated with small discrepancies, whereas, such identifications in boys may be associated with large discrepancies between real and ideal self. The present study thus seeks to relate appropriate (boy-masculine, girl-feminine) sex-role identifications with greater self-satisfaction (i.e.,

lower discrepancy between real-ideal on SAI); conversely, inappropriate (boy-feminine, girl-masculine) sex-role identification may be associated with decreased self-satisfaction (i.e., large discrepancy between real-ideal self).

Insecurity

The second determinant of self dissatisfaction may be the level of security-insecurity. Security as a psychological concept has a long past but did not receive significant attention until the ingenious work of Maslow (1940, 1942b, 1946, 1954) and Blatz (1966) who have attempted to formulate a strong theoretical base of the concept. Its past may be traced back to the early days of the development of psychoanalysis, in which security is defined as the conditions of being safe, or free from threat of danger to life or to what is highly valued. The theoretical construct of security-insecurity which was advanced by Maslow resulted in his Security-Insecurity Inventory (1952). Maslow et al., (1952) defined security in terms of feelings of being loved or liked, being accepted, safety unanxious, friendliness, trust in others, easy affection for others, optimism, relaxation and courageous attitude towards self. Insecurity which is defined elsewhere in this study, is just the opposite feelings of those which are associated with security. Blatz defined security as the state of mind which accompanies the willingness to accept the consequences of one's acts without equivocation of any sort. Insecurity, according to Blatz, is a state of mind that accompanies a person's uncertainty as to the consequences of his

decision and his doubts about his willingness to accept the consequences, whatever they may be. The intensity of his insecurity is determined by the degree of his uncertainty and the depth of his doubt. Feelings of insecurity were identified as anxiety which is described as a mixture of confusion, excitement, frustration, apprehension, anticipation, and the "Keyed-upness." These feelings are the exact opposite of the security characterized as serenity. Fischer (1949) suggested that the similarity between insecurity and anxiety is only superficial, since the two may be correlated yet they may be different in many aspects. Anxiety is often differentiated from insecurity in that insecurity is continuous and penetrates every channel of life, whereas anxiety is an acute unbearable state appearing only in certain situations. Insecurity arises from an unsatisfied craving for protection; anxiety, from an actual experience of complete helplessness in the face of real or imagined danger.

Apart from its clinical significance the concept of security has received some attention in non-clinical fields. The concept of security has been presented as a motivation for human behavior by Borel (1964). Here an inherent striving to reduce "environmental" situations to cause and effect relationships and thus enable the individual to predict and control these situations is seen as a basic part of human behavior. He has further suggested that security is ultimately involved with an individual's self concept, but does not say in what way. Quite independently from Borel, a study of Ferrara and Milofsky (1964) reflects on

the relationship between self and security. In this study, lists of contradictory personality traits were presented to the Ss. The Ss were told that traits described a particular individual and were asked to form an impression of his personality. It was hypothesized that insecure Ss would reduce the contradiction to a greater degree than secure Ss. Insecurity was measured by the Maslow S-I Inventory. The degree to which the contradiction was reduced was found to be significantly correlated with the degree of insecurity. The level of contradiction with others may also indicate one's contradiction with his own self, which obviously means a greater discrepancy between real and ideal self.

The number of studies investigating Security-Insecurity per se are somewhat limited. This is the reason why a strong framework is not available. However, the theoretical formulations of the above authors stimulates many research problems. Particularly the way Blatz defines human security, resembles with the theoretical theme behind real and ideal self concept and their discrepancy. According to him when a person is willing to accept the consequences of his actions, he is secure, and when he is acting in this fashion, he feels secure. The "acceptance of consequences of one's action" bears almost a similar idea to that of "self-acceptance" in self psychology, which has been found to be indexed by low real-ideal discrepancy (Haward, 1957 & Hanlow et al., 1954). Further, Blatz hypothesized that self criticism may become an excuse for not undertaking the new, and so may become an impediment to the growth of independent security. Self criticism here

means self rejection, in which case a greater discrepancy between real and ideal self concept was found. This hypothesis of Blatz clearly indicates that the secure persons will show greater self acceptance, hence less discrepancy between real self and ideal self than an insecure person.

However, such an assumption is somewhat different from Maslow's hypothesis of security-insecurity and self esteems of the individual. Maslow hypothesized that in Jews there is a tendency to be simultaneously high in self esteem and low in security, while in Catholics low self esteem tends to be associated with high security. Maslow's hypothesis was rejected by Hanawalt (1963) who found no significant differences between the Catholics and Jews. Further, Maslow assumed that in an extremely insecure person insecurity is expressed in many ways. As he puts it, it may have the quality of seclusiveness and withdrawal if the person is low in the self esteem, or it may have the quality of hostility, aggressiveness, and nastiness if the person is high in self esteem. Here, too high and too low self esteems, both express divergence from the real self in either direction which ultimately means greater self rejection. To extend this hypothesis of Maslow, it may be further assumed that, in secure persons, negative self-images may be less; consequently less discrepancy between real and ideal self concept may be expected than in an insecure person.

ADOLESCENCE STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

Of all the stages the adolescence stage of development has re-

peatedly been ascertained to be a critical one, during which the individual faces several physical changes characterized by secondary sex development and psychological changes characterized by changes in others' expectations and attitude towards him. In addition to this, as Hess (1960) puts, learning to answer questions, "Who am I?", "What do I do?", "What do I want to be?" is the basic task of an adolescent. It is a sort of conflict in which the young person must come to terms with himself and his capacities, commit himself to a career and to an individual way of looking at himself and relating to others. This is a stage where the aggregate of social pressure stemming from the adolescents' own age mate (sometimes referred to as the "peer culture") becomes increasingly influential, and often represents a major source of family conflict because of its rivalry with potential control, for the adolescent is exposed to the wider world and starts sharing many views not essentially related to his parents. Hess and Goldblatt (1957) found that adolescents believe that the average adult has a generalized tendency to depreciate teen-agers, and feel that teen-agers have a uniformly low reputation among adults.

Several reasons may be advanced for such a remarkably different trend developing in adolescents. In the first place as Kuhlén (1952) suggested, the adolescent has grown physically to the point where he is capable of more independent actions, and consequently he spends more time outside of the home in near-adult type of social activities with his age mates. He naturally wished to conform to the expectations of his age mates. In the second place, there is increasingly clear

delineation of the cultural role which is appropriate for one sex or the other, and increasing awareness of the opposite sex, "status" of adolescence implies not only status with respect to being masculine or feminine, but also status in the eyes of the opposite sex. In the third place, frustration may accentuate concerns with social problems. It is not possible to satisfy that new organic need, sex, which has become more prominent, without running into strenuous social disapprovals.

Early in the pre-school years, the child's awareness of his own sex membership plays little part in his identity. The child can say readily enough whether he is a boy or girl, but the designation probably lacks any profound significance. According to Stone and Church (1957) most young children in their play feel free to take male or female roles as the occasion demands, without reference to their own biological make-up and without the embarrassment which school age children would feel. It seems sexual identity is of more concern during the adolescence stage of development. As defined by Colley (1959), sexual identity refers to the patterns of positions on the biological, sociological and psychological continua of the male-female dimensions which characterize an individual in relation to others of his socio-cultural milieu. This sexual identity is so important that Colley claims that to be a person, to have a self, implies the presence of maleness or femaleness - perhaps even depends upon it. All these studies suggest that sex role identity is of very important concern during the adolescence stage of development.

There have been many studies concerning the above issues. In particular, the "status envy" hypothesis of Burton and Whiting (1961)

reflects on some interesting aspects of sex role identity. According to this hypothesis, adolescents will identify with models who control resources they covet. They found that boys from father absent households, where mother's status is likely to be envied, are shown to experience considerable cross-sex identity conflict. Their findings further suggest that some delinquent acts of boys in gangs may be exaggerated expressions of masculine behavior resulting from conflict in sex identity. The effects of potential paternal absence upon boy's sex role identification, sex role anxiety, and anti-social behavior were investigated by McCord, et al., (1962). These findings revealed, as Burton and Whiting (1961) predicted, that feminine-aggressive behavior results from paternal absence.

The investigation of Bronson (1959) attempted to distinguish the effects of ego and infantile identification with the father upon the son's masculine behaviors and attitudes at pre-adolescence. On the basis of the psychoanalytic conceptualization of the processes of identification it was found that ego identification with a non-stressful father results in masculine overt behavior characterized by moderation, acceptance, on overt levels, of masculine attitudes and needs, and moderate similarity. On the other hand, infantile identification with a stressful father leads to rejection of masculine attitudes and needs on covert levels, extreme non-masculine overt behaviors and a high degree of similarity or of dissimilarity between the son's and father's masculine behavior.

Apart from these general issues in the adolescence stage of development, some specific facts have been found to be associated with the adolescence stage. For example, by and large, overall psychological adjustment has appeared to be more satisfactory in the early- rather than the late-maturing boys. In a study (Mussen & Jones, 1958) the behavior of 34 physically accelerated and retarded boys was rated in a wide variety of situations on the basis of drives. It was found that a late-maturing adolescent is more likely to be personally and socially maladjusted than his early-maturing peer. In another study Jones and Mussen (1958) found that early-maturing girls, too have more favorable self-concepts, than late-maturing girls. The researchers interpreted their findings that late-maturing adolescents of both sexes are characterized by less adequate self-concepts, slightly poorer parent-child relationships, and a tendency for stronger dependency needs than early-maturing adolescents.

During the adolescent stage of development self-image is more likely to undergo significant changes. A longitudinal study of changes in the structure of the self-image (Carlson, 1965) included 49 students studied in the sixth grade and as high-school seniors. Self and ideal-self descriptions, obtained on parallel forms (pre-adolescent and adolescent) of a questionnaire designed to control several response sets, provided measures of self-esteem and social-personal orientation. Over the 6-year period, as predicted, girls showed an increase in social orientation while boys increased in personal orientation, reflecting

the different processes of personality level for adolescent boys and girls.

SELF CONCEPT, SEX ROLE, AND INSECURITY DURING ADOLESCENCE STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

Since self is probably the most important thing in the world for the individual, the question of what he is like concerns him deeply. This is especially true during the adolescent stage of development when the individual tends to be keenly concerned with his self image; "What am I like?", "How good am I or might I become?". Many adolescents are concerned with the questions of this sort which are basically related to their real selves and ideal selves. Due to physiological and psychological changes during adolescence, as well as due to the 'marginal status' that may be accorded to teen-agers in this culture, an adolescent may find it hard to accept or adjust to such ambiguity in his status (Rosenberg, 1965). This suggests that outcome of matured adulthood from childhood body pattern is accompanied by a new self-concept (Zachry, 1940); it is a period when an awareness of and concern with the self image tends to be high and the self image at this time is vitally complicated.

The present study was done on an adolescent population because during this stage of human development not only is an adolescent concerned with himself, but also his sex role identification and security level concern him to a greater extent in comparison to any other stage of the development.

Sex-appropriate roles may be assessed on the basis of actual performance of the functions congruent with the sex-roles, or on the basis of the wish or desire to be like a male or a female, or on both the bases. The 'wish' may further be expressed as a performance for a certain sex-role identification. Thus, where the actual performance of a sex-role is assessed, the performer may either be conforming to the social conventions or may actually be wanting to fulfill those roles and therefore does them. There is however no way of distinguishing between these two phases where the actual performances are the only data obtained. In a psychological context, however, it may be assumed that what the individual wishes or prefers to be, is more meaningful to the individual; and as such the psychological identifications of the individual will be closer to the sex-role he prefers or wishes to perform, rather than the one he may feel obliged to perform. Therefore, sex-role identification is taken here to mean the psychological identifications with sex-roles regardless of the biological origin of the Ss concerned. Thus, in this context, a male can have either a masculine or a feminine sex-role identification, just as a female can have a masculine or feminine sex-role identification.

