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Sex-role stereotyping as characterized by selected samples of female and male high school coaches

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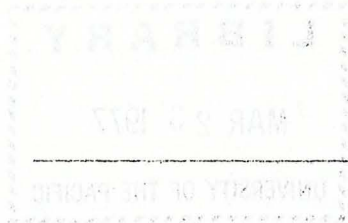
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SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AS CHARACTERIZED BY SELECTED
SAMPLES OF FEMALE AND MALE HIGH SCHOOL COACHES



A Research Study
Presented to
the Faculty of the Department of
Physical Education and Recreation
University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

by
Susan Carol Conard

June 1976

This thesis, written and submitted by

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Chapter 1

Introduction and Justification

The strength of a society's socialization process has made it difficult for individuals to change attitudes, customs, moral sentiments, and personal feelings. Generally, the effects of this socialization process have been most strongly felt in terms of appropriate individual roles and behaviors, and particularly, by the sex of the individual (Gerber, 1974).

In testing this concept, Coan (1974) instructed subjects to rank lists of adjectives according to how well they described themselves and according to how they would like to be. It was concluded that: (1) sharply differentiated sex-roles within a society acted as a barrier in the development of individuality; (2) psychologically, individuals who appeared best developed possessed both masculine and feminine characteristics, which contradicted the societal structure that men must be masculine and women must be feminine; (3) those whose psychological development was most deficient had failed to fulfill the stereotypic characteristics of either sex-role and were confused as to which sex-role with which to associate.

It has been reported (McGee and Sherriffs, 1957; Wylie, 1961; Broverman, et al., 1970) that a double standard of mental health existed because sex-role stereotyped characteristics and behaviors were different for men and women. Stereotypically, masculine traits were rated as socially desirable more often than stereotypically feminine traits. These

variances in feminine and masculine character traits paralleled the sex-role stereotypes prevalent in the American society.

In light of these findings, Broverman, et al. (1970) further developed the Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) sex-role Stereotypic Questionnaire in surveying psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers. A significant chi square analysis between masculine and feminine health scores supported the hypothesis that concepts of mental health for men and women varied among clinicians and these variances rated masculine traits as more socially desirable than feminine traits. It was suggested that since masculine traits were ascribed to healthy men more often than to healthy women, a powerful, negative assessment of women existed. Results also supported a second hypothesis that concepts of mental health for men and women paralleled sex-role stereotypes.

Grossman (1974) used Broverman's Stereotypic Questionnaire to determine whether sex-role stereotyping paralleled counselors' expectations of students. Mental health was determined by comparing ideal male and female scores with the neutral adult (sex unspecified) scores. The sex which paralleled the adult scores was regarded as having good mental health. It was concluded that:

The significant difference between the means of the male and the female instructions may indicate that a double standard concerning social competence, mental health, and maturity exists for men and women. It would appear that a healthy, mature, socially competent man is expected to possess the characteristics of the adult standard to a greater degree.
(p. 73)

Women's scores paralleled the adult scores implying good mental health, while men's scores were higher than the adult scores implying a relation between poor mental health and great societal expectations.

Assuming that sport symbolized the process of human actualization,

Metheney (1965) and Gerber (1974) stated that in contemporary society sport was identified as a heroic activity and was regarded as a masculine activity. The unfortunate social corollary between women and dedicated athletes was that they were probably not very feminine. The female athlete was then left with the dilemma of giving up her athletic pursuits so as not to threaten her feminine image, or pursuing her athletic career and possibly losing her feminine image in the eyes of others.

Culturally accepted feminine and masculine sex-roles have evolved with time and athletics in the American society has been considered a most masculine activity. Sport mirrored American society. Football prepared young boys to face challenges on the field that they would face in adulthood. They learned that their masculinity could be established by overpowering the opponent. The coach was the adult model that boys felt most secure in imitating. They learned that sport was one area where the male sex-roles were unchallenged in a mechanized world where male strength has become less and less important (Beiser, 1967; Fiske, 1972).

Females have attempted to enter sport already established as male territory. Hart stated:

If one aspect of sport is social experience, it seems appropriate to study it in total context and to note the differences of role and reaction in the variety of people taking part. (p. 291)

Sport has become more socially acceptable for women but attitudes are changing slowly. Female athletes have begun to take pride in their ability and have become more socially accepted. Until recently acceptable role models for young female athletes were few if they existed at all. Young girls have begun to model themselves after female athletes

publicized as feminine first and athletic second (Hart, 1971).

In light of these discussions, and because sport has played a part in the lives of most if not all high school students, and the coach has dealt directly with young men and women in the American society, there was a need to examine the attitudes of high school athletic coaches pertaining to sex-role stereotyping of various samples of males and females.

Statement of the Problem

General Problem

The general problem was to determine the relationship of sex-role stereotyping among a random sample of female and male coaches in Northern California as they perceived samples of males and females and male and female athletes.

Subproblems.

1. To determine significant differences between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of males as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.
2. To determine significant differences between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of male athletes as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.
3. To determine significant differences between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of females as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.
4. To determine significant differences between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of female athletes as measured by the

Stereotypic Questionnaire.

5. To determine significant differences among four groups of male coaches in sex-role stereotyping of male athletes, males, female athletes, and females as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.

6. To determine significant differences among four groups of female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of male athletes, males, female athletes, and females as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study the following terms were used as defined:

Female-valued items. Those items rated as more socially desirable for femininity by 70% of the respondents (Broverman, 1970).

High School Coach. An individual employed by a high school to coach one or more competitive teams sanctioned by the California Interscholastic Federation and listed in the 1974-75 California Coaching Directory (Barnes, 1975).

Male-valued items. Those items rated as more socially desirable for masculinity by 70% of the respondents (Broverman, 1970).

Socialization. The basic social process through which an individual becomes integrated into a social group by learning the group's culture and his role in the group (Theodorson, 1969; p. 396).

Stereotypic items. Those items rated as characteristic of one sex by 70% of the respondents in a previous study (Broverman, 1970).

Varsity athlete. An athlete who has competed in one or more high school interscholastic, varsity sport(s).

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made: all subjects responded honestly and conscientiously; the sample represented healthy, mature, socially competent adult coaches.

Hypotheses

Directional hypotheses were used when supported by the literature but null hypotheses were included for statistical purposes.

1. There is no significant difference between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of males as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. $H_0: MC_m = FC_m$

2. There is no significant difference between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of male athletes as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. $H_0: MC_{ma} = FC_{ma}$

3. Female coaches rate females as significantly more masculine than male coaches in sex-role stereotyping as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. $H_1: FC_f > MC_f$; $H_0: FC_f = MC_f$

4. Female coaches rate female athletes as significantly more masculine than male coaches in sex-role stereotyping as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. $H_1: FC_{fa} > MC_{fa}$; $H_0: FC_{fa} = MC_{fa}$

5. Male coaches rank male athletes, males, female athletes, and females with decreasing degrees of masculinity as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. $H_1: MC_{ma} > MC_m > MC_{fa} > MC_f$

6. Female coaches rank male athletes, males, female athletes, and females with decreasing degrees of masculinity as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. $H_1: MC_{ma} > MC_m > MC_{fa} > MC_f$

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

Research related to sex-role stereotyping was divided into three sections for review in this chapter: 1) traditional socialization into sex-roles, 2) personality research in sex-role stereotyping, and 3) use of the Stereotypic Questionnaire.

Traditional Socialization into Sex-Roles

Adapting and conforming to the needs of a team in sport may be similar to adapting and conforming to the needs of society. Because of these inter-relationships between sport and the American socialization processes, the following studies were important in understanding the impact of sex-role stereotyping in sport.

American society has recently become involved in a sex-role revolution in which traditional, narrow identities have been closely examined especially in physical education and sport. The male has been taught to value motion, power, logic, ambition, and aggressiveness, and the female has been taught that if she possessed any of those traits she would be negatively branded a tomboy (Wilson, 1972).

Chu (1972) stated that the social, economic, political, and philosophical as well as athletic capabilities of women have been only speculation to date. There were two potential causes for sex differences; biological and environmental-experiential. If biological differences existed, they needed to be documented in order to understand whether the

environment has created mythical biological differences or social pressures have obscured biological sex differences. Chu along with Wyrick (1971), Grebner (1974), and Felshin (1973), agreed that new concepts and definitions of the men and women in sport and society have begun to evolve and must not be ignored. In human actualization in the American society, male domination and female descrimination have been challenged as has the male definition of the sport ethic.

Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1960) found that sport as part of the socialization process began at a young age and had a big influence on boys and girls. They studied appropriate sex-role behavior through game choices of 402 elementary school children. It was found that 18 games were more frequently male while 40 games were more frequently female. Girls showed a preference for boys' play roles but accepted their own play roles also. Because girls accepted both male and female roles and boys accepted fewer male roles, these results indicated an expanding female role but no expansion of the male role.

