

DISCOVERING THE GENDER LENS:
THE INFLUENCE OF AN INTRODUCTORY
GENDER STUDIES COURSE ON PERSONAL CHANGE

Linda Hoke–Sinex

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Anne Dopkins Stright, Ph.D.

Judith Allen, Ph.D.

Doctoral Committee

Ellen Brantlinger, Ph.D.

December 15, 2005

Susan Eklund, Ph.D.

Myrtle Scott, Ph.D.

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This dissertation and my work in the field of gender studies reflect my personal commitment to feminist activism. I believe education is an avenue to reducing the gender inequities that exist in our culture and it is important to explore this connection and its power to change.

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Gender Studies Course on Personal Change

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Abstract

The discipline of gender studies, driven by the social movement of feminism, has become an established area of study on a number of university campuses. Early examinations of gender studies courses identified two specific influences of this newly formed branch of education, intellectual mastery of the course content and the less traditional goal of personal change (the effects of student connections between class materials and personal experiences). Based on existing research, feminist theory and theories of gender development, the author of the present study hypothesized a continued personal change impact of current gender studies courses.

The study explored this concept of personal change through an examination of the pre-course relationships between biological sex, experiences with sexism, parental non-traditional gender roles and students' feminist perspectives. Furthermore, the study examined post-course effects related to the concept of personal change through an inquiry on the influence of an introductory gender studies course on students' feminist perspective, gender identity, and gender self-confidence.

As pre-course and post-course measures, gender studies students (n = 118) from three separate sections of the same undergraduate course completed a series of questionnaires pertaining to these areas. As a control, 48 education students also completed the questionnaires.

Pre-course measures revealed that experience with sexism was a significant predictor of the following feminist perspective self-reports: low acceptance of inequities, high awareness of inequities, high exploration of feminist perspective, and high consolidation of feminist perspective for female students. Post-course measures revealed that gender studies students were less accepting of gender inequities than education students. Gender studies students were also more likely to change their gender identities than education students.

The present study offers support for gender studies courses as agents of personal change through influences on feminist perspective and gender identity.

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Discovering the Gender Lens: The Influence of an Introductory
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Chapter 1

Introduction

The study of gender at the level of higher education is a fairly recent and significant addition to academia; it is considered by many to be a motivating force for social change in its support of equality between women and men. Driven by the social movement of feminism, a primary goal of gender studies is to effect personal and social change by incorporating feminist principles into education. This commitment to change is based on the consciousness raising actions of the general feminist movements of the 1960's and 1970's (Malkin & Stake, 2004) and can be observed in the majority of gender studies courses. In pursuit of this goal, gender studies courses maintain a focus on the development, support, and instruction in new scholarship on women, men, and gender. In essence, by informing college students on the culture of gender, gender studies works to transform individual consciousness to transform conventional society (Sevelius, 2003).

In transforming individual consciousness, the study of gender promotes personal change. Personal change is defined as personal development and refers to the effects of student connections between class materials and personal experiences (Malkin & Stake, 2004). Gender studies is an area of the college curriculum that has ventured away from the norm of content only focus to place importance on the goal of personal change within the educational setting. In an examination of early women's studies courses, Brush, Gold, and White (1978) identified two specific goals of this newly formed area of education, intellectual mastery of the course content and the less traditional goal of personal change.

Furthermore, Brush et al. (1978) hypothesized that, through evolutionary processes typically associated with a new area of study, future gender studies courses would exhibit an eventual decreased focus on personal change and a concentration on intellectual mastery of content. However, the authors also theorized a continued personal change impact of gender studies course content due to the interactive effect of information acquisition and personal interpretations of such information. In some instances, this added dimension of personal change to college level academics has been met with resistance; critics of the field have cautioned individuals to avoid the propaganda of gender studies. In contrast, many students have pronounced positive life changing influences through the study of gender (Musil, 1992).

The present study examined students' feminist perspectives before taking a gender studies course and the relations between these perspectives and students' experiences with parental gender roles, sexism, and student gender self-confidence. Then, the study examined the effectiveness of a gender studies course in changing students' feminist perspective, gender self-confidence, and gender identity by assessing these variables at the beginning and end of the semester. These changes in students' beliefs in the gender studies course were then compared to students' beliefs in a control group (in an education course).