Hypothesis

In view of the previous research findings, it was predicted that sex appropriate roles accepted and adopted by adolescent boys and girls may tend to minimize the discrepancy between ideal self concepts and real self concepts. On the other hand, acceptance of or identification

with cross-sex roles may tend to enlarge the discrepancy between real self concept and ideal self concept.

In other words, the first hypothesis was as follows:

1. "Appropriate sex-role identification in adolescent boys and girls may tend to decrease the discrepancy between the ideal-self concept and real-self concept, whereas inappropriate sex-role identification may tend to increase such discrepancy between the two."

Following the theoretical formulations of Maslow, the second hypothesis may be stated as follows:

2. "Feelings of security will tend to decrease the discrepancy between the real and ideal self concept and feelings of insecurity will increase such a discrepancy."

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

The sample consists of 177 boys and 151 girls enrolled in the introductory psychology course of the University of Manitoba. All of the subjects fall within the age range of 16-21 years of age. The mean ages of the boys and girls were 18.5 and 18.43 years respectively.

Description of Measuring Instruments

Self Activity Inventory

Worchel's (1957) 54-item Self Activity Inventory (SAI) was used to measure the real and ideal self concept. This test was originally designed to obtain a measure of the individual's susceptibility to stress reactions in military situations, as a result of motivations and response pattern presumed to be incompatible with military requirements. Items were constructed describing activities concerned with (a) the way an individual copes with his hostility, achievement, sexual and dependency need, (b) the way he evaluates these activities in relation to his concept of the ideal response and (c) the way he perceives how other people behave in response to these needs and frustrations. In successive revisions, only those items were retained which showed a spread in the ratings over at least four categories, with at least 10% of the rating frequency. Almost all of the items seem to be negatively worded (i.e., to attribute the stated characteristics to

oneself would be to derogate the self). This fact means that negative response sets have not been controlled for. The response scale, from which intensity of underlying need-structure is inferred, is graduated from 1 (= "never") to 5 (= "very often"). This scale was used for each of the three categories of response (i.e., real, ideal and others) the S is asked to use. In the column I S completes the sentence "I am a person who _____." In column II, he completes the sentence "I would like to be a person who _____." In column III, he completes the sentence "The average person is one who _____." Five scores are derived from the Inventory -- sum of self; sum of ideal; sum of others; sum (self-ideal), which is the absolute sum of individual item discrepancies across columns I and II; sum (self-others), which is the absolute sum of individual item discrepancies across columns I and III. when column scores were correlated across Ss, Pearson r's were found to range, for students and cadet samples, from +.12 (Ideal vs. others) to +.64 (Self vs. Ideal).

Worchel (1957) reported two validating studies for Self Activity Inventory. All of them bear only indirectly on the construct validity of this instrument as an index of Ss' phenomenal selves, because they test simultaneously the construct validity of the instrument and some theoretical assumptions of the authors.

In one study it was assumed that college men referred by themselves or others to a counseling bureau would be low on adjustment, other college students would be in the middle range of adjustment, and

aviation cadets would be high on adjustment. It was found that the real and ideal mean scores of the students and consultation group differed significantly from the cadets. Wylie (1961) criticized the results of this study for the following reasons. According to her, the procedure and instructions used for the three groups were not held constant. Furthermore, it is possible that the volunteer group was willing to be more frank and honest than would be the members of the other two groups. Also, the inventory was administered individually to the consultation group Ss, whereas other groups received group administration from their college instructors. Therefore, in one case the intent of the Inventory was expressly to help the consultation Ss, while in the other two cases no such intents were involved.

In the second study, Self and Self-Ideal discrepancy scores correlated significantly with Taylor Manifest Anxiety scores and with Sarason Test Anxiety score which reflects on the criterion validity.

Apart from this, two other studies throw some indirect light on the construct validity of Self Activity Inventory. One investigation compared performance decrements under self-esteem, and threatening stress in groups of Ss who differ with respect to self-ideal discrepancies (Miller & Worchel, 1956). The other compared the Self Activity Inventory scores of neurotic, schizophrenic, and normal Ss (Hillson & Worchel, 1957). In each case, hypotheses were stated on the bases of theory and the assumed validity of the instrument for measuring phenomenal self-dissatisfaction, but not all the hypotheses were verified.

It is by now accepted that real self contributes more to the self-ideal (S-I) discrepancy than ideal self, which tends to represent the social norm, and therefore to be uniform for all the Ss. In other words, if inter-S ideal ratings show little variance as compared to inter-S self rating on each item, little or nothing will be contributed by the ideal rating to inter-S variability in total S-I discrepancy. This has been proved to be true for the SAI, where Worchel (1957) found low inter-S variance in ideal rating. Also, Rappaport (1958) showed that inter-S variability on ideal self was smaller than on real self for ten out of twelve MMPI scales.

However, Wylie (1961) comes forward with serious objections against the validity of the discrepancy (self-ideal) measure. In the case of discrepancy scores we are, in effect, dealing with another two-part value in terms of its distance from an assumed cultural norm. But S may or may not have accepted the cultural norm as his personal ideal, and/or may not be honest in stating his phenomenal ideas. Hence, it is questionable to assume that the discrepancy score is a consistent index of the individual's self-ideal discrepancy as phenomenal self.

To measure the reliability, the 54-item inventory was administered by Worchel to another group of 76 college students at the University of Texas. The eight-week test-retest reliability coefficients for Self, Ideal and Others were .79, .72, .78, respectively, all being significantly different from zero at less than the .001 level.

During the early fifties, a number of tests were constructed

to measure self concept. An attempt to measure self concept generally faces three difficulties. Firstly, it must be demonstrated that the operational and theoretical meanings are in fact equivalent. In the case of the self concept, it needs to be shown that the 'inner experience' is effectively conveyed by the outward movement of making check marks on lines, or sorting cards. Secondly, an efficient and systematic method must be found for selecting items for the scales and sorts, the problem being that of defining the universe from which items are to be selected. Thirdly, since each measure implies its own operational definition, these measures hardly come to an agreement on the nature of self concept, this posing a problem for future investigators who wish to select an appropriate measure. Worchel's Self Activity Inventory shares these problems in common with other measuring instruments. In spite of these limitations, Self Activity Inventory was used because it has demonstrated test-retest reliability with college ss, some degree of face validity and criterion validity with other well standardized tests like the MMPI, and Taylor's Anxiety test, even though its construct validity is as yet questionable. In view of the assets and liabilities inherent in existing psychological instruments, it was decided to put it to further tests. An attempt was therefore made to assess the construct validity through factor-analytic techniques as shown by Schludermann and Schludermann (1969). Further, assuming that Worchel's SAI is a global overall measure of self-concept, as many other instruments are, questions may be asked as to what extent deter-

minants of sex-role identification and feelings of security or insecurity may yet influence such a global self-concept.

Femininity Scale (Fe)

The Femininity Scale (Fe) of the California Personality Inventory (Gough, 1957) was used as the measure of sex role identification. This scale is one of the 18 scales of the Inventory and composed of 38 items, the development and the rationale for which is discussed elsewhere (Gough, 1952). It describes femininity in terms of the following traits: appreciative, patient, helpful, gentle, moderate, persevering; as being respectful and accepting others; and behaving in a conscientious and sympathetic way. The scale describes masculine traits in terms of outgoing, ambitious, restless, active, robust, hard-headed, being manipulative, and opportunistic in dealing with others, impatient with delay, indecision, and reflection. A high score on the Fe scale indicates more feminine interest and a low score indicates masculine interest.

There are numerous studies reported by Gough (1957) which cover a wide range of Ss, time, and criteria used to assess the reliability and validity of the 18 scales and 480 items composing the CPI. The inventory is intended primarily for use with normal Ss. Its scales are addressed principally to personality characteristics important for social living and social interaction. Thus, while it has been found to have special utility with a few problem groups, i.e., persons of delinquent, asocial tendencies; it may be expected to find most general use in schools, colleges, business and industry, and in clinics of counsel-

ing agencies, whose clientele consists mainly of social functioning individuals.

Two reliability studies using the test-retest method are available for all the scales of the CPI (Gough, 1957). In one of these, two high school junior classes took the CPI in the fall of 1952, and again a year later as seniors. In another, 200 male prisoners took the test twice with a lapse of from 7 to 21 days between the testing. The reliability coefficients were generally high for prisoners than high school females and males for all the 18 scales. For the Fe scale the reliability coefficients were .73, .65, and .59 for prisoners, high school females and males, respectively.

The validity of scales of the CPI is ordinarily much more difficult to summarize. For a scale like Re (responsibility) one can estimate its validity by correlating with subjective ratings of responsibility, but the ratings are themselves inexact and fallible. Nevertheless, they do represent to some degree the "truth" about social responsibility, and therefore a valid scale must correlate with such ratings. On the other hand, for the scale like Ac (achievement via conformance), the problem is simple because school grades, for example, can be used as a direct and acceptable criterion against which to check the scale. It is, of course, not possible to present all the studies on validity for different scales which have been validated against a number of criteria. In this way the Fe scale which is of present concern, was validated against some other criterion tests. In a sample of 152

adult males, Fe correlated $-.41$ with the masculinity scale of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. In the same sample, Fe correlated (correlation coefficient = $.43$) with the Mf (feminine interests) scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

The Fe scale of CPI was chosen as a measure of femininity out of several other femininity scales, (i.e., Frank & Rosen, 1949, etc.), because it was assumed that the norms obtained for college populations in the United States would also serve as norms for college students in Canada. Secondly, greater number of items of the Fe scale of the CPI have been claimed to be less obviously sex related, therefore the scale can be used to differentiate same-sex or cross-sex identifications in males and females by selecting upper and lower one-third of the distributions for each of the sex groups.

Security-Insecurity Inventory

The Security-Insecurity Inventory (S-I) of Maslow et al., (1952) was used as a measure of feelings of security and insecurity in college SS. The test was developed as a result of clinical insight and experience and Maslow's theoretical ideas (1942a, 1942b, 1943a, 1943b, and 1943c) about the characteristics of a mature or immature man or woman. The construction of the inventory is described in papers by Maslow et al., (1945) and Maslow (1943c). The purpose of the inventory was to detect and measure the feeling of insecurity which is defined (Maslow et al., 1952) in terms of feelings rejection, isolation, threat, danger, anxiety, mistrust, pessimism, perception of human beings as

essentially bad, evil, or selfish, along with several other neurotic trends. On the other hand, security is defined in terms of feelings of being liked or loved, being accepted, safety, unanxious, friendliness, trust in others, tolerance of others, easy affection for others, optimism, relaxation, courageous and being free from neurotic trends. Maslow et al., (1945) have argued that this inventory is not a behavior measure. Rather its aim is to reveal inner conscious feeling.

The first step of the construction of the Security-Insecurity Inventory was to study clinically, a large number of individuals who were known to be secure or insecure in terms of the clinical criteria. The answer ("Yes," "NO," or "?") of secure and insecure individuals on a number of items (questions) were recorded. An item analysis was made on all the questions answered by these two groups. The best 130 questions were selected which were administered to 1000 students and after an item analysis, 75 items were retained. The final test consisted of 75 questions divided into three groups of 25 each, with each group of 25 items on a single page, thus making three equivalent and inter-changeable forms of the test. Each of these three subtests had the same design and they were in essence separate tests. The present test comprises all 75 questions. Where time is not a factor, it is better to use the entire 75 items, because the reliability is high. Each of the subtests, however, correlates with the total score over .90 and each may, therefore, be considered as valid measure of security. In addition, information was obtained from Ss of varied social-religious

backgrounds as well as separate analyses were made for men and women in each of the religious subgroups.