Sutton-Smith et al. (1963) supported the findings of Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1960) in that athletes within the cultural tradition of the United States have encouraged a double standard of moral values based on the sex of the individual. Men have been encouraged to take part in team sports on the professional level while women have been permitted but not enocuraged to take part in individual sports on the professional level and team sports on the amateur level. The role of the athlete has carried positive status-building symbols of being fair, understanding, humble, and heroic. When the young boy chose the role of athlete it was with the understanding that with the decision comes status in terms of athletic prowess and personality attributes. Although legally

and economically the sexes were approaching an equality, cultural heritage has continued to insist on lower status for females than for males. These changes have caused unrest and disturbance of the American cultural pattern, but these changes will have great implications for the future, especially in athletics, presently dominated by men. American males felt they were losing their last male pedestal. The male athlete has enjoyed high societal status of the personality attributes ascribed to the ideal person. Team sports have been more socially acceptable for men with a lower status for individual activities. For women, team sports have maintained masculine overtones, preventing the cultural acceptance of the role of the woman athlete.

McClelland (1965) supported Sutton-Smith in that aggression and competence were stated as important personality attributes for men in American history, the business world, and athletics. Since athletics demanded attributes paralleled for males by society, the female athlete did not receive cultural approval because to excel, she had to possess many male-oriented characteristics.

Summary. Traditional socialization into sex-roles in sport paralleled traditional socialization into sex-roles in society. The desirable masculine character traits paralleled success, and therefore, a successful female had to possess the male-oriented character traits. Sport in particular was not encouraged for the female. More recent studies (Bem, 1974; Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith, 1960) have begun to reveal traditional sex-roles too limiting for males and females. The variances in sex-roles stemmed from biological differences rather than psychological differences. At early ages, boys were encouraged to participate in team sports and girls were directed away from sports

participation.

Traditional Socialization of Males

Beisser (1967) stated that the characteristics of masculinity and femininity were classified into three groups: primary sexual characteristics as a result of hormonal differences; secondary sexual characteristics in which boys' shoulders widened and facial hair appeared and girls developed breasts and wider hips; tertiary characteristics which were determined by society and handed down from generation to generation. Studies of different cultures found that primary and secondary sex characteristics were consistent throughout all cultures and were unalterable, but the tertiary sex characteristics varied considerably. In America, sports represented important seasonal rites for a boy to become a man.

Tiger (1970) stated that the purpose of contemporary sport was to prepare young men physically and psychologically for war. The intrinsic social result of male dominance through sport was the strong male bonding that resulted. Female involvement in sport was always secondary in importance to male involvement because males were superior to females in all athletic sports. Tiger explained:

Obviously some females do participate in team sports and do share many of the same emotions. But it seems clear that team sports are more important for the socialization of young boys; that male team sports are of greater interest than female teams; and that the syndrome of male team behaviour and male spectatorship bears some connection . . . to the hunting-male bonding factor in human history. (p. 121)

Mechanization replaced the need to hunt and thereby forced men to look to sport in establishing male superiority. Men needed occasions which excluded females, but sport has become one of the few remaining arenas

defined as specifically and exclusively male, and that has become not only exclusively male but also anti-female.

Fisher (1972) explained that sex-role development in early childhood has appeared to have a direct relationship on the eventual sexual orientation of the individual. Future heterosexual relationships appeared to have been predicated on assuming appropriate sex-roles. In sport, the individual has adopted games traditionally encouraged for his sex as a means for masculine identification. Cross-sex participation would eliminate sport as an identifying source for masculinity and may be a result of female encroachment on traditionally male activities rather than a merging of the sexes. Fisher stated:

The clear male identity is beclouded by feminine participation in traditional male activities. The claims could perhaps be better substantiated if certain sports were reserved for males and feminine participation in them was restricted.
(p. 122)

Fiske (1974) supported Beiser, Tiger, and Fisher by explaining that American football was not just a male game but an initiation into adulthood. Football has become a ceremony symbolic of warriors leaving for battle in history. This maturation process was important for the following reasons: football demanded hard work and dedication that created men; the individual learned to become self-sacrificing for the good of the team; player emotion was exposed, enhancing individuality; football ceremonies taught players to think quickly under pressure; football developed leadership; football allowed players to display socially unacceptable drives, such as physical contact, energy release, and warlike battle; football heightened the competitive urge; sexual identification was reinforced by demonstrating manliness, aggressiveness, and prowess; football provided role models for young boys.

Summary. Sport in the American society has remained as one of the few remaining proving grounds of masculinity for young boys. The symbolic ceremony that accompanied male sporting events established strong male-bonds and male superiority in preparation for war. Cross-sex participation would eliminate sport as an identifying source of masculinity and the male identity would be clouded by female participation.

Traditional Socialization of Females

As early as 1882, Spencer attempted to explain the dichotomy between the importance of exercise and the lack of participation in physical activity by girls for the following reasons: (1) the suspicion that a robust physique was undesirable; (2) rude health and abundant vigor were somewhat plebian; (3) insufficient strength to walk more than one or two miles; (4) timidity and feebleness were more ladylike. Men were not commonly drawn toward masculine women because relative weakness was an attraction necessary to protect superior strength. Competition served as a stimulus for the monotony of physical movement. Sportive activities impelled by instinct were essential to the bodily welfare for both boys and girls, and to forbid physical activity was to forbid the divinely appointed means to physical development.

Coffey (1973) traced the role of women through American history from 1890 to the present. In 1900, the woman's role was to marry and raise a family. Ideally, she was genteel, modest, shy, fragile, conventional, and subordinate to the opposite sex. In the 1920's, women suffrage began to open doors for women and women's basketball was on the rise. More masculine activities were becoming more acceptable for women. In the 1930's, the sportswoman became an educational as well as

a public issue. With World War II came the necessity for women to go to work and join the armed forces, and equal responsibility with men was the result. The period after the War had less influence on the female role as on the feminization of the male. Recently, traditional mores that competition was dangerous for women had not been substantiated. Yet, even though research (Metheney, 1965; Gerber, 1971; Coffey, 1973) discounted accusations that competition was dangerous for women, traditional mores perpetuated those beliefs.

Confusion persisted as to whether sports participation developed physically masculine traits in females or girls with physically masculine traits were attracted to sport. Compared with men, women had less muscular strength and lighter arms (Weiss, 1969); faster heart rates, slower reaction times, and less arm strength in relation to body weight (Weiss, 1969); smaller bones which ossified sooner (Weiss, 1969); narrower and more flexible shoulders (Weiss, 1969); a heavier and more tilted pelvis (Weiss, 1969); smaller lungs, smaller heart, lower blood pressure, and less endurance (deVries, 1966); shorter average height, more fat, less bone mass (Jokl, 1964; deVries, 1966; Weiss, 1969); lower testosterone hormone levels (Wilmore, 1971). These findings have had some affect on the acceptance of women in sport but traditional mores outweighed recent findings due to strong inbred cultural heritages.

Exclusion of women from sport was suggested by the following principles: the attempt to physically subdue the opponent through bodily contact (Metheney, 1965; Weiss, 1969); direct application of bodily force to a heavy object (Weiss, 1969); the attempt to move the body through space over a long distance (Weiss, 1969); face to face opposition where body contact might occur (Metheney, 1965; Weiss, 1969;

Sage, 1970). Acceptable sports for women were determined by the following qualities: the attempt to project the body through space in aesthetically pleasing patterns (Metheney, 1965); the utilization of a manufactured device to facilitate bodily movement (Weiss, 1969); application of force with a light object (Weiss, 1969); the ability to overcome resistance of a light object (Weiss, 1969). Skill and grace were far more important than strength and bodily contact (Metheney, 1965).

In discussing the role of physical activity in the development of the behavior patterns of girls, Harris (1971) and Higdon (1967) were unable to find any evidence that competitive sports may be harmful to females. Rather, stereotypes, prejudices, and misconceptions had limited female participation in vigorous, competitive physical activities. Culturally, the traits necessary for high level participation were assumed to be admirable in the male, and as a result, women who participated in physical activities risked their feminine image. Since our society had been structured around male leadership, the male population dictated what was masculine: aggressiveness; tough-mindedness; dominance; self-confidence; and willingness to take risks. The male population also reflected what was feminine: the opposite of aggressiveness, toughmindedness, dominance, self-confidence, and willingness to take risks.

In her research on personalities of women athletes in various sports, Malumphy (1971) revealed inconsistent results between sports and within sport groups. However, there seemed to be more similarities than differences between women athletes and the general college population and these differences seemed to enhance positive self-images in the women athletes.

Gerber (1974) closely associated sport with the ideal, dramatic processes of human actualization, but it was also clear that contemporary sport was regarded as heroic activity identified as very masculine and not acceptable for socialization into the female sex-role. Because sport had such strong masculine connotations, it became a vehicle in the United States for socialization into manhood through aggressive striving for excellence and achievement. The female athlete dealt with many paradoxes of femininity versus masculinity, equality versus inequality, ability versus fragility. Without the strong association with sex-role identity, sport would seem to connote desirable human qualities through the excellence of performing and voluntary enthusiasm, but the institutionalized behavior mode that the individual must conform to an image of masculinity had been perpetuated since the times of ancient Greece. As the socialization process into sex-role stereotypes continued, sport remained more acceptable for the male than the female. The qualities attributed to success in society were the masculine traits of competitiveness, aggressiveness, and the desire to achieve, which paralleled qualities necessary in sport (Gerber et al., 1974). Miller (1971) and Boslooper (1973) supported Gerber's statements that the qualities necessary for success in sport and business paralleled masculinity and therefore discouraged female involvement.