Rationale

Traditional societal based gender roles of women and men are in a state of transformation. The mainstream emergence of feminism and a new sociocultural interpretation of these roles have prompted accompanying changes in employment, relationships, knowledge, political policy, and institutions in our society. These changes

include increased flexibility of gender roles with more open interpretations of femininity and masculinity and have resulted in new found freedom of choice for both women and men. For example, men now have social “permission” to choose not to enter the workplace, to have primary home responsibilities and to be the primary child care provider. In addition, it is now more socially acceptable for women to be the main economic support for the family while leaving child care and home responsibilities to the male in the relationship. These changes in society may be the result of the influence of feminism in addition to concerns over the possible negative effects of gender role expectations on the development of psychological and economic capabilities of women and men (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1975).

Although some aspects of society are now approaching equity relative to female/male status in American society, there remain discrepancies and further attention is needed to address these areas. For example, social inequalities still exist in the workplace, in the family and home setting (childcare and household responsibility differences), in social institutions (for example, research and health care settings), as well as the considerable ratio imbalance favoring men in political realms.

In the United States, 64% of all women work outside of the home and women constitute 52.7% of total labor force. However, the majority of employed women are concentrated in low paying service, domestic, clerical jobs (Bureau of the Census, 1996). On average, women earn .76 cents to each dollar earned by men (Renzetti & Curran, 1999). Occupational clustering may account for the mentioned discrepancies of average earnings, however, weekly earnings of women and men in same occupations also differ. For example, in executive and managerial positions, the average salary of women is \$681

versus \$952 for men, in sales the average salary of women is \$399 versus \$666 for men, and in protective services, the average salary of women is \$492 for women versus \$613 for men (Renzetti & Curran, 1999). It has been proposed that these salary discrepancies may be related to the beliefs and attitudes of employers in the workplace in addition to an organizational culture that favors men (Coltrane, 1996).

In a related area, the family and home setting (childcare and household chore responsibilities) findings have shown that despite married women's increased labor force participation, domestic equality between men and women has not been achieved. It has been argued that men's contribution in the household has improved since the 1960s (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer, & Robinson, 2000; Grbich, 1994; Sullivan, 2000) but other research suggests that little real or *meaningful* change has taken place (Hochschild, 1989; McMahon, 1999). Either way, in most heterosexual cohabiting or married relationships, women are still responsible for the bulk of domestic labor and childcare responsibilities (Baxter, 2002; Baxter & Western, 1998; Bittman & Pixley, 1997; Dempsey, 1997; Doucet, 2000; Lindsay, 1999; Pilcher, 2000). Hess-Biber and Carter (2000) found that wives spend two to four times as much time on household chores than do husbands, even when the wives are employed. This unequal distribution of childcare and household chore responsibilities is likely to be a reflection of the continuance of stereotyped gender roles and identities in society.

Opportunities to reduce inequalities based solely on socially constructed gender differences between women and men are important considerations in contemporary society. An opportunity to decrease these disparities is situated in the study of gender and may be achieved through the support of personal change. A key question to consider; are

gender studies courses effective educational tools in encouraging personal change to assist individual functioning (relative to gender roles) in a continuously changing society? Previous research has shown that exposure to feminism through gender studies courses results in multiple effects on students enrolled in the class. Furthermore, these effects can be classified into four general categories. Compared to non-gender studies class controls, students enrolled in a gender studies course (a) became more liberal and less stereotypic in their attitudes toward women and gender roles (Jones & Jacklin, 1988; Scott, Richards & Wade, 1977), (b) developed a greater awareness of sexism and of power inequities between men and women (Henderson-King & Stewart, 1999), (c) displayed an increased orientation toward collective action as a strategy to improve women's position and reduce power inequities (Bargad & Hyde, 1991; Stake, Rhoades, Rose, Ellis, & West, 1994; Stake & Rose, 1994; Thomsen, Basu, & Reinitz., 1995), and (d) grew to be more positive in their attitudes toward, and evaluations of, feminists (Henderson-King & Stewart, 1999). These findings offer support for the gender studies, personal change connection as well as the importance of education in the process. In the present study, pre-course and post-course measures in an introductory gender studies course address this question concerning the effectiveness of the course in encouraging personal change.

Purpose

This study examined predictors of students' feminist perspectives before they began the gender studies course and then examined whether the gender studies course supported specific forms of personal change (changes in students' feminist perspectives, gender identities, and gender self-confidence).