The Security-Insecurity Inventory was not validated against an external criterion. However, Maslow et al., (1952) reported three cases from which a high validity is assumed. Firstly, the authors are under the opinion that high validity of the inventory may be inferred because the items which were selected were clinically validated in advance. Secondly, students who had taken the test were asked to estimate the validity of the test scores by comparing them with their own opinion of themselves. In this study, eighty-eight percent judged the scale to be extremely accurate or fairly accurate. Yet, the Social Personality Inventory which had been externally validated (r val. = .91), when similarly rated by testees themselves, was judged by only 81 percent to be extremely or fairly accurate. Thirdly, another validation comes from the fact that students who come for psychotherapeutic help or advice about some personal problem usually showed insecurity scores when they were tested (Maslow, et al., 1945).

However, all these investigations and arguments in favour of validity of the Security-Insecurity Inventory, do not necessarily mean that the inventory is fully a valid one, at least until it is validated against some external criterion.

So far as the reliability of Security-Insecurity Inventory is concerned, it can be accepted as a reliable test, because split-half reliability was found to be fairly high ($r = .93$).

Maslow's Security-Insecurity Inventory with the theoretical assumptions involved was one of the instruments used in the present study. Also, the definition of insecurity for the present study was constructed around the theoretical formulations of Maslow, therefore providing greater relevance for use.

Procedure

The Fe scale along with other scales of the CPI were administered during one hour test session. All the Ss took this test in groups on pre-arranged days of the week. The Ss were instructed as follows:

"This is a personality test which has been standardized in the United States. The purpose of the present study is to see to what extent this test could be applicable to Canadian college students. We are interested in testing the reliability of the test itself. There are no right or wrong answers, so please feel free to answer the questions frankly and honestly. No individual analysis will be made, rather the group responses will be scored automatically by the IBM machines. Please read the instructions given on the booklet carefully before you start answering." Ss were then asked to return for another one hour session during the following week, when SAI and S-I were administered.

The second session of the experiment consisted of two sub-sessions. During the first half of the session the SAI was administered to all the Ss. Half of the Ss described real-self i.e., "I am a person who _____" (with reference to items of SAI). The other half of the Ss used the same items of the inventory to describe their ideal self,

starting with "I would like to be a person who _____" (with reference to items of SAI). Ss were asked to select only one of the responses running on a five point scale, i.e., never, seldom, sometimes, often, and very often. All the Ss were given the following instructions:

"This is a test designed to study the real self and the ideal self of an individual. This test was also standardized in the United States and we are trying to see to what extent this may be applicable to Canadian students. While answering the statement please remember the following things; (1) describe yourself exactly what you think you are like now, i.e., real self descriptions and (2) what you wish or what kind of a person you would like to be like. Make these descriptions as accurate as you possibly can. Please read the instructions on the booklets carefully and fill in the answers." After 20 minutes, the group of Ss who described first their real self, were asked to give the ideal self descriptions; and those who described the ideal self first, were asked to describe the real self thereafter.

During the second half of the session, which followed after a brief rest, SAI was administered. For this test Ss were instructed as follows:

"This test was also developed and standardized in the United States and we are trying to test its reliability in a different sample other than the one it was standardized on. There is no right or wrong answer to any of the questions. The test is constructed to assess feelings of security and insecurity. Your honest answers will be

greatly appreciated in order to enable meaningful group analyses to be made. So please be frank, honest, and sincere in checking all the items. Please read carefully, the instructions given in the booklet."

All the Ss indicated their responses on IBM answer sheets for all the tests which were scored according to standard procedures laid down by the test constructors.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The scoring procedures used by Gough (1956), Worchel (1957) and Maslow (1945) were adopted to score the responses of the Ss on Fe, Self Activity Inventory (real self, ideal self and real-ideal discrepancy), and Security-Insecurity Inventory. The mean and SD for each of these scales were calculated (Table 1).

The mean differences between boys and girls for scores on real self, ideal self and the Security-Insecurity Inventory were not found to be significant. The only exceptions were the differences on Fe ($t = <.01$) and self-ideal discrepancy score ($t = <.05$). As far as SD is concerned, boys and girls did not differ from each other on any of the scales which indicate an equal amount of variability around the mean, both for boys and girls.

Graphs showing the distribution of scores on the Fe scale (Fig. 1), real self concept (Fig. 2), ideal self concept (Fig. 3), and absolute discrepancy score between real-ideal concept (Fig. 4) were plotted for boys and girls along the same axes. Except for the Fe and the S-I discrepancy scores where girls tend to score at the high end of the curve, there seems no difference in the nature of the distribution of scores on different tests.

High scores on Fe with reference to one's sex group indicate greater feminine interest and low scores indicate masculine interest. For purposes of defining boundaries, masculine and feminine sex role identifications were defined in terms of the upper and the lower thirds

TABLE 1

MEAN AND SD OF SCORES ON Fe, SECURITY-INSECURITY, REAL SELF, IDEAL SELF
AND REAL-IDEAL DISCREPANCY FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

SEX GROUPS SCALES	BOYS		GIRLS	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Fe	16.1	3.9	23.4	3.4
Sec.-Insec.	25.3	15.2	24.9	12.8
Real-Self	139.4	20.18	140.5	17.8
Ideal Self	100.3	16.8	97.6	12.00
Real-Ideal discrepancy	39.2	20.5	44.6	18.6

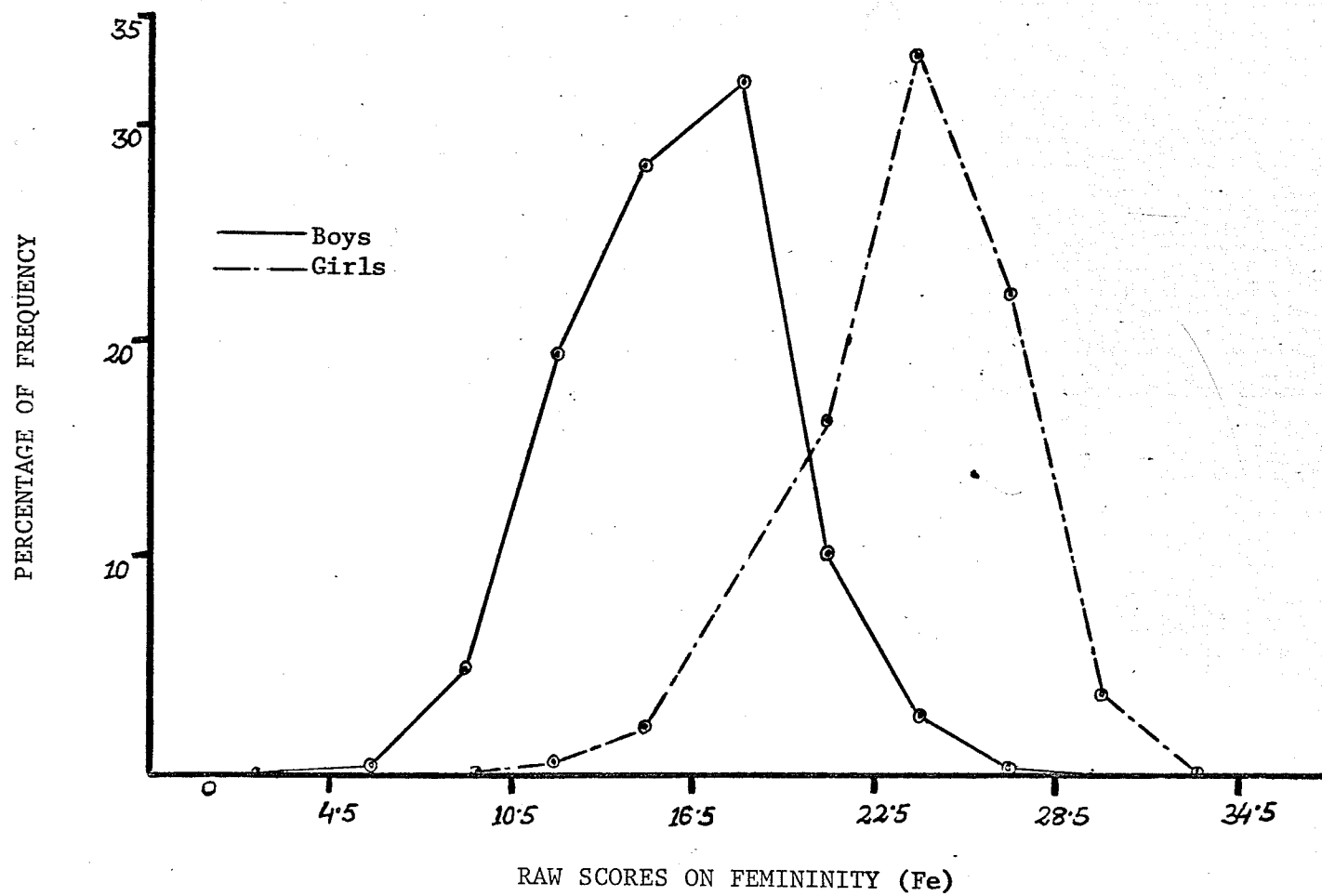


Fig. 1. Frequency Polygons of Fe (raw scores) of boys and girls

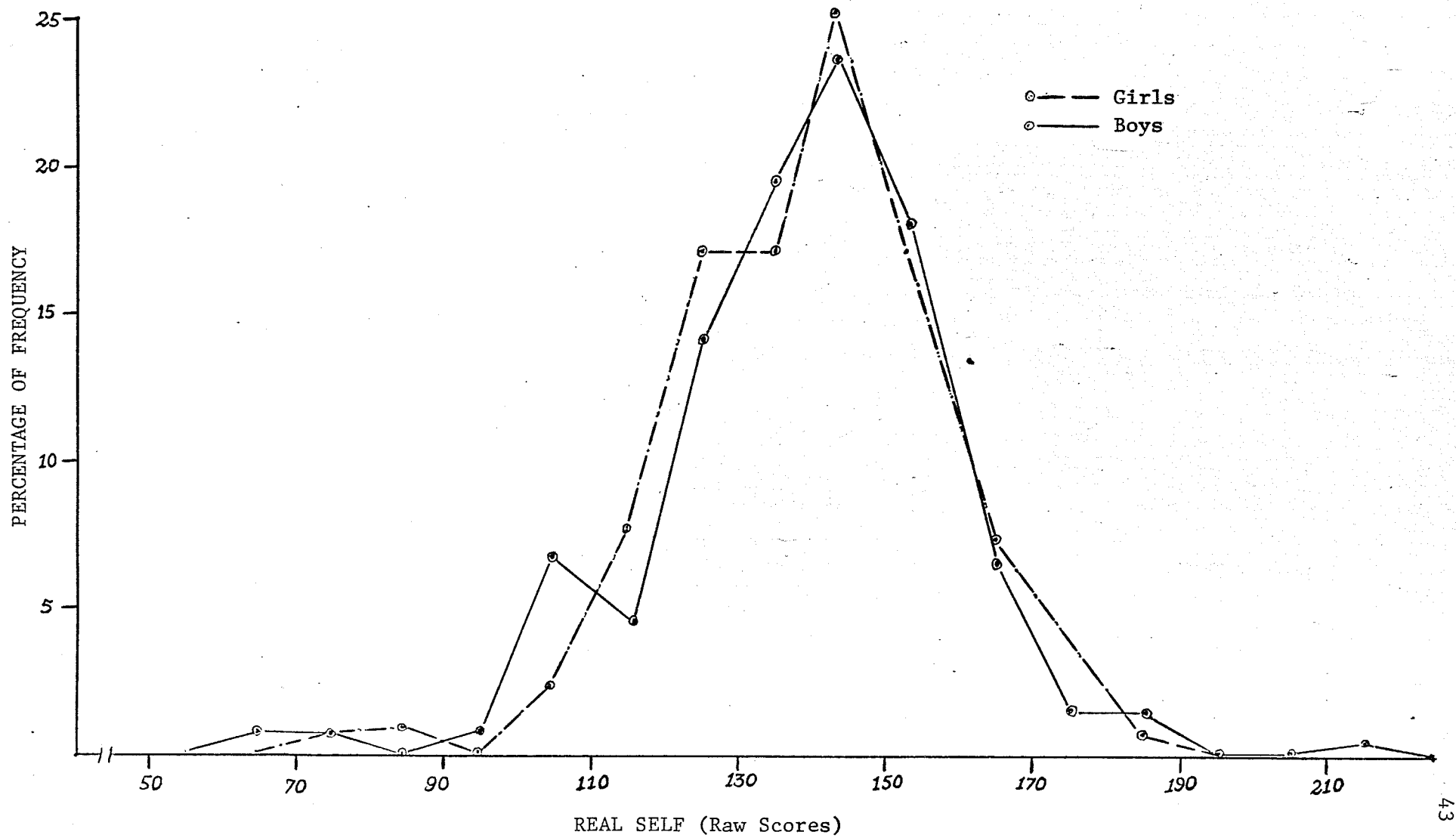


Fig. 2. Frequency Polygons for Raw Scores on Real Self (Boys and Girls)