Klaff (1973) supported physiologist, Wilmore (1971) that there was no documented research which precluded female participation for psychological, physiological, or sociological reasons. Such opinions seemed to be based more on traditional customs than documented research. Strenuous physical activity for the well-conditioned female athlete resulted in good health. Cultural mores have changed from nonparticipation

for women to unlimited participation in a variety of sports. A more permissive identification process for girls allowed them to be feminine while being competitive, verbally rather than physically aggressive, or independent. Each individual possessed unique attributes, interests, and abilities, but when one or more trait(s) contradicted the cultural role expectation, the individual may have suppressed the traits. When the individual's ideal self-concept and cultural behavior models conflicted, feelings of low self-esteem resulted. However, when the individual's ideal self-concept paralleled the cultural behavior models, feelings of high self-esteem resulted.

Summary. Previous beliefs that sport was physically more harmful for women than men have recently been questioned. Research did not preclude female participation for psychological, physiological, or sociological reasons (Weiss, 1969; Jokl, 1964; deVries, 1966; Wilmore, 1971). Sports participation was discouraged for women, and women who chose to participate in sport did so with the understanding that their femininity might be challenged. American women have progressed from a limiting role of wife and mother to an increasing liberalization in traditionally male professions, as well as athletics.

Personality Research in Sex-Role Stereotyping

As early as 1936, Terman and Miles found a need to delineate more clearly masculine and feminine characteristics. Alleged differences needed to be documented and reliable instruments developed so that individuals could be scored and deviations from the mean for either sex accurately measured.

Parsons (1942) compared the irresponsible role expectations of

the youth culture in contrast to the dominant role expectations of the adult in the American society. A predominant characteristic activity of the male role in the youth society was athletics, which was an avenue of achievement and competition through games. The primary standards of adult achievement were the ability to accept boredom and inactivity in professional and executive capacities. In addition to athletic prowess, the typical pattern of the male youth culture seemed to emphasize the value of attractiveness in the opposite sex. On the feminine side, there was correspondingly a strong tendency to accentuate sexual attractiveness as a glamour girl. Although these roles tended to polarize sexually (for instance, as between the star athlete and the socially popular girl), on a certain level, they were complimentary. Both sex-roles emphasized certain features of a total personality in terms of the direct expression of certain values rather than of the instrumental significance of conforming to culturally traditional sex-roles. It was concluded that youth role expectations were inconsistent with adult role expectations causing confusion. The youth were irresponsible and had fun while the adult was expected to take boring, responsible jobs.

Mature and Hornberger (1957) studied 80 college men and women from one college dormitory in comparing the ideal self, actual self, and socially desirable self on an adjective checklist. The researchers found: (1) a highly significant correlation of the ideal self between mean sex group ratings on a 26 items ($p \leq .10$); (2) a significant correlation of the actual self between mean sex group ratings on 26 items ($p \leq .15$); (3) a significant correlation on social desirability between mean sex group ratings on 26 items ($p \leq .15$); (4) the ideal self, actual self, and socially desirable self were not significantly different when rated by

male subjects; (5) female subjects responded significantly lower when rating social desirability than when rating the ideal self and the actual self ($p \leq .10$). The authors suggested that female subjects were living up to their own ideals but their own ideals differed from what they felt society desired of them. Evidence was found to support these generalizations: (1) college students did stereotype actual and ideal males and females; (2) male stereotypes were more favorable than female stereotypes; (3) females seemed to apply an unfavorable attitude to themselves and women in general.

Bennett and Cohen (1959) conducted a major study to contrast personality patterns of men and women. The instrument contained 225 descriptive adjectives divided into groups for evaluating the following: the self-concept, the actual self, motivations, personal values, the subject's concept of the general social environment. Thirteen hundred subjects were randomly selected from the 1950 United States census figures for urban whites and were stratified into groups by sex and age. The level of significance for all comparisons was ($p \leq .01$). Self-Concept. An overall comparison of the item means for the two groups suggested that there was a high overall agreement in the self-concept between the sexes as follows: women felt they were understanding, sympathetic, loving, affectionate, and generous while men did not; modern day myths were out of line with actual feelings in that women felt inadequate in caring for themselves in times of stress and danger and men felt only a slightly greater ability, but nothing to suggest real power and fearlessness; men felt more competent, intelligent, and imaginative than did the women. Results suggested that the female self-concept was more clearly established than the male self-concept. Motivation. Personal accomplishment

was important for both sexes but more important for men while status achievement and recognition were unimportant for both sexes. Men desired success to a greater intensity than did women. Values. Women valued change more than men while men valued the stable and traditional point of view. The idea of being delicate held a negative appeal for both sexes. Traditional personality differences appeared in that men valued aggressive strength while women valued weakness. Men felt a greater value in being quiet than did women, while women felt a greater value in being sensitive, shy, and mental than did men. Values characteristic of women were more personal and self-centered with little concern for pressures of the social environment. On the other hand, masculine values were more hostile and demanding which suggested competition in an unpleasant environment. It was concluded that masculine thinking was associated more with a desire for personal achievement and accomplishment while feminine thinking was associated more with a desire for social love and friendship. In an ideal sense, masculinity and femininity might be defined along divergent lines but the similarity between masculine and feminine thinking cannot be overlooked.

Results of a study by Brim (1958), showed high positive correlations between IQ and masculinity for girls and IQ and femininity for boys. Brighter boys more often engaged in traditionally feminine activities than did lower IQ boys, while brighter girls more often engaged in traditionally masculine activities than did lower IQ girls. Brim explained these results in that the great influence of parents and teachers encouraged boys and girls to excel in tasks important in filling future roles. Women were expected to become housewives and men were expected to become professional athletes. Brighter students had to cross

sex-role lines because to succeed in a professional field, girls had to learn to be competitive and boys had to excel in skills and traits commonly associated with the opposite sex. This study suggested that sex-role stereotypes had a big influence on preparation for future roles and that crossing sex-role lines occurred most often with brighter children. Similar studies by Moss and Kagan (1958) and Oetzel (1951) supported Brim's findings.

Macoby (1966) discussed the results of Brim's study of cross-sex typing as a curvilinear relationship in personality varying from passive and inhibited to bold, impulsive, and hyperactive. Intellectual performance and personality were related on a curvilinear scale where the very inhibited and very bold were less intelligent than those in between the extremes. (Figure 1) Also, boys occupied different positions on the graph because they were more aggressive, more active, and less passive than the girls.

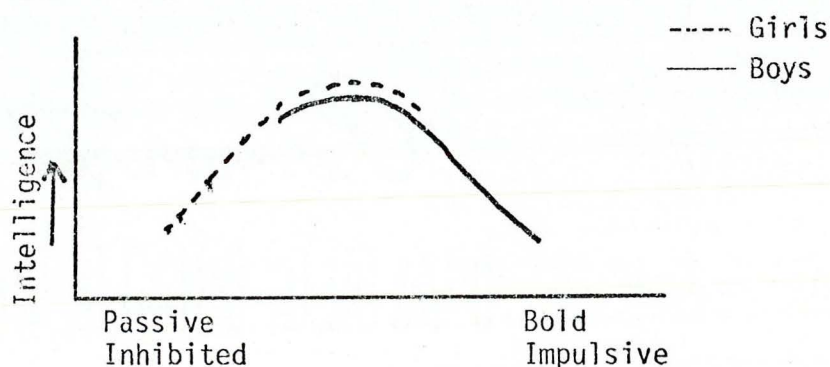


Figure 1. Intellectual Performance as Related to Personality

Therefore, girls needed to become less passive and inhibited while boys needed to become less impulsive and bold to function at an optimum level.

Bardwick and Douvan (1971) stated that stereotypic personality traits enhanced the socialization process by successfully maintaining the

traditional sex-roles of the culture. Idealized stereotypes of the normal female character traits were:

dependence, passivity, fragility, low pain tolerance, non-aggression, noncompetitiveness, inner orientation, interpersonal orientation, empathy, sensitivity, nurturance, subjectivity, intuitiveness, yieldingness, receptivity, inability to risk, emotional lability, supportiveness (p. 52).

Idealized stereotypes of the normal male character traits necessary for success were:

independence, aggression, competitiveness, leadership, task orientation, assertiveness, innovation, self-discipline, stoicism, activity, objectivity, analytic-mindedness, courage, unsentimentality, rationality, confidence, and emotional control (p. 52).

Ideal masculine roles paralleled success while ideal feminine roles did not. With change, contradictory old and new values coexisted but measures were based on the old traditional values.