The model of personal change (see Figure 1) summarizes the hypothesized relations between the variables tested for these areas of focus. An important concept addressed in the study is students' feminist perspectives. A feminist perspective is defined as the measure of an individual's awareness of the existence of dichotomous and inequitable gender roles in our society, a perception of the injustice of such gender roles, and a philosophy of women as valued members (as men) of society.

Downing and Roush (1985) describe five steps of feminist perspective development (see Table 1). The first step, gender inequity acceptance, is characterized by a lack of awareness or denial of individual, institutional, and cultural discrimination against women. The second step in the model, gender inequity awareness, proposes that as women develop a feminist perspective, they cultivate an openness to reevaluating ideas about the societal roles of women. Furthermore, this increased acceptance of reevaluation may be associated with higher levels of self-esteem or ego development. The third step in the process, feminist perspective exploration, involves two phases; first, women in the initial phase embed themselves in women's culture and women's company and second, women begin to view the world with more openness to alternative viewpoints and from a more relativistic perspective rather than dualistic perspective. Fourth, Downing and Roush (1985) propose that when women reach the feminist perspective development step of the model, they begin to value the positive aspects of being female and are able to integrate these positive components into their own identities. Finally, the feminist perspective consolidation step is characterized by women's translation of feminist identities into a focus on societal change with the goal of

Figure 1

Model of Personal Change Influences (Based on Bem, 1993)