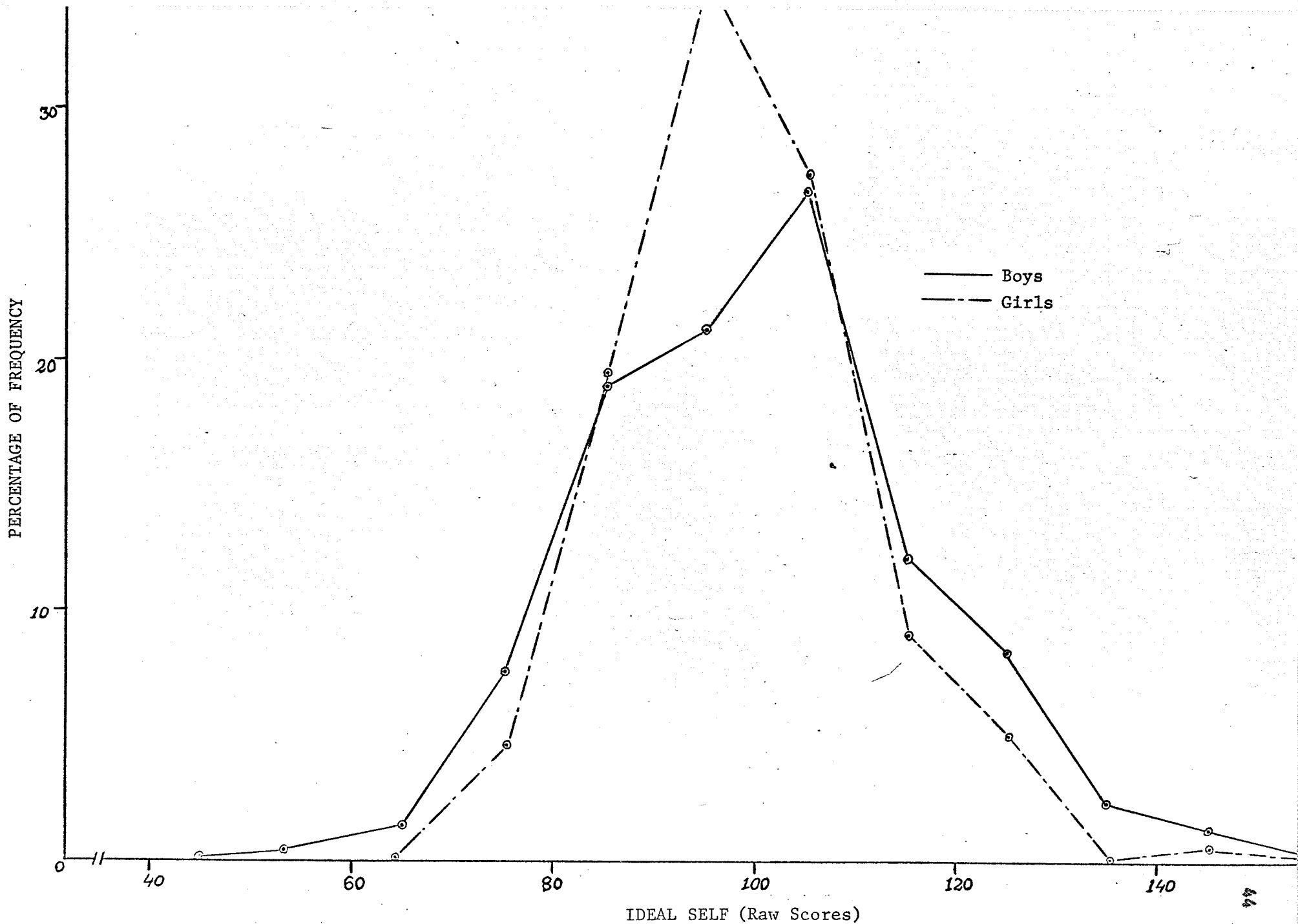


Fig. 3. Frequency Polygons for Raw Scores on Ideal Self (Boys and Girls)

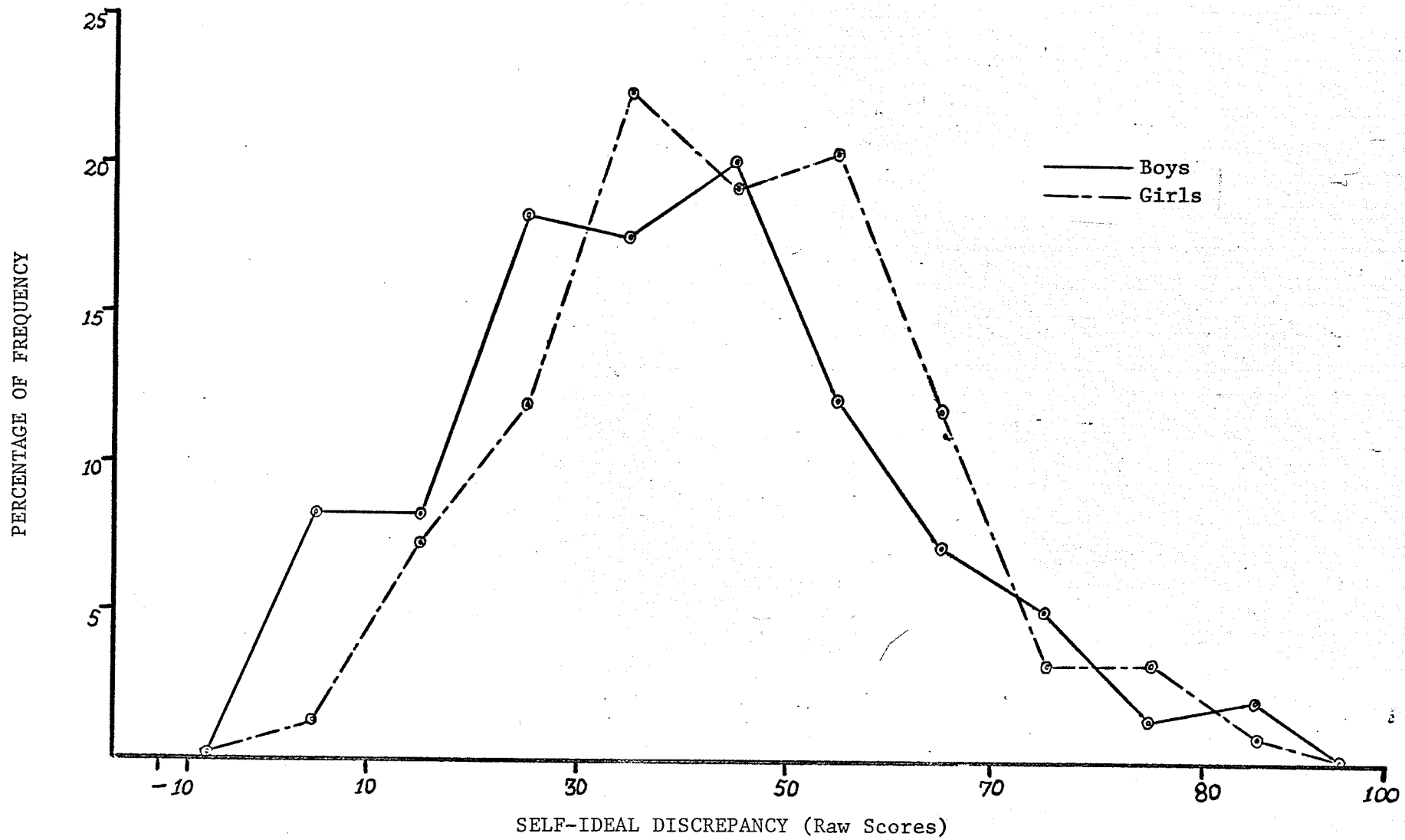


Fig. 4. Frequency Polygon of Self-Ideal Discrepancy Scores (Boys and Girls)

of Fe distribution. Boys falling at the 33.3 percentile or below on the Fe scale, based on scores of boys, were assumed to have masculine sex role identification (MB) and at the 66.6 percentile or above to have feminine sex role identification (FB). This formed a middle group corresponding to 33.3 to 66.6 percentile and which was assumed to have average sex role identification (AB). In this way, boys were trichotomized into feminine boys (FB), average (AB), and masculine boys (MB). In the same way, with respect to their distribution on the Fe scale, girls were also trichotomized, into masculine girls (MG), average girls (AG), and feminine girls (FG). In order to get equal Ns in all the cells, twenty-one Ss from the boys' group and one subject from the girls' group were randomly eliminated. Thus, the subsequent analyses were made with fifty Ss in each of the six cells to study the S-I discrepancy. A completely randomized one factor analysis of variance (Myers, 1966) was made to test inter-group differences between high and low scorers on Fe scales in relation to high or low S-I discrepancy scores on SAI inventory (see Tables 2 & 3). For both groups of boys and girls, the differences in real-ideal discrepancy for different levels were insignificant, the result thereby did not support the first hypothesis, i.e., sex-appropriate identification tends to decrease self-ideal discrepancy, and sex-inappropriate identification tends to increase the discrepancy. The self-ideal mean discrepancies were calculated and were plotted on the base level of Fe (Fig. 5). This did not support the hypothesized relationship between sex role identifica-

TABLE 2

SUMMARY TABLE FOR COMPLETELY RANDOMIZED ONE FACTOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
TESTING INTER-GROUP DIFFERENCE (Fe) OF REAL-IDEAL
DISCREPANCY FOR BOYS

SV	df	SS	MS	F
Total	149	62274.37	-	-
A (Between levels of Fe)	2	3440.93	1720.46	4.29 ^{NS}
S/A (Within levels of Fe)	147	58833.43	400.22	-

TABLE 3

SUMMARY TABLE FOR COMPLETELY RANDOMIZED ONE FACTOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
TESTING INTER-GROUP DIFFERENCES (Fe) OF REAL-IDEAL
DISCREPANCY FOR GIRLS

SV	df	SS	MS	F
Total	149	55144.93	-	-
A (Between levels of Fe)	2	616.93	308.46	0.83 ^{NS}
S/A (Within levels of Fe)	147	54528.00	370.94	-