Bem (1974) developed the masculinity, femininity, and social desirability scales of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) to measure masculine and feminine personality characteristics of 917 male and female college students. It was theorized that a narrow masculine self-concept might inhibit behaviors stereotyped as feminine and a narrow feminine concept might inhibit behaviors stereotyped as masculine, but an androgynous self-concept or a mixture of the feminine and masculine traits might allow individual freedom to engage in both masculine and feminine behaviors. Subjects responded to 60 masculine, feminine, and neutral personality characteristics on a seven point scale according to how well the characteristics described themselves. Results showed that both masculinity and femininity were correlated with social desirability ($p \leq .05$), while androgynous scores revealed a specific tendency to describe oneself in accordance with sex-typed standards of desirable behavior for males

and females.

Ogilvie (1970) compared personality profiles of twenty highly successful male and female collegiate swimmers using the Cattell 16PF and found that the personalities of males and females were very similar on the following traits: outgoing, bright, emotionally stable, self-assertive, and tended toward tough-mindedness and self-sufficiency. The highly skilled athlete, regardless of sex, tended toward ambition, organization, deference, dominance, endurance, aggression, and emotional maturity. In general, highly successful athletes were achievement-oriented individuals who derived great satisfaction in striving for perfection.

Summary. For many years, psychologists have attempted to define masculinity and femininity as a preliminary step in measuring normalcy and deviancy of males and females in the American society. Results of studies showed a trend from strongly polarized sex-roles, with masculinity on one end and femininity on the other, toward an androgynous personality made up of both masculine and feminine traits. Sharply differentiated sex-roles, it was suggested, acted as a barrier in the development of the individual. Desirable sex-roles for the child contradicted those for the adult because the child was permitted to be irresponsible while the adult had to be responsible to be successful. It was suggested that a happy medium was needed for the individual to function at an optimum level, and females needed to be less passive and inhibited and males needed to be less bold and impulsive. Several studies compared the ideal self, the actual self, and/or the socially desirable self (Matire and Hornberger, 1957; Bennett and Cohen , 1959; Bem, 1974) and concluded that;

(1) males and females responded significantly differently on some items and not on others; (2) male stereotypes were more favorable than female stereotypes; (3) males and females had favorable self-concepts; (4) traditionally feminine stereotypic characteristics paralleled failure while traditionally masculine stereotypic characteristics paralleled success.

Personality Research of Male Athletes

Slusher (1964) compared personality and intelligence characteristics of male high school athletes and nonathletes on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) and the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test. Results showed that male athletes scored significantly lower ($p < .01$) on femininity and intelligence than the nonathletes. With the exception of femininity and intelligence, responses among athletes were varied. Results supported Brim's (1958) findings that high IQ boys possessed more feminine character traits than low IQ boys.

Several studies have been done to determine the effects of sport on the social, physical, and mental well-being of the athlete. One such study was done by Dowell, Badgett, and Carl (1970), who studied the relationship between the self-concept, self-acceptance, ideal-self, and physical attributes of 574 college male freshmen on a self-rating scale, a physical fitness test, height-weight-age measurements, and an extra-curricular activity information form. Coefficient of correlation ratios and the analysis of variance were computed to determine significant differences ($p < .05$) in the self-concepts and deviations from the means in physical attributes. Significant results were as follows: (1) there was a positive relationship between physical prowess and the physical self-concept and a negative relationship between physical prowess and the intellectual self-concept; (2) there was a positive relationship between

strength and athletic achievement and the motivational self-concept; (3) physically unfit students had higher intellectual and emotional self-concepts than average or overweight students; (5) there was a positive relationship between physical fitness and physical self-acceptance and a negative relationship between underweight deviates and the ideal-self; (6) there was a negative relationship between physical fitness, and intellectual and ideal-self, and a negative relationship between strength and athletic achievement and the motivational self-concept; (3) physically unfit students had higher intellectual and emotional self-concepts than physically fit students; (4) underweight students had lower self-concepts than average or overweight students; (5) there was a positive relationship between physical fitness and physical self-acceptance and a negative relationship between underweight deviates and the ideal self; (6) there was a negative relationship between physical fitness, and intellectual and ideal-self, and a negative relationship between strength and ideal-self.

Kroll (1970) studied personality differences between 81 football players, 141 gymnasts, 94 wrestlers, and 71 karate participants on the Cattell 16PF Questionnaire. A multivariate procedure was used to evaluate the football players, wrestlers, gymnasts, and karate participants. Significant differences ($p \leq .01$) were found between the four groups as follows: (1) football and wrestling attracted athletes with similar personality profiles; (2) gymnasts and karate participants were more self-sufficient, reserved, and detached than wrestlers and football players; (3) gymnasts were significantly more shy than football players and wrestlers; (4) football players were more group-dependent while karate participants and gymnasts were more self-sufficient; (5) gymnasts

were more intelligent, relaxed, weak in super-ego strength, and serious about life while karate participants were more tense, conscientious, and independent. Generally, 16PF Test profiles of football players and wrestlers were not significantly different, but varied significantly from the profiles of gymnasts and karate participants. Profiles between gymnasts and karate participants varied significantly. Results supported the hypothesis that personality testing helped in understanding the psychological benefits of sport. The socialization of men into sports, which confirmed their masculinity, was consistent with the traditionally more masculine team sports.

Schendel (1970) again supported the importance of sport as a means of identifying masculine character traits in studying changes in psychological characteristics of 91 male high school athletes and non-participants on the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) over a three year period. The t -test of differences between uncorrelated means ($p < .05$) was used. The following changes were found: (1) outstanding athletes became more outgoing, ambitious, hard-headed, active personalities over the three year period; (2) athletes progressed in self-acceptance and dominance over the three year period while the nonparticipants did not; (3) athletes scored significantly higher on dominance, capacity for status, sociability, self-acceptance, socialization, achievement via independence, and intellectual efficiency than nonparticipants.

Summary. Athletics was positively associated with physical fitness, physical self-acceptance, physical achievement, motivation, and masculinity. Studies of male athletes reported that male athletes rated themselves as significantly less intelligent than nonathletes (Slusher,

1964; Dowell, Badgett, and Carl, 1970). All studies supported the theory that males were socialized into the traditionally masculine team sports which confirmed their masculine superiority. Sport played a significant role in clarifying what was masculine for boys and men.

Personality Research of Female Athletes

Hart (1963) had 200 freshmen and sophomore college women athletes rank desirable sports for women and results were as follows: professional sports careers were not recommended even for the highly skilled girl; track and field participation was strongly discouraged; sports recommended with aesthetic considerations, social implications, and fashions for women were tennis, swimming, ice skating, diving, bowling, skiing, and golf, in that order. None of these sports had strong masculine identification.

Brown (1965) used a semantic differential to determine attitudes of college men and women toward the feminine girl, the girl athlete, the cheerleader, the sexy girl, the twirler, the girl tennis player, the girl swimmer, the girl basketball player, the girl track athlete, and the girl with high grades on a self devised questionnaire. Results showed clear stereotyped differences between each of the roles. Cheerleaders scored closest to the traditionally feminine ideal while none of the sport roles paralleled the perceptions of the feminine girl. Differences were also found between males and females in role perceptions. Results implied a negative attitude toward the traditionally feminine ideal by the female athlete.

Malumphy (1966) studied participation in competitive sports and its effects on the feminine image or role of college women. Subjects were divided into four groups: team sport participants, individual sport

participants, combined team and individual sport participants, and sport nonparticipants. Combined results of the Cattell 16PF and a self devised Personal Information Questionnaire indicated that the groups were significantly different ($p \leq .05$) on 14 personality dimensions out of a possible 23. It was suggested that sport selection and nonparticipation were based on the personality of the individual. Sex-role stereotyping, therefore, existed in competitive sports participation. Subjects felt that individual sport participation enhanced their femininity, and team sport competitors felt that sport participation did not necessarily enhance their femininity, but was becoming more culturally acceptable. Girls who chose to participate in sports did so even though they felt that it would not enhance their femininity.

Harres (1968) studied attitudes of college men and women toward intensive athletic competition for girls and women. An attitude scale was developed from the McGee and the Heck and Smith attitude scales which included 62 statements regarding physical development, personality development, social-cultural factors, and mental-emotional factors. Results of the study were as follows: (1) there was no significant difference between attitudes of men and women concerning the desirability of athletic competition for girls and women; (2) participation in athletic competition formed more favorable attitudes toward competition for girls and women; (3) the wide range of scores indicated that considerable differences of opinion ($p \leq .05$) existed concerning the desirability of athletic competition for girls and women.

Male attitudes toward women's athletic competition were studied to determine attitudes of 180 college men toward women's competition. The research instrument consisted of 30 items on a modified Likert scale.

Results showed that attitudes between male physical education majors and the general male population toward women's athletic competition did not differ significantly. Mean scores represented a definite positive attitude toward women's competition, although when asked to rate acceptable sports for women, college males preferred female participation in individual sports (DeBacy, Spaeth, and Busch, 1970).