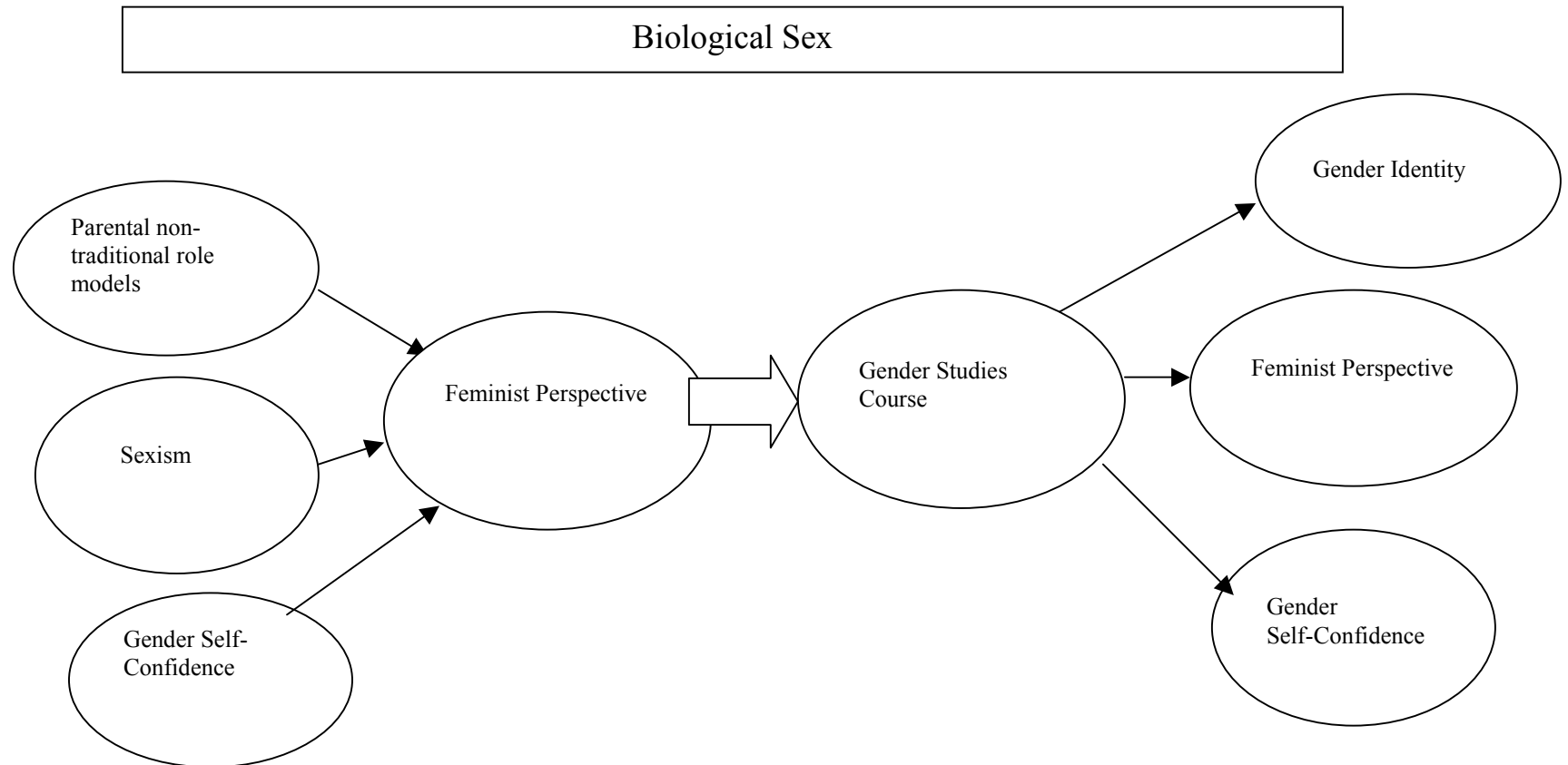


Table 1

Model of Feminist Perspective Development (Based on Downing and Roush, 1985)

Gender Inequity Acceptance	Gender Inequity Awareness	Feminist Perspective Exploration	Feminist Perspective Development	Feminist Perspective Consolidation
Passive acceptance of traditional gender roles; belief that traditional roles are advantageous; men are considered superior.	Catalyzed by a series of crises, resulting in open questioning of self and roles and feelings of anger and guilt; dualistic thinking; men are perceived as negative.	Characterized by connectedness with other select women, affirmation and strengthening of new feminist viewpoint. Eventually more relativistic clear thinking and cautious interaction with men.	Development of an authentic and positive feminist viewpoint; sex- role transcendence; “flexible truce” with the world; evaluate men on an individual basis.	Consolidation of a feminist perspective; commitment to meaningful action, to a non-sexist world. Actions are personalized and rational. Men are considered equal but not the same as women.

eliminating oppression (for example, women may be dedicated to working for women's rights).

Biological sex (in this study, the dichotomous female/male biological model is used) encourages differential expectations and socialization of an individual's gender role development in a variety of life experiences (see Figure 1). Parental influences are an important part of these life experiences; as individuals develop throughout childhood and adolescence, they may be presented with differing parental gender role models. For example, if a traditional parental role model is experienced, children may model and assimilate these traditional behaviors (e.g., childcare performed by mothers, workplace duties performed by father). In contrast, if non-traditional roles are experienced, individuals may model those roles (e.g., shared childcare duties, shared workplace duties). Observation and conformity to these parental models may be related to students' pre-course feminist perspectives. For example, a female with traditional parental role models may be more likely to display gender inequity acceptance if she has strong conformity to these models.

In addition, the experience of sexist discrimination or sexism may be related to students' feminist perspectives before beginning a gender studies course (see Figure 1). Often prompted by an individual's biological sex, these events may differ in amount, type, and effect of occurrence. These occurrence differences (most commonly targeted toward women) tend to result in a more "hostile" culture of sexism for women in comparison to men. It is possible this type of environment contributes to the development of a feminist perspective by increasing one's awareness of social norms, gender based expectations, and discriminatory practices associated with being female.

Gender self-confidence may also be related to students' feminist perspectives before beginning the course (see Figure 1). Gender self-confidence is defined as the strength of belief that one meets or adheres to her/his personal standards of femininity and masculinity (Hoffman, Borders, & Hattie, 2000). Hoffman et al. (2000) developed a model of gender self-concept that places gender self-confidence in a position of connectedness to gender identity. According to Hoffman et al. (2000), gender self-confidence and gender identity are contained within this global term, gender self-concept (that which is personally relevant to an individual about being male or female) and may be related to an individual's general self-concept. Gender self-confidence speaks to issues of competency and self-evaluation; does the individual feel competent as a member of their own sex and are they meeting self-imposed standards of femininity and masculinity (Lewin, 1984)? As noted in the Downing and Roush (1985) model of changes in feminist perspectives, as women progress through the steps they begin to reevaluate ideas about the societal roles of women (possibly associated with higher levels of self-esteem or ego development), value the positive aspects of being female and are able to integrate these positive components into their own identities. If an individual reports having high gender self-confidence at the beginning of the course, they may be more accepting of the positive aspects of their own gender identity and be more likely to report a feminist perspective.