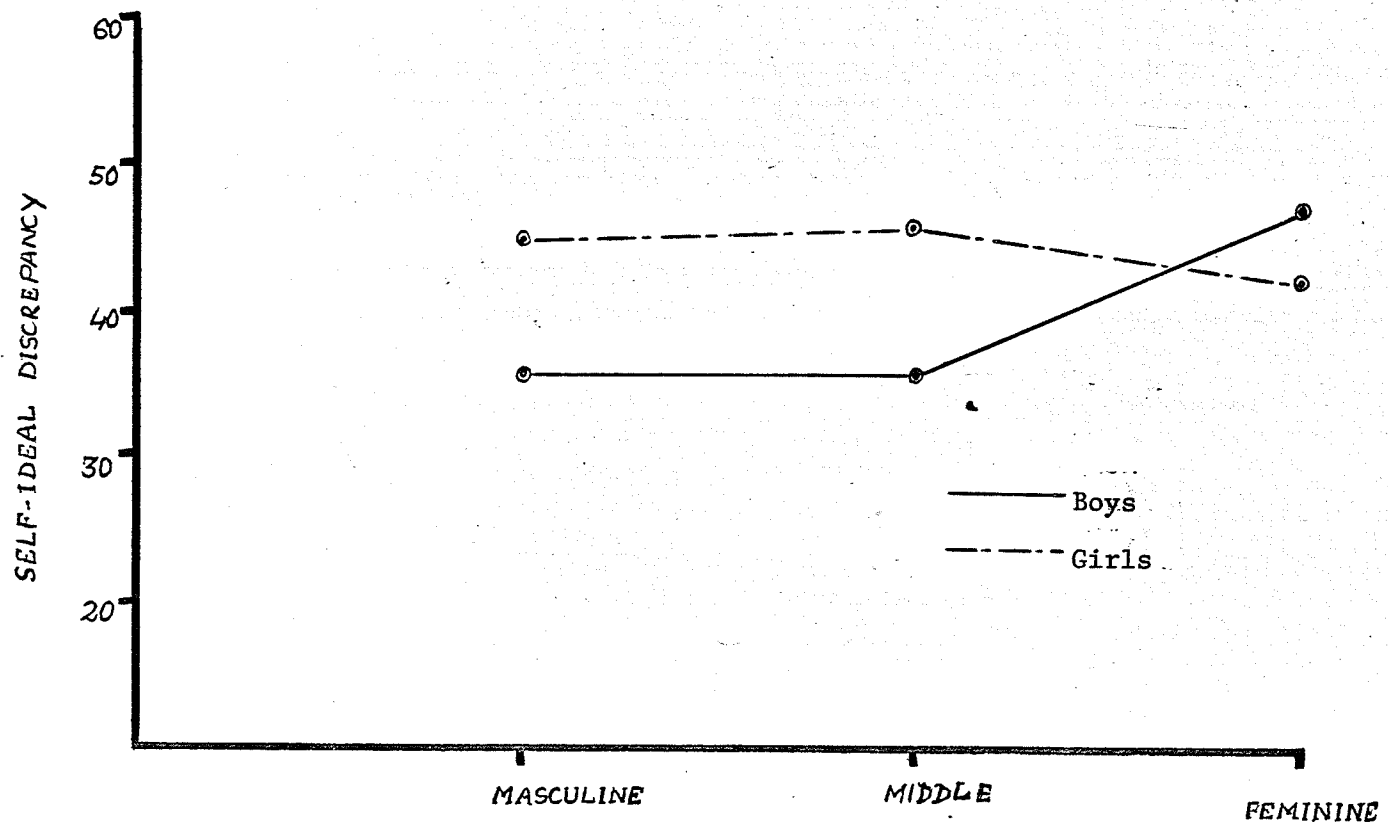


Fig. 5. Mean Self-Ideal Discrepancy Scores for Different Levels of Fe (Boys and Girls)

tion and self-ideal discrepancy.

A graph showing the distribution of scores on Security-Insecurity was plotted for boys and girls on the same axis, (Fig. 6). As shown in the figure, there was no difference in scores on the Security-Insecurity Inventory. However, both the frequency distributions are positively skewed, because of the way the items are worded, (Maslow, 1952; Sweetland & Shepler, 1953). The mean and SD for the scores on Security-Insecurity were 25.3 and 15.2 for boys and 24.9 and 12.8 for girls.

All the Ss were divided into five sub-groups according to scores obtained on the Security-Insecurity scale with respect to their sex groups. The sub-groups consisted of Ss falling within (a) 0-20 percentile; (b) 20-40 percentile; (c) 40-60 percentile; (d) 60-80 percentile; and (e) 80-100 percentile. To allow for equal Ns inter-level comparisons across sex-groups, twenty-seven Ss from the boys' group and one subject from the girls' group were randomly eliminated. A completely randomized one factor analysis of variance (Myers, 1966) was performed to test inter-group difference between levels of Security-Insecurity and absolute self-ideal discrepancy for boys and girls (see Tables 4 & 5). The F ratios were highly significant (i.e., $p < .001$ for boys and $p < .01$ for girls), thus indicating a high positive relation between levels of security-insecurity and absolute discrepancy scores. The between-level mean differences on security-insecurity scale in relation to the absolute discrepancy scores (self-ideal), were found to be more significant among boys than among girls (Fig. 7).

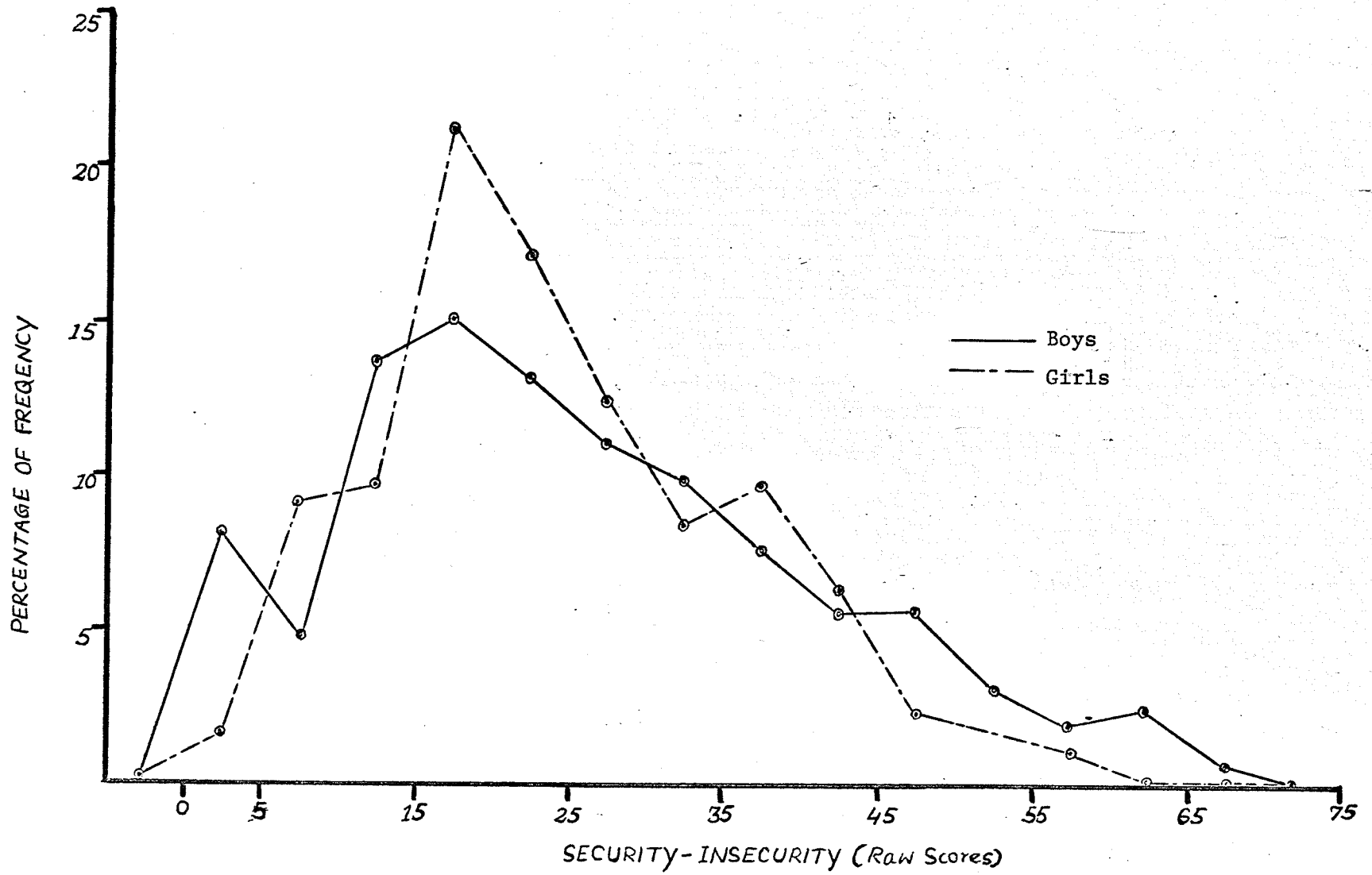


Fig. 6. Frequency Polygons for Raw Scores on Security-Insecurity Inventory (Boys and Girls)

TABLE 4

SUMMARY TABLE FOR COMPLETELY RANDOMIZED ONE FACTOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
TESTING INTER-GROUP DIFFERENCE (SECURITY-INSECURITY)
OF REAL-IDEAL DISCREPANCY FOR BOYS

SV	df	SS	MS	F
Total	149	66404.75	-	-
A (Between levels of Security-Insecurity)	4	19504.87	4876.22	15.07***
S/A (Within levels of Security-Insecurity)	145	46899.87	323.44	-

*** p <.001

TABLE 5

SUMMARY TABLE FOR COMPLETELY RANDOMIZED ONE FACTOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
TESTING INTER-GROUP DIFFERENCES (SECURITY-INSECURITY)
OF REAL-IDEAL DISCREPANCY FOR GIRLS

SV	df	SS	MS	F
Total	149	52183.63	-	-
A (Between levels of Security-Insecurity)	4	6485.93	1621.48	5.145**
S/A (Within levels of Security-Insecurity)	145	45697.68	315.15	-