Landers (1970) used the masculinity-femininity scale from the MMPI and the Gough Scale of Psychological Femininity to compare prospective female physical educators and female education majors. The instruments used asked questions related to traditional sex-role stereotypes. Subjects were analyzed using the two-tailed t -test for matched groups. Results as defined by the MMPI showed significantly lower and less feminine scores ($p \leq .01$) for physical education majors than for education majors. Education majors were significantly more feminine ($p \leq .05$) than physical education majors on these items: more restrained and cautious, more religious. It was concluded that results were consistent in showing physical educators and athletes to be less feminine as determined by this study than other groups but reasons for differences were unclear.

Sherriff (1971) studied high school males and females and their parents to determine how society feels about the female athlete and femininity. On a self devised questionnaire, subjects agreed that physical activity was better suited to the physical make-up of the male than the female. Fifty percent of the high school girls believed that girls who participated in intensive competitive programs developed masculine mannerisms and attitudes. Fifty percent of the boys felt that female athletes were not socially accepted by their peers and gained no advantage by their identification with an athletic team.

Physical educators have long been concerned with the relationship between femininity and women's sports and the issue remains unresolved (Small, 1973). The major problem was the difficulty in ascribing a feminine aura to an institution steeped in male heritage. The author attempted to compare feminine role perceptions of college female team and individual sport varsity athletes and non-athletes. Since feminine role attitudes have been undergoing a great deal of scrutiny and change, traditional sex-role values have held declining significance. Results showed no differences in feminine role perceptions of the self between athletes and non-athletes, but female non-athletes perceived the average woman as desirable while female athletes did not.

Wilson (1974) compared the beliefs of women physical education majors and home economics majors about themselves and beliefs of how they would be perceived by general education students. All subjects had favorable self-evaluations on the 100 Adjective Checklist Self-Favorability Scale. The following results were significant ($p \leq .01$): (1) male and female general education majors evaluated women in their own major significantly more favorably than they did women with other majors; (2) female general education majors were significantly more favorable toward women in physical education and home economics than were male general education majors. It was concluded that women in physical education had positive self-concepts and there was supportive evidence that generalized others did not hold women physical educators in low esteem. Results suggested that women physical educators rid themselves of preconceived, artificial concerns of stereotyped concepts of femininity. These results were supported by Vinake (1957) and Gerber et al. (1974) in previous research which concluded that people did stereotype groups to

which they belonged and that these stereotypes were powerful forces in establishing concepts of self-esteem.

Widdop (1975) investigated personality profiles between 251 college female teacher education majors and college female physical education majors on the Cattell 16PF, the IPAT Anxiety Scale, the EPPS, and the CPI tests. A discriminant function analysis program was run to determine significant differences between groups. Significant results ($p \leq .05$) were as follows: (1) physical education women ranked higher on active, ambitious, outgoing, warm-hearted, worldly, conscientious, imaginative, self-sufficient, self-esteem, self-concept, dominance, leadership, aggression, confidence, enthusiasm, and talkative in that order than did education majors; (2) physical education majors scored lower on socially inhibited, organizational ability, sympathy, in that order than did education majors. Results indicated significantly strong differences in personality between women physical education students and women general education students.

Balazs (1975) studied the life histories of 24 female Olympic champions to determine psychological and social driving forces behind outstanding achievement in sport. The instruments used were the EPPS and a self-devised Personal Data Questionnaire (PDQ). Success in sports required a display of competence, self-reliance, and willingness to take risks, all of which were admired in American men. Culturally, male role expectations have differed from those of the female. Results were as follows: all subjects had an early, strong drive to achieve, there was a high positive correlation between achievement and self-esteem, athletes had positive attitudes toward life and enjoyed what they were doing. Therefore, the author concluded that women in athletics showed many of

traditionally male character traits necessary to excel in sport.

Duquin (1975) investigated attitudes of female athletes and nonathletes toward physical activity by reflecting sex neutral motivations and masculine motivations for physical activity using a self-devised questionnaire. The t -test for unequal variances was used ($p < .001$). Significant differences between female athletes and nonathletes were found in all eight masculine motivations. Female athletes scored higher than nonathletes on competitive, vertigo, health/fitness, physical efficacy, and social. It was concluded that because sports participation had culturally been viewed as male sex-type activity and was associated with masculine character traits, females in sport adopted those character traits without necessarily rejecting the self-perceived feminine character traits which increased their potential for an androgynous self-concept.

Summary. Results of studies on women in sport were contradictory in determining desirability of sports participation. In general: female participation in individual sports was more favorable than team sport participation; women rated female sports participation as more acceptable than did men; female athletes possessed many typically masculine traits and fewer feminine traits than most women; high level competition was discouraged but lower level competition for women was more acceptable; gains from physical activity were social and mental more so than physical; female athletes had a high level of self-esteem and a strong desire to achieve.

Studies Using the Stereotypic Questionnaire

Rosenkrantz, Bee, Vogel, Broverman, and Broverman (1968) developed the Stereotypic Questionnaire used in this study to compare the

self-concept with differentially valued sex-role stereotypes of male and female college students. Originally, the Stereotypic Questionnaire consisted of 122 bipolar traits and was limited to 38 significant stereotypic traits according to a minimum 70% response that each trait was stereotypically associated with one sex. Each subject responded to the Questionnaire three times according to three sets of instructions: male instructions, female instructions, and self-concept instructions.

Results supported the hypotheses that: (1) college men and women did have sex-role stereotypes that were commonly agreed upon; (2) college men and women agreed that stereotypically masculine traits were more socially desirable than stereotypically feminine traits; (3) self-concepts of subjects paralleled their respective sex-role stereotypes.

Broverman et al. (1970) used the Stereotypic Questionnaire in an attempt to duplicate Rosenkrantz' findings using 79 clinically trained psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers. It was hypothesized that character traits of a mature, healthy, socially competent individual would differ according to the sex of the subject and that these results would parallel the stereotypic sex-role differences found in the Rosenkrantz study. The three sets of instructions used were; male instructions, female instructions, and adult (sex unspecified) instructions, which were used as the standard for determining health scores. The z score adaptation table showed no significant differences between female and male clinicians in rating the healthy adult ($p \leq .01$), the healthy male ($p \leq .01$) and the healthy female ($p \leq .01$). Also, clinicians had varying concepts of healthy men and healthy women, which paralleled the sex-role stereotypes prevalent in society. Adult and masculine scores were not significantly different, while adult and feminine scores

were significantly different ($t=3.33$, $p \leq .01$), which confirmed the hypothesis that a double standard of health did exist for men and women among clinicians. These differences paralleled the sex-role stereotypes prevalent in society.

Using the Rosenkrantz Stereotypic Questionnaire, Grossman(1974) studied high school, community college, and college counselors in comparing counselors' expectations of a healthy, mature, socially competent individual and sex-role stereotyping of males and females. Results on the 38 bipolar items were as follows ($p \leq .05$): (1) there was no significant difference between the androgynous adult standard and the female standard; (2) the adult, male and female ideal traits were all on the same side of each bipolar item; (3) the male was expected to possess the same traits as the androgynous adult but to a significantly higher degree on some items; (4) counselor responses at different educational levels did not differ; (5) there was no significant difference between male and female responses. It was concluded that counselors at all educational levels were flexible in changing traditionally stereotypic attitudes toward females and males.

Summary. Rosenkrantz developed the Stereotypic Questionnaire from an original pool of 122 traits. Thirty-eight items were termed stereotypic because there was a 70% agreement by respondents. Broverman used the Stereotypic Questionnaire again and found results were consistent with the previous study as follows: (1) there were no significant differences between male and female respondents in rating adults, males, and females; (2) masculine sex-role stereotypes paralleled adult (sex unspecified) responses making masculine traits more socially desirable than feminine traits; (3) a double standard of health existed for men and

women. Grossman used the Stereotypic Questionnaire in studying counselors and found results consistent with previous studies with one exception: the adult (sex unspecified) responses paralleled feminine sex-role stereotypes making feminine traits more socially desirable than masculine traits with much greater expectations of the male.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

In order to determine sex-role stereotyping between male and female coaches among the ideal healthy, mature, socially competent male, female, male athlete, and female athlete, the Rosenkrantz (1968) Stereotypic Questionnaire was selected.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to determine the feasibility of having each subject respond to the Stereotypic Questionnaire in two parts. Twenty male or female subjects were randomly selected at the annual state California Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (CAHPER) Conference. All subjects were asked, "would you fill this out for me please?." Ten subjects received the female athlete instructions first and the female instructions second. The other ten subjects received the female instructions first and the female athlete instructions second. A cover letter accompanied the Questionnaire so no verbal conversation was necessary. Results were as follows; (1) no significant difference was found in the responses to the female questionnaire when completed before and after the female athlete questionnaire; (2) a significant difference ($p \leq .05$) was found in the responses to the female athlete questionnaire when completed before and after the female questionnaire. The following comments were given when subjects were asked if their responses on the second part of the Questionnaire were influenced by the responses on the first: went back and changed responses

in part one, thought of the first individual as an athlete and responded similarly on the second part, read the entire Questionnaire first and was affected by the dichotomy, tried to remember marks on the first part, assumed the female was a nonathlete and responded as such.