The second question addressed in the study (as shown in the second component of Figure 1) focused on the personal change that may result from completing a gender studies course. For this study, personal change is defined as personal development and refers to the effects of student connections between gender studies course materials and

personal experiences (Malkin & Stake, 2004). The intervention class was an introductory gender studies course, G101: Women, Gender, and Culture. The course was chosen because this introductory course is usually the initial exposure students may have to the study of gender (decreasing prior experience intervening variables) and also, the class is focused on analytical and critical thinking of the presented topics creating a higher likelihood of the interactive effects of intellectual mastery and personal change (Brush & Gold, 1978). As can be noted in Figure 1, the course was hypothesized to support personal change in gender identity, gender self-confidence, and feminist perspective. In relation to gender identity, an individual may react to the course content in a different manner based on their presenting gender identity; the perception of self as feminine or masculine (Huston, 1983; Ruble & Martin, 1998). The related concept, gender-typing, defined as a process by which individuals acquire a specific culture's values, motives, and behaviors considered appropriate for their feminine or masculine gender (Bem, 1993), may also be a key influence. For the purposes of this paper, the term gender identity will include both concepts, the perception of self as feminine or masculine and the acquisition process of feminine or masculine gender roles.

The course may affect the students' perceptions of themselves in terms of stereotyped male or female characteristics. Females who perceive themselves with traditionally feminine identity may begin to perceive themselves in more masculine terms. Men in the course with traditional masculine gender identities may begin to perceive themselves in more feminine terms.

The course may also affect students' feminist perspectives (see Figure 1). Course content addresses the first step in Downing and Roush's (1985) model, gender inequity

acceptance, through the presentation of information drawing attention to the existence of cultural discrimination against women. The second step in the model, gender inequity awareness, is also attended to through course content; if an individual lessens in gender inequity acceptance, then the possibility of a reevaluation of the societal roles of women becomes likely to occur. The third step in the process, feminist perspective exploration, is encouraged by the information presented in the course and the support of the other students in the class. For example, the majority of students in the class are female and therefore, the option to become involved in women's culture and company is readily available. Fourth, the feminist perspective development step of the model, offers students the opportunity to examine the positive aspects of being female and the option to integrate these positive components into their own identities through critical thinking about the subject and through class discussion activities. In relation to the last step in the model, feminist perspective consolidation, opportunities to participate in activist activities are typically presented by the instructor, other students, and listed in the readings for the course. Individuals in the class then have the choice to participate or decline to participate in these activities.

Finally, the course may affect gender self-confidence. In general, individuals tend to evaluate specific aspects of their gender identity based on their present knowledge base. The course presents information concerning positive female roles models (e.g., first wave feminists, second wave feminists); information that is rarely presented in systems of education. This focus promotes the initial intent of women's studies in creating a new academic discipline that includes women's participation and perspective in addition to offering an affirmation of the contributions of women in society. This knowledge has the

potential to enhance self-esteem and to increase gender self-confidence, specifically for female students.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Examining the connection between feminism, education, and gender studies holds promise in identifying and modifying socialization processes that support and maintain inequalities in contemporary society. As noted, the inclusion of gender studies at the university level is founded in the goals of second wave feminism; this knowledge provides evidence of an interconnection between the social movement and the field of study.

This literature review explores historical and contemporary goals and beliefs of feminism that contributed to the inclusion of gender studies in higher education and analyzes how those beliefs have been integrated into gender studies classes with the potential influence of encouraging personal change. Furthermore, the review examines the topics feminist perspective, gender identity, gender self-confidence, biological sex, sexism, and parental non-traditional gender roles as related components of the introductory gender studies class in the present study.

Feminism and Gender Studies

Western culture has traditionally supported three basic beliefs concerning women and men; first, the sexes have fundamentally different psychological and sexual natures, second, men are inherently the dominant sex, and, third, both the sex differences and male dominance are the natural way of being (Bem, 1993). Corresponding to these concepts, our culture has created, and presently maintains, a society that supports a social system of inequality for women and men. In response to this culturally constructed bias and as a challenge to inequality between the sexes, the social movement labeled

“feminism” emerged as a philosophical and political perspective during the early 1800’s; feminism continues to this day in its influence on our society. Both early and contemporary feminists have a similar goal in mind; to engage in a fundamental reexamination of the role of women in all areas of life and to examine the relationships of women and men in all political, economic, social, and cultural institutions in an effort to promote equality between women and men (Hole & Levine, 1984).