** p <.01

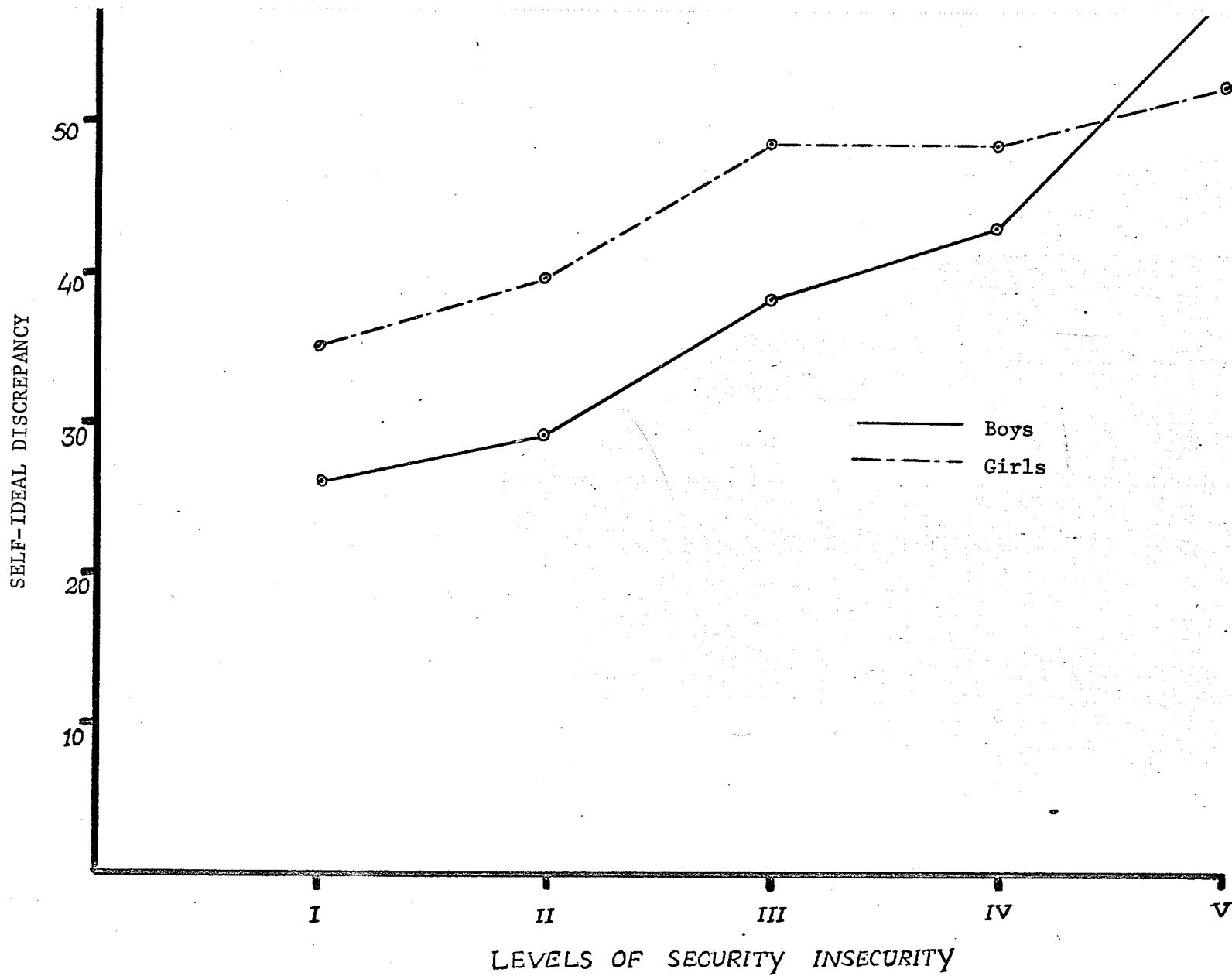


Fig. 7. Mean Self-Ideal Discrepancy Scores for Different Levels of Security-Insecurity (Boys and Girls)

Mean security-insecurity scores for lower, middle, and upper groups on the Fe scale were calculated for boys and girls. Graphs showing the between-level mean differences of absolute S-I discrepancy score scale in relation to scores on the Fe reveal no relationship between sex-role and feelings of security (see Fig. 8).

Finally, correlations between all the possible combinations of measures were obtained for the two sexes separately (Table 6). The five measures (i.e., Fe, Security-Insecurity, Real Self, Ideal Self, and Real-Ideal Discrepancy) rated a total of ten indices of correlations (Pearson Product moment correlations) for each of the sex groups. Five of ten correlations were found to be significant at the .01 level or higher in the case of boys; five of the ten correlations were significant for girls, three of the latter correlations were significant at the .05 level and the other two at the .01 level.

The results obtained (Table 6) tend further to support the results obtained through analysis of variance (Tables 4 & 5) and indicate thereby that the hypothesized relation between differential levels of Security-Insecurity may be related in some way to the self-ideal discrepancies.

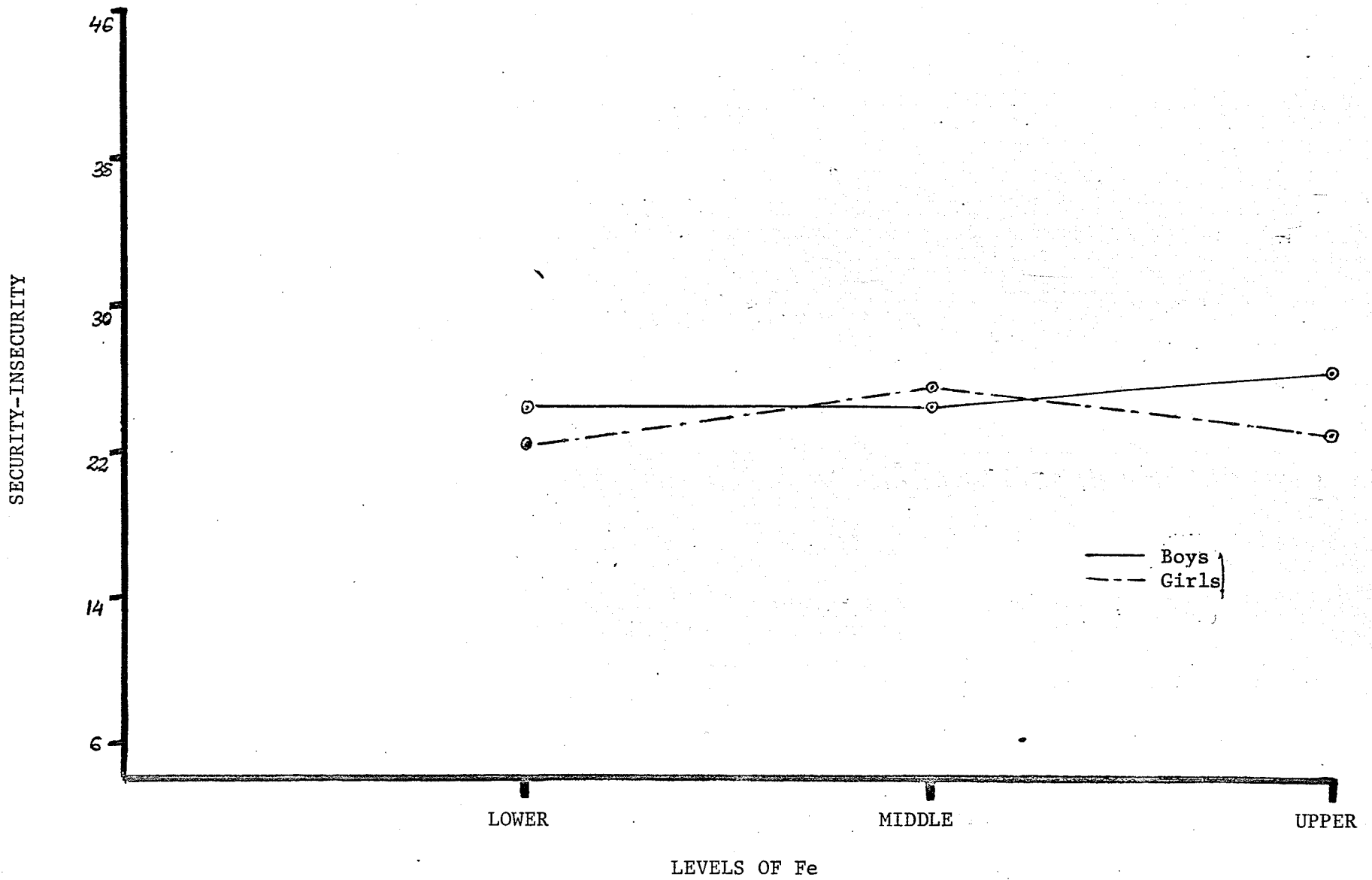


Fig. 8. Mean Security-Insecurity for Different Levels of Fe (Boys and Girls)

TABLE 6

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ALL POSSIBLE COMBINATIONS AMONG Fe, SECURITY-INSECURITY, REAL SELF, IDEAL SELF AND REAL-IDEAL DISCREPANCY FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

CORRELATIONS	BOYS	GIRLS
Security-Insecurity vs. Fe	.15	.02
Real Self vs. Fe	.06	-.03
Ideal Self vs. Fe	-.02	.07
Real-Ideal discrepancy vs Fe	.07	-.03
Real Self vs. Security-Insecurity	.50***	.20*
Ideal Self vs. Security-Insecurity	.02	.19*
Real-Ideal Discrepancy vs. Security-Insecurity	.41***	.29*
Ideal Self vs. Real Self	.33**	.05
Real-Ideal Discrepancy vs. Real-Self	.62***	.59***
Real-Ideal Discrepancy vs. Ideal-Self	-.46***	-.29**

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

*** Significant at .001 level

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Sex-role Identification and Self-dissatisfaction

The first hypothesis was, that, appropriate sex-role identification for adolescent boys and girls may tend to decrease the discrepancy between the ideal self and real self concept, and inappropriate sex-role identification may tend to increase such a discrepancy between the two. To test this hypothesis, a completely randomized analysis of variance with Fe as the independent and self-ideal discrepancy as the dependent variable was performed for both boys and girls. The F ratios obtained by analysis of variance (see Tables 2 & 3) failed to reach significance level. Also graph showing the mean discrepancy score for three levels of Fe (Fig. 5) indicates no marked relationship between the levels of Fe and self-ideal discrepancy.

The first hypothesis of the present study is based on findings in the area of sex-role identification, general adjustment level, and social approval. It has been found that inappropriate sex-role identification often leads to social disapproval (Gray, 1957) which in turn affects overall adjustment (Burchinal, 1956). Cameron (1963) found that inadequate sexual identification is often associated with psychological maladjustment and self-ideal discrepancy.

In this connection, Becker (1968) found that irrespective of biological sex, Ss (boys & girls) with more feminine interest (FB & FG) showed higher self-ideal discrepancy which he accounted for in terms

of greater need for social approval in the case of feminine Ss. On the other hand, irrespective of biological sex, Ss (boys and girls) with more masculine interest (MB & MG), because of their greater need for self approval showed low self-ideal discrepancy as measured by SAI. In other words, this study suggests that the presence of need for social approval may be an important determinant of greater self-ideal discrepancy.

A synthesis of the present hypothesis with the findings of Becker suggests that, in order for any of the four groups (MG, MB, FG, & FB) to show increased self-ideal discrepancy, at least the presence of two factors is highly essential. Firstly, there should be social disapproval for cross-sex identity, and secondly there should be a need for social approval which serves the basis on which the social disapproval is allowed to affect the general adjustment.

An examination of the present results in the light of these two conditions reveals that girls with masculine orientation (MG) because of their cross-sex identity should face conflict with social disapproval. But in this case, masculine interest has been demonstrated to be unconcerned with social disapproval and concerned with self approval. (Becker, 1968). Since Ss with masculine orientation have less need for social approval, the inappropriate sex-role identification for girls may not necessarily affect the overall adjustment, because affectivity of any factor largely depends on the need structure of the individuals on whom it is supposed to work. If the need for social

approval is great in a person, disapproval is likely to frustrate him more than a person whose need for social approval is less. Secondly, Western society seems to have a greater tolerance for girls who adopt masculine roles. These may be the two reasons why masculine girls (MG) inspite of cross-sex identity showed low self-ideal discrepancy.

Boys with masculine orientation (MB) do not show low S-I discrepancy because there is no cross-sex identity which would have resulted in social disapproval. Girls with feminine orientation (FG), though have greater need for social approval, are not in conflict with sex-role. This may be the reason for which feminine girls (FG) showed low S-I discrepancy.

Following the same line of argument, it seems that both sex-role conflict and desire for social approval are present in feminine boys (FB) which increases the chances of greater self-ideal discrepancy. The result, however, shows that the self-ideal discrepancy of this group is not significantly different from the rest of the groups.