Results of the pilot study revealed that responses on part two were influenced by responses on part one, and it was therefore concluded that the Stereotypic Questionnaire would be mailed with one set of instructions: male, male athlete, female, or female athlete.

Subjects

The population at hand consisted of high school coaches from three northern California Interscholastic Federation (CIF) sections, and was stratified (Hubbard, 1973) by sex. Male coaches were randomly selected with replacement (Weber and Lamb 1970) from a list of all of the male coaches in the North, North Coast, and Sac-Joaquin CIF sections listed in the 1974-75 California Coaching Directory (Barnes, 1975). Female coaches were randomly selected with replacement (Weber, Lamb, 1970) from a list of all of the female coaches in the North, North Coast, and Sac-Joaquin CIF sections listed in the 1974-75 California Coaching Directory (Barnes, 1974). Questionnaires were arranged alternately with male, female, male athlete, and female athlete instructions and put in envelopes in the order in which they were selected. Questionnaires were mailed to 240 coaches as follows: 1) thirty male coaches received male instructions; 2) thirty male coaches received male athlete instructions; 3) thirty male coaches received female instructions; 4) thirty male coaches received female athlete instructions; 5) thirty female coaches received male instructions; 6) thirty female coaches received male

athlete instructions; 7) thirty female coaches received female instructions; 8) thirty female coaches received female athlete instructions.

Each letter included: a cover letter (Appendix) which explained the purpose of that set of instructions but did not explain that four sets of instructions would be compared; a stamped, self-addressed return envelope; an offer to send a copy of the survey results to the respondent.

A small cut was made in the side of each Questionnaire so that follow-up letters could be sent to subjects not responding, but each respondent was assured of complete anonymity.

Each coach received one of the following four sets of instructions: (1) "We would like to know something about what coaches expect other people to be like. Imagine that you are going to meet someone for the first time, and the only thing that you know in advance is that this person is a mature, healthy, socially competent adult male. Circle one number that best describes that person."; (2) "We would like to know something about what coaches expect other people to be like. Imagine that you are going to meet someone for the first time, and the only thing that you know in advance is that this person is a mature, healthy, socially competent adult male athlete. Circle one number that best describes that person."; (3) "We would like to know something about what coaches expect other people to be like. Imagine that you are going to meet someone for the first time, and the only thing that you know in advance is that this person is a mature, healthy, socially competent adult female. Circle one number that best describes that person."; (4) "We would like to know something about what coaches expect other people to be like. Imagine that you are going to meet someone for the first time, and the only thing that you know in advance is that this

person is a mature, healthy, socially competent adult female athlete.

Circle one number that best describes that person."

Instrument

✕ The instrument used in this study was the Stereotypic Questionnaire developed by Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) to measure the relationship of the self-concept and sex-role stereotyping in male and female college students. The Stereotypic Questionnaire has since been used in similar research by Broverman et al. (1970), Garman (1973), and Grossman (1974). ✕ Of an original pool of 122 items selected by the researchers as possible stereotypic traits, college men and women responded similarly to the now remaining 38 items at least 70% of the time. These 38 items were therefore referred to as stereotypic items (Rosenkrantz et al. 1968). Twenty-seven items were rated as typically male-valued items and 11 items were rated as typically female-valued items by the college students (Appendix). Each of the 38 stereotypic items appeared on the Stereotypic Questionnaire with a six-point scale as follows: very talkative 3 2 1 1 2 3 not at all talkative; not at all aggressive 3 2 1 1 2 3 very aggressive. ★ For scoring purposes, the scale was converted to a 1 2 3 4 5 6 scoring system where one was typically feminine and six was typically masculine. ★

Validity

Construct validity. Construct validity was defined as the ability of the instrument to distinguish between two groups known to be different for the variable under study (Hubbard, 1973). ✕ Rosenkrantz (1968) established construct validity by comparing responses on the Stereotypic Questionnaire between men and women college students. ✕ A close agreement was found between men and women college students.

Concurrent validity. Concurrent validity was defined as having a high correlation between current instrument and previous instrument which has been proven to be valid (Hubbard, 1973).~~x~~ Concurrent validity of the Stereotypic Questionnaire was established by Broverman (1970) who studied clinicians in comparing results with those of Rosenkrantz (1968) who studied college students;~~x~~

A counterindication is that the clinicians' concepts of health for a mature adult are strongly related to the concepts of social desirability held by college students. (Broverman, p. 323)

Broverman established concurrent validity by repeating Rosenkrantz' results.~~x~~

Reliability

Test-retest reliability. Test-retest reliability was defined as the consistency of the instrument when used a second time (Hubbard, 1973).~~x~~ Test-retest reliability was established by: Rosenkrantz (1968) in comparing responses of male and female college students on the 122-item questionnaire. Of the original 122 items, male and female college students responded similarly on 38 items ($r = .70$), and the remaining 84 items were removed from the questionnaire. No significant differences between responses of males and females were found and significantly higher demands on the characteristics for the male than the female was found. ~~x~~

Data Analysis

Scoring. Point values were assigned to each character item where one was the typically feminine pole and six was the typically

masculine pole. On the 38 item Stereotypic Questionnaire, a total score of 38 represented the extreme feminine pole and a total score of 228 represented the extreme masculine pole. Raw scores for each subject were tallied.

The primary analysis was a completely randomized factorial design (CRF - 24) with sex of coach as one variable and instructions as the other. Mean scores for the four sets of instructions: males; females; male athletes; and female athletes were computed and plotted according to the sex of the respondent. The CRF - 24 was used to determine significant differences in coaches' responses among the four sets of instructions, and between male and female coaches' responses for each set of instructions. The CRF - 24 was appropriate for use in the study because it allowed analysis of the four sets of instructions and their interactions with one procedure. Upon finding a significant F ratio through the CRF - 24 analysis, Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD), a posteriori, test was used to determine the specific location of significant differences among the varying instructions.

Additionally, a significant F ratio allowed use of a simple effects analysis of variance to determine whether significant differences between male and female coaches' responses to the varying instructions did exist (Kirk, 1968).

Chapter 4

Presentation, Treatment, and Analysis of Data

This chapter includes the data gathered from the Stereotypic Questionnaire and discussions of the treatment and analyses. The data represent results from the femininity-masculinity scale of the Stereotypic Questionnaire for each subject. Mean masculinity scores are presented in Figure 2.

Data Analysis

A CRF-24 analysis of variance with sex of coach and instructions as the two variables was used to analyze the data. The summary table for the analysis is presented in Table 1. No significant differences were found between male and female coaches. A significant difference ($F=10.66$, $df=3/120$, $p<.01$) was found among the coaches on the four sets of instructions.

Table 1
CRF-24 Analysis of Variance

Source	SS (Sum of Squares)	df (Degrees of Freedom)	MS (Mean Squared)	F
Coaches	153.07	1	153.07	1.36
Instructions	3610.67	3	1203.57	10.66*
Coaches x Instructions	452.83	3	150.94	1.34
Error (W.Cell)	13544.3	120	112.87	
Total	17760.87	127		

* $F_{.99}(3,120) = 3.95$ ($p<.01$)

Multiple comparisons were made on instructions using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test. Results revealed significant differences between: female and male instructions ($F=7.24, df=3/120, p<.01$); female and male athlete instructions ($F=10.67, df=3/120, p<.01$); and female and female athlete instructions ($F=81.41, df=3/120, p<.01$) (Table 2). Therefore, the female instructions were rated significantly less masculine than the male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions. Male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions did not differ significantly from each other.

Table 2
Differences Among the Means of the
Instructions for Coaches

Instructions	Mean	Females	Males	Female Athletes	Male Athletes
Females	141.03		7.24*	8.41*	10.67*
Males	150.66			1.17	3.43
Female Athletes	152.22				2.26
Male Athletes	155.22				

* $F_{.99}(3/120) = 3.95 (p<.01)$

Although no significant difference was found for interaction, there were a priori hypotheses that predicted that differences would exist between male and female coaches for some sets of instructions (female and female athlete) but not others (male and male athlete). Thus, further investigation of the differences between male and female coaches'

responses to the varying instructions was justified. A simple effects analysis of variance was used for this purpose. Results are presented in Table 3. A significant difference ($F=5.05$, $df=1/120$, $p<.01$) was found between male and female coaches on the female instructions while no significant differences were found between male and female coaches on the male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions.