Historically, there has been a resistance to feminist movements and to the perception of women as equal members of society. In addressing this resistance, the importance of education was a focal point of early feminist movements in promoting the goal of equality between the sexes. One of the initial concerns of feminists in the 1800’s was to extend all means of educational opportunities to women and important progress in this area was achieved in the field of higher level education. For example, prior to 1832, women were not permitted to attend college with men but were finally admitted to Oberlin College in 1833; albeit with restrictions (women were required to remain silent at assemblies, do laundry, cleaning, cooking, and serve meals to male students). In contemporary society, women now comprise 55.5% of total undergraduate students, receive 55.1% of Bachelor degrees, 51.9% of Master degrees, and 37.2% of doctorate degrees on college campuses. Equal education for women and men is a central component to achieving equality (Hole & Levine, 1971) and is an important concept in enabling individuals to understand social position and to become empowered in reducing oppression (Renzetti & Curran, 1999).

Although feminism is typically viewed as a social movement whereas college level courses addressing issues of gender define a more academic examination of societal differences of females and males, the two areas are closely related. Feminism is considered by many to be the impetus for the development of women's studies courses at the college level. In a manner similar to first wave feminists' gain of political equality through suffrage, second wave feminists sought to gain academic equality through the examination and redefinition of the college curriculum in addressing the absence, misrepresentation, and trivialization of women with a new academic discipline, gender studies. Specific to the study of cultural constructions of femininity and masculinity and the impact of gender on society, relationships, knowledge, policy, and institutions, women's studies emerged in the late 1960's as one of the most controversial and influential areas of study in postsecondary education.

As an academic branch of the feminist movement, the initial intent of women's studies was to reconstruct academic disciplines to include women's participation and perspectives. Examples of exclusion can be found in many fields of study; historical accounts, for the most part, have been written by men and from a male perspective thus reflecting the exclusion of women. Women's studies advocates proposed a return to the knowledge source with inclusion of women's perspective within all fields but, even more central to the cause, the focus was to offer new courses that addressed women's issues.

Women's studies is now an established, yet still opposed, discipline in many university settings across the country (Bedard & Hartung, 1991). Research has found the source of this opposition to originate from many students and faculty who consider this type of inquiry inappropriate for higher education and who may be inclined to display

actions of intolerance to those who choose to enroll in such classes (Bedard & Hartung, 1991). Similar opposition has been noted in university departments such as African American Studies or African Diaspora Studies (McBride, 2003) and may reflect an inclination to reject non-traditional forms of study. Regardless of this documented intolerance, gender studies departments have shown continued growth in the setting of higher level education. The National Women's Studies Association (NWSA) reported that the number of undergraduate programs listed between 1988 and 1990 has increased by 23 percent. Today in the United States, women's studies is offered at over two-thirds of universities, half of four year colleges, and 40 percent of institutions of higher education (Ruth, 2001). As can be noted in the growing number of gender studies programs, a select number of students disregard opposition to gender studies and choose to enroll in classes. In its departure from the norm, this choice may conflict with the mainstream views of traditional courses of study and may be linked to the feminist perspective an individual has prior to course enrollment. This controversy surrounding the discipline may also be linked to its even more controversial societal base, feminism, or specific to this study, a feminist perspective.

Women's studies or feminist studies were the first terms used to describe this course of study. A more recent addition to the area of women's studies, taking form in the past decade, is a closely associated field, gender studies. In addition to being slightly different general descriptive terms, women's studies and gender studies tend to have minor variations in course focus; women's studies addresses issues directly related to females or the "study of women" (Ruth, 2001) and has a feminist base, gender studies tends to focus on the "study of women, men and various aspects of gender" (Ruth, 2001)

but, as does women's studies, has a feminist base. In its focus on gender, gender studies examines the cross-cultural and historic influence of gender on human behavior by exploring issues of femininity and masculinity, gender as a cultural construct, gender as an organizing component of social, political, and familial institutions, gender role development, and other interdisciplinary inquiries related to sex, gender, sexuality, reproduction, and feminist theory.

Goals or objectives related to gender studies include the following concepts; to increase understanding of the social construction of gender and the intersection of gender with other systems of inequality in women's lives, to learn about the status of women in society and ways to improve that status through individual and collective action for social change, to experience how institutions in society affect individual lives, to encourage critical thinking about the role of patterns and privileges and discrimination in women's lives, and to improve writing and speaking skills, gain new insights, and empower self and others (Shaw & Lee, 2001). An additional common element of gender studies is the notion that all programs, curricula, and analyses are interdisciplinary; this is due to the advocacy of feminists theorists that insights into women's lives and the effects of this information on social progress do not logically divide into traditional academic disciplines (Ruth, 2001).