However, such a negative result in the case of feminine boys (FB) may be accounted for in terms of the methods adopted for the analysis. In the present study all the Ss were divided into lower, middle, and upper feminine groups corresponding to 0-33.3, 33.3-66.6, and 66.6-100.0 percentiles on the Fe scale. The lowest one-third and highest one-third percentile groups were taken as illustrations of extreme masculine or feminine sex-role identification within each sex group. The middle group was taken in order to discover the nature of distributions in the middle range which may not always follow

linearity in which case one could not have concluded that relationship between high and low ends of the Fe scale are linear to that indicated by self-ideal discrepancy scores. In this connection, one may criticize that the present analysis could have defined masculine, middle and feminine groups by taking Ss falling in the 0-20, 40-60, and 80-100 percentiles on the Fe scale, thus defining the groups more distinctively in terms of psychological sex. Analysis of this kind may indicate that feminine boys show high self-ideal discrepancy. But such an attempt might not have served the present purpose of the study, which is mainly concerned with the question of relationship between scores on the Fe and S-I discrepancy. This should cover the whole range of Ss providing better insight into the relationship. A comparison of S-I scores of Ss falling on the two extremes of the Fe would have been more appropriate only when "comparison" was the sole purpose. The present study was not only concerned with the comparison of the two groups, but also intended to determine the extent to which psychological sex determines the S-I discrepancy, which is much broader in scope than the other one.

A close observation of the graph, (Fig. 5) reveals that there is a tendency among boys with feminine orientation (FB) to score high on self-ideal discrepancy than boys with masculine orientation (MG). On the other hand, girls with masculine orientation (MG) score somewhat similarly on the S-I discrepancy scale as do girls with feminine identification (FG). This may be due to the fact that inappropriate sex-role identification in the case of girls (MG) is not necessarily

disapproved of by the society as in the case of boys (FB). In modern Western society, feminine sex-role is less regulated, or less fixed, and therefore, more variable than masculine sex-role. For example, a girl can become a nurse, a doctor, a lawyer, a driver, a secretary, or an officer and may wear a skirt, blouse or even a trouser and shirt which reflects on greater variability of female sex role. On the other hand a boy is expected to choose his profession as a doctor but not as a nurse, as an officer but not as a secretary, wear trousers and shirt, but not skirt or blouse.

Of course, there are a few social roles which are not meant for females and are reserved exclusively for males. In many such cases the restriction for female entrants is based on the physical requirements of the work situation for which females may be less suited than in other situations. On the other hand, roles restricted for males are often due to social and psychological factors. For example, a male may be equally or even more successful as a secretary than a female as a laborer, but the social stereotypes associated with masculine roles may prevent a male from entering occupations typically associated with females.

Self-Dissatisfaction and Insecurity

The second hypothesis was based on the theoretical formulation of Maslow (1954) who thinks that an extremely insecure person expresses his insecurity in many ways, either by being seclusive and withdrawing if he is low in self esteem, or by being hostile and aggressive if he

is high in self esteem. It was assumed that both high and low self esteem express divergence from actual self in both positive and negative directions. If this assumption is valid, divergence in both directions from actual self means self rejection which has been repeatedly found to be associated with greater S-I discrepancy.

Such a positive relationship between insecurity and S-I discrepancy may be further explained in terms of Blatz's (1966) theory which is, of course, less empirical and more speculative. According to Blatz when a person is willing to accept the consequences of his actions, he is healthy and when he is acting in this fashion he feels healthy. Obviously, by "healthy" Blatz refers to a mental health which is freedom from anxiety and insecurity. Such a healthy person is willing to accept the consequences of his actions probably reflects on his acceptance of self, thus minimizing the gap between real and ideal self. Further, the Self Activity Inventory (SAI) has been demonstrated to be neither an unidimensional nor a multidimensional instrument (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1969), and therefore, it is all the more interesting that a positive correlation was obtained between security-insecurity and S-I discrepancy. One more thing could be pointed out here, that Worchel's definition of self-dissatisfaction is quite broad and general. It seems Maslow's security-insecurity operationally defines some aspects of Worchel's self dissatisfaction for which both the scales were so highly correlated. Therefore, feelings of insecurity may be a major source of self dissatisfaction.

Sex-Role Identification and Security-Insecurity

An attempt was made to find out whether Ss with predominantly feminine or masculine identification (inappropriate) would tend to show greater feelings of security or insecurity than those Ss who show appropriate identifications. For this purpose, the mean security-insecurity scores for lower, middle, and upper groups on the Fe scale were calculated for boys and girls. The graph showing the between-level mean differences on security-insecurity in relation to scores on the Fe scale reveals no significant relationship between psychological sex and feelings of security (Fig. 8). Therefore, it seems that a feeling of security is independent of psychological sex-role identifications (appropriate or inappropriate).

As discussed earlier, acceptance of same sex or cross-sex role identifications may not necessarily eventuate in great social disapproval. It may also be true that greater deviance is tolerated by society in the case of girls than in the case of boys. In this connection McCord et al. (1962) found that sex-role is more defined and restricted in lower economic group and primitive conservative cultures. They found that in middle class families of Western cultures no such rigidity is maintained as to the identification of sex-role. This may be the reason as to why Fe is unrelated to security-insecurity. The present study was done on college-going adolescents, majority of whom come from middle class families. Therefore, it seems that psychological sex identification is independent of feelings of security or insecurity.

urity for Ss who come from a stratum of society which makes large allowance for cross-sex identifications.

Statistical Interpretations:

a) Interpretation of Graphs and Tables

A few other analyses were done on the nature of the distribution of scores on different scales and comparisons were made between sex groups. Frequency polygons on the Fe score of boys and girls (Fig. 1) shows that the girls' polygon on the Fe shifted to the high end of the scale. The mean Fe scores 23.4 of girls differs significantly from boys' mean Fe scores 16.1, ($t < .001$) though the variabilities remain the same (3.94 for boys, and 3.43 for girls). Thus, the Fe scale as designed does successfully distinguish between boys and girls with predominantly masculine and feminine sex-role identifications. It further shows that while masculine identification would be predominantly present among boys, and feminine identification predominantly found among girls, yet the psychological sex-identification is not necessarily linked to the biological sex.

The frequency polygons for boys and girls were plotted for Real Self (Fig. 3), and Real-Ideal Discrepancy (Fig. 4). The distribution of real self seems almost alike for boys and girls with mean of 139.4 and SD 20.18 for boys and mean 140.5 and SD 17.80 for girls. The ideal self frequency polygon for girls tended to be leptokurtic. Boys' mean ideal score was 100.30 with SD of 16.80, and for girls the mean ideal score was 97.60 with SD of 12.02, which indicates that girls

possess slightly higher ideals than boys. The difference between these two means in ideal self, however, was not significant. In Worchel's study on college male students, the means for ideal and real self were 103.9 and 136.5 and the standard deviations on ideal and real scores were 15.2 and 17.7 respectively. Thus, the frequency distributions of the replicated male sample resembles closely with the range of the frequency distribution of Worchel's college sample.

The mean S-I discrepancy for boys was 39.2 with SD of 20.49 and for girls, the mean was 44.6 and the SD 18.6. The difference between these two means was significant at the .05 level ($t = \pm 2.25$). Greater S-I discrepancy in the case of girls may not necessarily mean girls are more self-dissatisfied than boys. Because it may be possible that girls may be less defensive. These two possibilities are examined and discussed later in this chapter.

Regarding the variabilities of both sex groups on their scores on the Fe, Security-Insecurity, real self, ideal self and S-I discrepancy, boys tend to be more variable than girls (see Table 1). For example, the SDs for boys' security-insecurity, real self and ideal self are 15.2, 20.18, and 16.8 whereas these are 12.8, 17.8, and 12.0 for girls. This indicates that with respect to their scores on the above variables the girls' group was more homogeneous than the boys' group. This may be partly accounted for in terms of the type of schools the Ss came from, and the socio-economic status of their families. Since no information on the latter was available, it was decided to concentrate only on the former. Fifty percent of boys came from

rural schools, 37 percent of girls came from such areas; thereby contributing to greater variability in boys. Since 54.9 percent of girls came from metro Winnipeg schools, they tend to be relatively more homogenous in their attitudes than the boys.

Frequency polygons for raw scores on Security-Insecurity were plotted for boys and girls (see Fig. 6). Like those of Maslow et al., (1954) and Sweetland and Shepler, (1963) the present curves were skewed in a positive direction which indicates a greater variability among insecure persons. This is probably due to the fact that security is often associated with normal personality which is more or less homogeneous and insecurity is often associated with neurotic personality which varies in several dimensions and kinds. The mean score on the Security-Insecurity for boys was 25.3 with SD of 15.17 and for girls 24.9 with SD of 12.80. This indicates that boys and girls do not differ significantly as far as insecurity is concerned.

b) Interpretation of Correlations

The correlation between real self and S-I discrepancy was .62 for boys and .59 for girls (both significant at the .001 level). The correlation between ideal self and S-I discrepancy was -.46 for boys and -.29 for girls (both significant at least at the .01 level). This confirms the theoretical assumption that the greater the ideal self image the greater will be the S-I discrepancy (positive correlation) and the less the real self image the greater the S-I discrepancy (negative correlation). However, real self tends to be highly corre-

lated with S-I discrepancy rather than ideal self both in the case of boys and girls. This indicates that real self contributes more to the discrepancy score than ideal self. Such findings seem to be theoretically relevant because ideal selves tend to be closer with social norm and hence relatively constant, whereas real selves are likely to vary from person to person. In a nut shell, it can be stated that both real self image and ideal self image contribute to S-I discrepancy and contributions of real self image is significantly more than the ideal self image.

The second group of correlation are related to scores on different scales of SAI and Security-Insecurity. The correlations between Security-Insecurity and S-I discrepancy was .41 (significant at the .001 level) for boys, and .29 (significant at the .05 level) for girls. In general, this indicates that feelings of insecurity is positively associated with S-I discrepancy. This relationship has already been established on two other occasions (see Table 4 & 5 and Fig. 7). The present correlations strengthen the findings in this direction. However, in the case of girls, Security-Insecurity seems to be somewhat less related with S-I discrepancy. This indicates that S-I discrepancy may be a function of insecurity and/or high ideal image or low self image. It has already been seen that girls tend to possess high ideals. Therefore, S-I discrepancy in the case of girls is more likely to be a function of self image and less a function of insecurity.

The correlation between real self and Security-Insecurity was .50 (significant at the .001 level). This indicates that lower self image or greater self devaluation is inversely associated with security. Ideal self did not correlate significantly with insecurity which indicates, in the case of boys, the feelings of insecurity is independent of ideal self.

In contrast, the strength of the above relationship in the case of girls are somewhat different. Both the real image and ideal self image tend to correlate with insecurity but both the correlations are barely significant (significant at the .05 level). Comparing the results of boys with that of girls, it seems that self devaluation in the case of boys is highly related to insecurity, whereas in the case of girls the correlation between these two was just significant. In other words, boys are highly self concerned and less concerned with ideals whereas girls are about equally concerned with both self and ideals, their concern with self in this respect is therefore somewhat less than that of the boys.

Empirical Interpretations

At a somewhat different level of interpretation, the less S-I discrepancy in the case of boys, could be interpreted in terms of two possible hypotheses, i.e., either the boys are more self satisfied or they are more self defensive than girls. Self-satisfaction is operationally defined as greater congruence between real self ideal self either by raising the former or by lowering the latter, whereas self

defensive behavior is defined as lowering ideal image as a defense against one's lower self image. In order that the first hypothesis could be demonstrated for boys' low S-I discrepancy the feeling of insecurity which has been found to be positively associated with self-dissatisfaction should be relatively low, but boys tended to be slightly more insecure than girls which rejects the likelihood of such an hypothesis.

While demonstrating the alternate hypothesis, it could be postulated that if boys are more self defensive, they are expected to be more insecure, because self defensive behavior is a sort of smoke screen under which they try to hide the reality part of their self. This was found to be true because boys scored relatively higher on insecurity than the girls. Further, insecurity was found to have high negative correlation (r being significant at the .001 level) with real self image, which means boys are likely to feel greater insecurity for their lower self image. This fact was further strengthened by the ideal self image being correlated and S-I discrepancy being highly correlated with insecurity. Therefore, a greater concern with self image and the greater correlation of insecurity with lower self image, in turn suggests, the likelihood of self defensive behavior in boys.