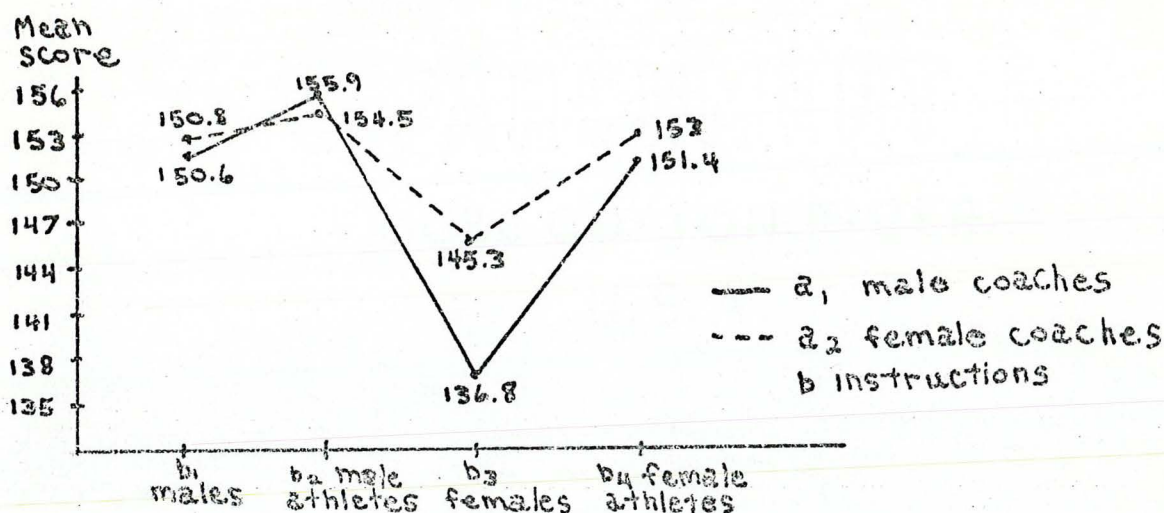


Figure 2. Mean Masculinity Scores Among Male and Female Coaches on the Male, Male Athlete, Female, and Female Athlete Instructions

Table 3

Simple Effects Analysis of Variance of Male and Female Coach Differences for Male, Male Athlete, Female and Female Athlete Instructions

Instructions	SS	df	MS	F distribution
Male	0.2799	1	0.2799	0.00248
Male Athlete	165.58	1	165.58	1.467
Female	569.99	1	569.99	5.05*
Female Athlete	19.527	1	19.527	0.173
Error	13544.3	10		

* $F_{.99}(1/120) = (p<.01)$

Findings

1. There was no significant difference between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of males. Accept - $H_0: MC_m = FC_m$

2. There was no significant difference between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of male athletes. Accept - $H_0:$

$$MC_{ma} = FC_{ma}$$

3. Female coaches rate females as significantly more masculine ($p < .01$) than male coaches rate females in sex-role stereotyping. Accept $H_1: FC_f > MC_f$

4. Female coaches did not rate female athletes as significantly more masculine than male coaches rated female athletes in sex-role stereotyping. Reject $H_1: FC_{fa} > MC_{fa}$

5. Results revealed no significant differences on the male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions by male coaches. The female instructions were significantly less masculine ($p < .01$) as compared with each of the male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions.

6. Results revealed no significant differences on the male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions by female coaches. The female instructions were significantly less masculine ($p < .01$) as compared with each of the male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Recommendations

Because the effects of the socialization processes have been most strongly felt in terms of appropriate individual roles and behaviors according to the sex of the individual (Gerber, 1974), a need was found to examine male and female coaches' attitudes toward sex-role stereotyping as a function of their expectations of males, male athletes, females, and female athletes. It was hypothesized that no significant differences would be found between males and male athletes as rated by male and female coaches but differences would be found in rating females and female athletes. Also, it was predicted that coaches would rank male athletes, males, female athletes, and females with decreasing degrees of masculinity.

Two hundred and forty coaches were randomly selected from a Northern California coaching directory. The Stereotypic Questionnaire was mailed to the coaches and 53% of the coaches responded. The Rosenkrantz (1968) Stereotypic Questionnaire contained 38 predetermined stereotypic items (27 stereotypically masculine items and 11 stereotypically feminine items) and was appropriate for use here.

The completely randomized factorial analysis of variance - 24 design (Kirk, 1968) was used in determining the F ratio for male and female coaches (2) on the male, male athlete, female, and female athlete instructions (4). A significant F ratio ($F=10.66$, $df=3/120$, $p<.01$) was found on the instruction treatment which permitted the use of Tukey's

HSD, a posteriori comparison of the instructions to determine the source of the effects. Male athlete, and female athlete instructions were not significantly different from each other, but the female instructions were significantly less masculine than the male ($F=7.24$, $df=3/120$, $p<.01$), male athlete ($F=10.67$, $df=3/120$, $p<.01$), and female athlete ($F=8.41$, $df=3/120$, $p<.01$) instructions.

Since a significant interaction was predicted between male and female coaches, the simple main-effects sum of squares was computed for the coaches independently for each set of instructions. A significant difference ($F=5.05$, $df=1/120$, $p<.01$) was found between male and female coaches on the female instructions, but no significant differences were found among male, male athlete, and female athlete instructions.

Conclusions Drawn from the Investigation

Results are presented below in relation to the hypotheses presented in Chapter 1.

1. ✕ It was hypothesized that no significant differences would be found between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of males as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. ✕ Results supported the null hypothesis. ✕ Previous research using the Stereotypic Questionnaire by Rosenkrantz et al. (1968), Broverman et al. (1970) and Grossman (1974) revealed no significant differences between male and female students, psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, and counselors in sex-role stereotyping of males.

2. ✕ It was hypothesized that no significant differences would be found between male and female coaches in sex-role stereotyping of male athletes as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. Results

supported the null hypothesis. X Kroll (1970) supported the present findings in studying the personality differences for groups of male athletes. It was concluded that men were socialized into sports which confirmed their masculinity. Tiger (1970), Fisher (1972), and Fiske (1974) found support for the theory that males were socialized into the traditionally masculine team sports and possessed the traditionally masculine sex-role character traits. Sport played a significant role in clarifying the masculinity of boys and men. In the present study, male and female coaches rated the male athlete close to the masculine pole, but surprisingly, not significantly closer to the masculine pole than males or female athletes.

3. X It was hypothesized that female coaches would rate females significantly more masculine than would male coaches. A significant difference in the predicted direction for female instructions was found. Although responses by male and female coaches were significantly different on the female instructions, all coaches rated females toward the middle of the Stereotypic Questionnaire and tending toward the masculine pole. X Since Rosenkrantz (1968) developed the Stereotypic Questionnaire with feminine and masculine poles, it would seem that the qualities desirable for the female are gravitating away from the feminine pole toward the masculine pole. This would seem to indicate changing attitudes toward the female sex-role stereotype. Results also support Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith's (1960) conclusions that boy and girl game preferences indicated an expanding female role due to a greater number of typically male game preferences. Matire and Hornberger (1957) compared self-attitudes of college men and women and found that male stereotypes were more masculine than female stereotypes. These results helped explain significant

significant differences in male and female coaches' responses here in that female coaches rated females as significantly more masculine than did male coaches.

4. X The null hypothesis that there was not a significant difference between male and female coaches on the female athlete instructions was supported. X In previous studies (Brown, 1965; DeBacy, Spaeth, and Busch, 1970), males tended to perceive female athletes less favorably than females, but Wilson (1974) in a study of attitudes toward women physical education majors and women home economics majors, concluded that men evaluated women in their own major significantly more favorably than they did women in general. Harres' (1968) study revealed considerable differences of opinion concerning the desirability of athletic competition for girls and women but supported the present study in that: no significant differences were found between college men and women on the desirability of athletic competition for girls and women; male and female college students who competed in athletics formed more favorable attitudes toward competition for girls and women.

Confusion has existed for many years as to whether sports participation developed masculine traits in women or whether women with masculine traits were attracted to sport (Harris, 1971). That was not the issue in the current study but results showed clearly that male and female coaches closely agreed on the traits they looked for in the ideal healthy, mature, socially competent adult female athlete and these traits tended toward the masculine pole as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.

5. X The alternative hypothesis that male coaches would rank male athletes, males, female athletes, and females with decreasing degrees of

masculinity as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire was rejected. The only significant difference was that females were ideally less masculine than all other groups. X Kroll (1970) studied the personality differences for groups of male athletes and concluded that men were socialized into sports which confirmed their masculinity, mainly the team sports. In the present study, male and female coaches agreed that the healthy, mature, socially competent adult male athlete did score close to the masculine pole of the Stereotypic Questionnaire, but was not significantly more masculine than the male or the female athlete. Results implied that changes have occurred in the character traits acceptable for female athletes, and the character traits acceptable for the male athlete did not differ significantly from those acceptable for the female athlete. Results did not support conclusions drawn from previous studies (Beiser, 1967; Fiske, 1974; Tiger, 1970) that sport was a necessary tool in establishing the masculine sex-role of the male since the healthy, mature, socially competent male was not, ideally, any less masculine than the male athlete or the female athlete as rated by male and female coaches on the Stereotypic Questionnaire. Studies by Landers (1970), Brown (1965), and Malumphy (1966) supported the present findings that female athletes were consistently more masculine than the female.