In general, gender studies courses show evidence of learner-centered principles of instruction (Learner-Centered Principles Work Group, 1997) rather than teacher-centered principles of instruction (Joyce & Weil, 1996). Musil's (1992) research of seven university gender studies programs identified the following components as important elements of gender studies courses; personalized learning, voice and empowerment,

development of critical perspectives, feminist teaching and classroom dynamics, and addressing differences and diversity.

Feminist teaching practices offer support of a feminist pedagogy and can be found in the majority of gender studies courses. Within this teaching philosophy, the instructor is viewed as a guiding member in the system of education and as someone who may be effective in conveying the notion of differences in gender. Research in this area of study identifies four elements of feminist pedagogy that are consistently present in gender studies classrooms. First, participatory learning; students are encouraged to have direct involvement in and contribution to the learning process (Stake & Hoffman, 2000; Kimmel & Worell, 1997; Klein, 1987; Romney, Tatum & Jones, 1992; Weiler, 1991), second, validation of personal experience and development of confidence; students are encouraged to consider connections between their subjective interpretations and course content, (Stake & Hoffman, 2000; Forest & Rosenberg, 1997; Maher, 1987; Morley, 1992; Weiler, 1991), third, students are encouraged to develop political/social understanding and activism (Forest & Rosenberg, 1997; Kimmel & Worell, 1997; Romney et al., 1992), and finally, students are encouraged to develop critical thinking skills and open-mindedness (Boxer, 1982; Culley, 1985). Musil's (1992) classroom dynamics component is also frequently found in gender studies courses as these classes may evolve through the complex unfolding process of group change and growth. Group dynamics theory defines a group as a body of individuals existing within a specific period of time and space, interacting for a common purpose. This theory suggests that groups develop from stages of relative dependence on the leader, to stages of relative independence, and toward stages of interdependence and shared leadership (Bion,

1961). These pedagogical approaches to teaching support the process of personal change on individual and group levels in the undergraduate college student population (Stake & Hoffman, 2000).

The incorporation of these elements has distinguished gender studies classes from other classroom environments of study through the noted establishment of a safe and interactive environment for women and men to celebrate personal expression and experience acceptance and active communication; an environment commonly referred to as, a “feminine-directed learning environment.” In addition, this non-hierarchical learning environment also promotes students’ self-esteem, personal growth, and presents or re-examines previously misrepresented or misinterpreted information about women while encouraging the adoption of a personal feminist perspective (Bargard & Hyde, 1991). As previously noted in Musil’s (1992) multiple-institution assessment project, women’s studies classes were found to contribute to student empowerment, sense of commitment and responsibility, and critical thinking skills. Luebke and Reilly (1995) reported that students felt gender studies courses did more than offer educational content; rather, this form of education increased their self-confidence and their feelings of competency. Women’s studies classes were found to have a stronger impact than non-women’s studies classes on students’ lives outside of the classroom (Stake et al., 1994). The National Women’s Studies Association (Orr & Lichtenstein, 2004). 1996) has noted that a gender studies course is often a life changing experience for many students.

Stake and Hoffman (2000) found support for women’s studies classes in motivating the growth of student tolerance, recognition of inequities in social and political structures, and in willingness to contribute to social change. Furthermore, in

response to critics who have proposed a negative impact of women's studies classes on students (Lehrman, 1993; Patai & Koertge, 1994; Sommers, 1994), the authors found that very few women's studies students reported negative reactions to these classes (only 4.3% of the comments written about women's studies classes were negative).

Focus Course of the Present Study: Women, Gender, and Culture

The aim of the present study was to explore the proposed continued personal change impact of gender studies courses in existence today. This inquiry occurred in an undergraduate gender studies course identified as Women, Gender, and Culture (G101), a required introductory course (consisting of three credit hours) for Gender Studies majors, a choice for Gender Studies minors, and a fulfillment of arts and humanities credit requirements for students not majoring or minoring in Gender Studies. This class is an offering of a newly formed Department of Gender Studies located in a Midwestern university. Presently, the department offers an undergraduate major and minor, a graduate (Ph.D.) minor, and is in the process of developing a Ph.D. major in Gender Studies; this major will be the first Gender Studies Ph.D. degree offered in the United States.