On the other hand, following the same line of argument, the greater S-I discrepancy in the case of girls may be either due to more self-dissatisfaction or due to less use of defensive measures, than boys. The first hypothesis could be demonstrated if feelings of in-

security are found to be high, which has been positively related with more self dissatisfaction. But girls in the present study tended to be slightly more secure than boys.

Demonstrating the second hypothesis, i.e., girls are less self defensive, it is expected that girls will be relatively secure and this fact has been evidenced in the present study. Again, to demonstrate that girls are less defensive it is expected that insecurity should not be related very closely with real self image and may be moderately related with ideal self image. The results show such evidences, that the girls are moderately concerned with both their real self and ideal self. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis, i.e., in the case of girls, greater S-I discrepancy results from lack of defensive behavior, is more likely to be accepted.

The S-I discrepancy score of boys and girls with relation to insecurity, real self, and ideal self suggest that the greater S-I discrepancy in the case of boys does not necessarily mean that they are more self satisfied. Rather it seems that boys tend to defend their real self image by minimizing their ideal self images. Neither is it true that a greater S-I discrepancy score in the case of girls characterizes them as more self dissatisfied. It seems so, because girls tend to be less defensive, which increases their S-I discrepancy.

Conclusions

In the present study it was finally concluded that in the case of adolescent boys and girls 1) the acceptance of inappropriate sex-role for both sex groups is independent self-dissatisfaction though

feminine boys (FB) tend to be slightly more self dissatisfied. 2) Feelings of insecurity was found to be one of the basic determinants of self-dissatisfaction. 3) Inappropriate sex-role identification was found to be independent of feelings of insecurity. In addition, it was found that 4) real self image contributes more to S-I discrepancy than ideal self image.

A cross sex comparison revealed that girls tend to maintain a higher ideal image than boys, though both the groups score somewhat similar on real self. As revealed by their scores on different scales, girls seem to be relatively homogeneous compared to boys, who showed greater variability. Finally, boys were found to be more self-defensive than girls while evaluating their real selves.

Limitations of the Present Study

Generalizability of the present findings, however, faces several problems which are essentially related to the instruments measuring self concept. A wide survey of all instruments measuring self concept, (Wylie, 1961) reveals that response set to the items of instruments may be affected by several factors. Firstly, the question of "how well the person can evaluate his real self and ideal self" is related to the problem of Ss insight into his own self. Secondly, the problem which is invariably true for all the self concept measures developed in a phenomenological frame of reference is that these instruments have never taken "unconscious self" in to account. However, here Wylie seems to contradict herself. If according to her, lack of in-

sight results in failure to evaluate one's conscious self, one cannot possibly evaluate his unconscious self which is more likely to suffer from "lack of insight." Thirdly, even more serious shortcomings may be attached to the "ideal self." One youngster may name as his ideal self qualities which are quite unrealistic, while another may report solid aspirations which he is actively striving to attain. Actually, when a person names an ideal which he has not attained but which he actively pursues, and confidently hopes to attain, he may express a far higher degree of self-acceptance than one who names ideals that he neither strives to realize, nor hopes to achieve.

Apart from all these, the problem becomes more acute with some aspects of discrepancy scores. It is still debatable whether the discrepancy score is determined only by the real self, or whether the ideal self also contributes to it. If so, what are their relative contributions? Crowne and Stephens (1961) have organized their methodological criticisms under four groups. According to them, the failure of self-acceptance research can be traced to neglect of several crucial psychometric and methodological principles - the unsupported assumption of equivalence of assessment procedures, the absence of any clear construct-level definition of the variables, failure to construct tests in accord with principles of representative sampling, and the question concerning the social desirability factor in self-report tests. The magnitude of the correlations between different measures of self concepts indicates that the prediction of scores on one of these measures from scores on another would be accompanied by a wide margin of error. Also definitional differences are undoubtedly reflected

in self-acceptance tests. A working definition, as Rotter (1954) has defined it, clearly represents an attempt to specify the parameters of the variables in question so that both generality and precise communications are gained. However, self-acceptance research appears to have lacked such definitions.

The last issue raised, concerns the extent to which self-evaluative responses are influenced by "defensive behavior: (Butler & Haigh, 1954; Zuckerman & Monashkin, 1957), "self-protective response tendencies" (Crowne, 1956) or "social desirability" (Edward, 1957; Kenny, 1956). These authors thus seem to reject, for some Ss at least, the assumption of validity of self report, although how this can be done within a phenomenological frame of reference is hard to understand. A person is likely to answer items in a way which he considers personally and socially desirable. Self-protective behavior refers to the unwillingness of some individuals to acknowledge self-dissatisfaction. Social desirability, as defined by Edwards, refers primarily to the scale value for any personality statement such that the scale value indicates the position of the statement on the social desirability continuum, or a tendency of the Ss to attribute to themselves, in self-description, personality statements with socially desirable scale values and to reject those with socially undesirable scale values.

In addition, it is also quite questionable to use total S-I discrepancy scores as an absolute measure. Like the present one, many studies use this total discrepancy score, which assume that a discrep-

ancy of a certain amount for one item is equivalent of the same amount of discrepancy on an item with entirely different content. As Wylie (1961) suggests if the multidimensional hypothesis proves to be correct, one might then seek to develop separate sub-totals for item clusters, which might then prove to be more efficient predictor variables than the single global prediction. However, such a possibility was checked by Schludermann and Schludermann (1969a, 1969) for Worchel's SAI, and the authors found that the items of SAI are neither multidimensional nor unidimensional. This suggests each item of SAI independently measures different aspects of self dissatisfaction. The items do not cluster as parts of an independent dimension within a multidimensional instrument.

The absence of data concerning the generality of self-acceptance makes research results even more difficult to interpret and the implications of the difference between a phenomenological approach to self-acceptance and a behavioristic approach to "self satisfaction or dissatisfaction" remains, indeed, private, in most of the cases.

In the present study, it was not possible to avoid many methodological shortcomings attached to the testing instruments. This is particularly true for Self Activity Inventory (SAI), where the response set might have been influenced by social desirability effect, or the effect of self defense. In this connection it is likely that S's own "misunderstanding" of self might have contributed to his score on self evaluation. By misunderstanding, here is meant, the incorrect percep-

tion of his own self which is supposed to be independent of the effect of "lack of insight" for self-evaluation. Lack of insight results in failure to evaluate self, whereas misunderstanding of self may misguide the S to evaluate his real self in a way which is different from the actual one.

Secondly, Maslow's Security-Insecurity has not been validated against any external criterion. Also, the methodological and theoretical aspects of the SAI, which was used as a measure of self-dissatisfaction are quite questionable, as pointed out by Wylie. Therefore, applicability of the results related to insecurity and self dissatisfaction must take these facts into account.

The applicability of the present findings, particularly relating to security-insecurity and self-dissatisfaction is somewhat limited to Worchel's definition of self-dissatisfaction. It is discussed earlier that many other self-dissatisfaction measures are found to be uncorrelated with SAI (Crowne & Stephens, 1961), which reflect on the definitional difference of the concept itself. Therefore, an extension of the second finding needs to be similarly tested against other self dissatisfaction measures. Such an attempt will not only explore the extent of generalizability of the second hypothesis but also will resolve the long standing question of external validity of several self-dissatisfaction measures with Security-Insecurity.

Suggestions for Future Research

An empirical interpretation of the sex difference on S-I discrep-

ancy revealed that boys tend to use more self defensive measures while evaluating self than the girls. It was also found that self-dissatisfaction per se is not the only determinant of S-I discrepancy until the contribution of self defensive behavior is properly controlled by some sort of analysis. Therefore, any research that uses S-I discrepancy as a measure of self-dissatisfaction must be aware of the role of self defensive behavior on S-I discrepancy to organize his interpretations in more meaningful way. This could be possibly done by defining self-dissatisfaction in terms of S-I score differently for boys and girls as was done in the present study and by developing some measure to separate the relative contributions of self-dissatisfaction and self defensive behavior to S-I discrepancy score.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

Self psychology, which has received a new momentum in the hands of phenomenologists, was acknowledged as one of the central concerns in psychology since the years following the 1950's. As a result, numerous tests have been developed to measure real self, ideal self and the real-ideal (S-I) discrepancy. It was realized that although many studies have been performed to make use of S-I discrepancy as an index of overall adjustment, very few studies have attempted to explore the possible determinants of such discrepancy itself.

With the relevant information at the background, it was hypothesized that inappropriate sex-role identification which may result in social disapproval, will lead to greater S-I discrepancy. Following the theoretical formulations of Maslow (1954) on self-esteem and self-concept and theoretical formulations of Blatz (1966), it was further hypothesized that a feeling of insecurity will increase S-I discrepancy.

One hundred and seventy-seven adolescent boys and 151 adolescent girls served as the Ss. The Femininity Scale (Fe) of the California Personality Inventory (CPI) Self Activity Inventory (SAI) of Worchel and Security-Insecurity Inventory (S-I) of Maslow were administered to all the Ss to measure femininity, S-I discrepancy and feelings of insecurity.

All the boys and girls were trichotomized separately as masculine,

average and feminine groups, corresponding to lower, middle and upper one thirds on the Fe scale. Completely randomized one-factor analysis with levels of Fe as the independent, and S-I discrepancy as the dependent variables, were performed for boys and girls. The F ratios failed to reach the significance level, which was accounted in terms of society's tolerance to cross-sex identity and need for self-approval for boys and need for social approval for girls. However, feminine boys tended to be slightly more self-dissatisfied than the rest of the groups.

The same types of analyses were performed with five levels of insecurity as dependent and S-I discrepancy as the independent variables. The F ratios were highly significant for both the sex groups which confirmed the second hypothesis. This positive finding was explained in terms of Maslow and Blatz's theory of insecurity. It was suspected that self-dissatisfaction as viewed by Worchel, includes feelings of insecurity to a great extent.

In addition, the nature of sex-role identification was found to be independent of feelings of security-insecurity.

All the possible correlations were performed for the scores on real self, ideal self, S-I discrepancy, Fe and security-insecurity. Significant negative correlations were found between real self image and S-I discrepancy. Also, ideal self-image was positively correlated with S-I discrepancy for boys and girls. This indicated that both real and ideal self images contribute to S-I discrepancy, though the contri-

bution of the former is relatively greater than the former. This confirms the hypothesis of Wylie (1961).

Cross sex comparison revealed that, in the case of boys, real self correlated highly with security-insecurity, which indicated that boys are more self-concerned. This fact was strengthened more by ideal self being uncorrelated with S-I discrepancy. In the case of girls, however, security-insecurity was moderately correlated with both ideal and real self image, which showed that girls are less self concerned and hence less likely to be self defensive. It was further found that girls hold a higher ideal image than boys. The significant difference of S-I discrepancy for boys and girls was examined in terms of self concerned behavior and level of ideal image for boys and girls. It was found that the greater discrepancy in the case of girls was due to less use of self defensive measures than for boys.

Finally, it was suggested that while interpreting the S-I discrepancy score the researchers should be aware of the sex differences on self defensive behavior. It was further suggested that precautions should be taken by developing some techniques to control or eliminate the contribution of self-defensive behavior on the S-I discrepancy.

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APPENDIX - I

TABLE SHOWING THE PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS DRAWN
FROM METRO WINNIPEG, RURAL AND SMALL TOWNS AND
MANITOBA AND ABROAD

Location of Schools	Boys N = 177		Girls N = 151	
	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Metro Winnipeg	77	43.5	83	54.9
Rural and Small Towns	90	50.9	56	37.0
Outside Manitoba and Abroad	10	5.6	12	8.1