6. X The alternative hypothesis that female coaches would rank male athletes, males, female athletes, and females with decreasing degrees of masculinity as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire was rejected in part. X Female coaches ranked male athletes, female athletes, males, and females with decreasing degrees of masculinity on the Stereotypic Questionnaire, however, differences between male athlete, male, and female athlete instructions were not significant. The female

instructions supported the hypothesis that females would be significantly less masculine than males, male athletes, and female athletes, but again did not support the predicted order of ranking the other groups. Results paralleled results in hypothesis five and were discussed in detail above.

Discussion

Results on the Stereotypic Questionnaire supported the hypotheses that high school coaches in Northern California would rank females as significantly less masculine than male athletes, males, and female athletes, but did not support the hypotheses that coaches would rank male athletes, males, and female athletes with declining degrees of masculinity. There was no significant difference in sex-role stereotyping by coaches among male athletes, males, and female athletes. Therefore, it appeared that high school coaches judge the sex-role character traits of the healthy, mature, socially competent male, male athlete, and female athlete similarly, but significantly different ($p < .01$) from the healthy, mature, socially competent female.

Differences based on sex were not significant between male and female coaches on the male athlete, male, and female athlete instructions, but supported the hypothesis that female coaches would rate females as significantly more masculine ($p < .01$) than would male coaches on the Stereotypic Questionnaire. Therefore, these significant differences in sex-role stereotyping of females by male and female coaches when compared among males, male athletes, and female athletes suggested that a double standard did exist in sex-role stereotyping between males and females but did not exist for male and female athletes.

Confusion has existed for many years as to whether sports developed the same masculine traits in females that were claimed in males or whether women, like men, with masculine traits were attracted to sports (Harris, 1971). That was not the issue in this study but results showed clearly that male and female coaches closely agree on the sex-role stereotypic traits they look for in the healthy, mature, socially competent female athlete and these traits were fairly high on the masculine pole as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire. It would seem that male and female coaches expect the female athlete to possess character traits similar to those expected in males generally, and male athletes specifically, as measured by the Stereotypic Questionnaire.

Summary

The findings in this study seem to indicate the following according to male and female coaches.

1. The ideal female sex-role is progressing toward the masculine pole which indicates greater freedom to enter traditionally male activities.
2. The sex-role for the ideal female athlete is synonymous with that of the male athlete which seems to indicate acceptance by male and female coaches of the female in athletics, traditionally dominated by the male. This acceptance will be helpful in overcoming previous conflicts in sacrificing femininity for increased success in athletics.
3. Athletics does not seem to enhance the male sex-role as was previously believed, nor does it seem to threaten the male sex-role. This was evidenced in that the male and male athlete sex-roles did not differ significantly.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. The present study needs to be replicated and comparisons made among groups of coaches according to the sport coached in order to determine significant differences in sex-role stereotyping of coaches according to the sport coached. Specific sports might be regarded as more masculine than others.

2. Further studies need to be conducted among various populations of males and females within and outside of sport to determine whether significant differences in coaches' attitudes do exist in sex-role stereotyping of males and females for other than high school coaches.

3. A longitudinal study should be conducted using the same instrument and the same population to determine changing cultural attitudes of male and female coaches toward sex-role stereotyping of males, male athletes, females, and female athletes.

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Appendixes

Appendix A

Male-valued and Female-valued Stereotypic Items

Feminine pole	Masculine pole
Male-valued items	
Not at all aggressive	Very aggressive
Not at all independent	Very independent
Very emotional	Not at all emotional
Does not hide emotions at all	Almost always hides emotions
Very subjective	Very objective
Very easily influenced	Not at all easily influenced
Very submissive	Very dominant
Dislikes math and science very much	Likes math and science very much
Very excitable in a minor crisis	Not at all excitable in a minor crisis
Very passive	Very active
Not at all competitive	Very competitive
Very illogical	Very logical
Very home oriented	Very worldly
Not at all skilled in business	Very skilled in business
Very sneaky	Very direct
Does not know the way of the world	Knows the way of the world
Feelings easily hurt	Feelings not easily hurt
Not at all adventurous	Very adventurous
Has difficulty making decisions	Can make decisions easily
Cries very easily	Never cries
Almost never acts as a leader	Almost always acts as a leader
Not at all self-confident	Very self-confident
Very uncomfortable about being aggressive	Not at all uncomfortable about being aggressive
Not at all ambitious	Very ambitious
Unable to separate feelings from ideas	Easily able to separate feelings from ideas
Very dependent	Not at all dependent
Very conceited about appearance	Not at all conceited about appearance

Female-valued items

Very talkative	Not at all talkative
Very tactful	Very blunt
Very gentle	Very rough
Very aware of feelings of others	Not at all aware of feelings of others
Very religious	Not at all religious

Very interested in own appearance

Very neat in habits

Very quiet

Very strong need for security

Enjoys art and literature
very much

Easily expresses tender
feelings

Not at all interested in own appearance

Very sloppy in habits

Very loud

Very little need for security

Does not enjoy art and literature
at all

Does not express tender feelings at
all

We would like to know something about what coaches expect other people to be like. Imagine that you are going to meet someone for the first time, and the only thing that you know in advance is that this person is a mature, healthy, socially competent MALE ATHLETE who has competed in one or more high school interscholastic, varsity sports. Circle the number that best describes that person.

For example: This person does not care much for the color red.

Strong Dislike for the color red	3	(2)	1	1	2	3	Strong liking for the color red
1 Does not hide emotions at all	3	2	1	1	2	3	Almost always hides emotions
2 Very dominant	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very submissive
3 Very blunt	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very tactful
4 Can make decisions easily	3	2	1	1	2	3	Has difficulty making decisions
5 Very quiet	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very loud
6 Very worldly	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very home oriented
7 Feelings not easily hurt	3	2	1	1	2	3	Feelings easily hurt
8 Very little need for security	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very strong need for security
9 Does not enjoy art and literature at all	3	2	1	1	2	3	Enjoys art and literature very much
10 Not at all aggressive	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very aggressive
11 Very subjective	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very objective
12 Dislikes math and science very much	3	2	1	1	2	3	Likes math and science very much
13 Very aware of the feelings of others	3	2	1	1	2	3	Not at all aware of the feelings of others
14 Never cries	3	2	1	1	2	3	Cries very easily
15 Very gentle	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very rough
16 Not at all skilled in business	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very skilled in business
17 Not at all adventurous	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very adventurous
18 Not at all ambitious	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very ambitious
19 Easily expresses tender feelings	3	2	1	1	2	3	Does not express tender feelings easily
20 Not at all independent	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very independent
21 Not at all easily influenced	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very easily influenced

22 Not at all excitable in a minor crisis	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very excitable in a minor crisis
23 Not at all religious	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very religious
24 Almost never acts as a leader	3	2	1	1	2	3	Almost always acts as a leader
25 Not at all competitive	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very competitive
26 Very direct	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very sneaky
27 Not at all self-confident	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very self-confident
28 Able to separate feelings from ideas	3	2	1	1	2	3	Unable to separate feelings from ideas
29 Very conceited about appearance	3	2	1	1	2	3	Never conceited about appearance
30 Very emotional	3	2	1	1	2	3	Not at all emotional
31 Not at all talkative	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very talkative
32 Very active	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very passive
33 Not at all interested in own appearance	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very interested in own appearance
34 Very neat in habits	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very sloppy in habits
35 Very logical	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very illogical
36 Knows the way of the world	3	2	1	1	2	3	Does not know the way of the world
37 Not at all uncomfortable about being aggressive	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very uncomfortable about being aggressive
38 Not at all dependent	3	2	1	1	2	3	Very dependent

In reporting this research the following data is desirable in describing the population responding to this questionnaire.

Age: _____ Sex: M F Ethnic group: _____

Highest level of education completed: _____

Number of years teaching: _____ Number of years coaching: _____

Head coaching assignment(s): M F _____

Assistant coaching assignment(s): M F _____

Appendix C

231 E. Vine St.
Stockton, CA 95202
4/26/76

Dear Coach,

I am conducting a survey which will assist me in determining those character traits most important for the mature, healthy, socially competent female athlete in our society. As in any attitudinal study, the reliability and validity of this study depends on your honest response. This survey will take only five minutes of your time and is crucial in the completion of my Master's Thesis in Physical Education at the University of the Pacific. The surveys will be used to compare group responses and the names of the participants will remain anonymous.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. I would like your response by May 5th. I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your reply. If you would like a copy of my results, enclose a stamped, self-addressed envelope for my reply.

Sincerely,

S. C. Conard

Approved by

Glen Albaugh, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Dept. of Physical Education
University of the Pacific

Appendix D

5/13/76

Dear Coach,

About two weeks ago, you received a Stereotypic Questionnaire as part of my Master's Thesis in Physical Education at the University of the Pacific. Responses have been extremely low and I am reaching a state of panic as I will not be able to complete my research unless enough Questionnaires are returned before the end of this school year.

I realize that this is probably the worst time of the year for you but I am only asking for 5 MINUTES of your time.

If you have not returned the Stereotypic Questionnaire, please reconsider. I have already enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your response. If you have already responded, I really appreciate your help.

Sincerely but desperately,

S. C. Conard