Typically, there are 50 to 60 students enrolled in each section of G101 and the class meets for one hour and fifteen minutes two times per week. For each semester, there are six sections of G101 offered; three section units are taught by two different instructors. The instructors of the G101 courses are generally doctoral level students who have completed all coursework and are in the process of writing a dissertation. They come from a variety of academic backgrounds (e.g. history, education) but all have a common interest in or have had academic experience in gender studies. Although

expected to meet basic departmental requirements, each instructor is at liberty to develop an individual plan for the course focus, create the course syllabus (see Appendix A), assemble required reading materials, and establish assessment procedures.

The researcher of the present study is a doctoral candidate in Educational Psychology with an independently created minor area listed as Gender and Human Development. At the time of data collection, the researcher had completed all coursework and all requirements for the doctoral degree with the exception of collecting data and completing the dissertation. In addition to teaching one previous semester of G101, the researcher had taught five semesters of an educational psychology course in the School of Education. The researcher's motivation in choosing the focus of the present study to be an examination of an introductory gender studies course was influenced by four experiences. First, the researcher's own experience in an undergraduate gender studies related course, second, the researcher's previous qualitative research examining another gender studies course (addressing the influence of gender studies on undergraduate students), and, third, the researcher's goal to incorporate feminist activism into education. This goal is based on previous research indicating that many educators propose teaching Women's studies is, by its very nature, a form of feminist activism (Musil, 1992). The fourth, and possibly the most influential experience, was student response to the following statement "I developed awareness of societal problems due to this course" on the researcher's prior semester G101 course evaluations; the average agreement (of two separate classes) with this statement was 3.66 on a 1 to 4 point scale. This value placed the gender studies course in the 93rd percentile of all other College of Arts and Sciences courses measuring this response. Identification of the variables associated with

this social awareness (possibly contributing to personal change) became an important motivation and component of the study and offers support for the connection between feminism, gender studies, and personal change.

The course explores the diverse interconnections between biological sex, gender, and cultural discourses on femininity and masculinity with an emphasis on encouraging students to analytically and critically think about issues associated with gender.

Furthermore, the course examines historical and contemporary perspectives of the interaction between gender and culture and the resulting conditions that have created societies predisposed to define individuals by sex and gender.

Specifically, topics addressed include gender role development, gender identity, family and households, education and gender, sexism and language, media influences, women's health, body image and the beauty ideal, sexuality and sexual expression, crime and justice, the sexual division of labor and economic development, and perspectives on feminist movements. Lectures, readings, and class discussions consider how people of different races, ethnicities, classes, and nationalities are affected by these issues. The course offers an overview of gender issues in addition to being preparation for students interested in planning to undertake further or more advanced studies of gender, either within disciplines or within interdisciplinary gender studies.

Assignments in the course are designed to encourage the previously noted four elements of feminist pedagogy, participatory learning, validation of personal experience and development of confidence, encouragement to develop political/social understanding and activism, and encouragement to develop critical thinking skills and open-mindedness.

Feminist Perspective Development

Gender studies classes have been shown to be effective in supporting personal change related to feminism and to the development of a “feminist identity” or a “feminist perspective” (Bargard & Hyde, 1991). The current study’s use of the term feminist perspective reflects a complex developmental process that may be very gradual in its progression. The first part of the definition, the awareness of the existence of dichotomous and inequitable gender roles, is not a belief commonly held by most individuals in our culture as the majority of the population (both women and men) remains within the boundaries of an “unconscious ideology” (Bem & Bem, 1984). For example, Bem (1993) proposes that the adoption of gender roles is so ingrained in our society that most individuals do not “see” gender nor understand their own gender identity and therefore function under social expectations that constrict and mold female and male children into specific gender-typed roles in society. Furthermore, the interpretation of this ideology as “unconscious” is reflective of the individual’s unawareness of being constricted and molded into specific gender roles. As an example in contrast to this unconscious ideology, Bandura (2001) defines “consciousness” as the very substance of mental life that renders life manageable and productive. A functional consciousness involves purposely accessing and deliberate processing of information for selecting, constructing, regulating, and evaluating courses of action. To meet this condition of the definition, an individual must have this understanding of consciousness and clearly distinguish how society constructs and is constructed around gender roles.

The second part of the definition, a perception of the injustice of such gender roles, is central to a feminist perspective in that it is quite possible for an individual to be

aware of inequities but accept these inequities as the natural way of being (Bem, 1993). In accepting the injustice, the individual will continue to function in a socially prescribed manner and fail to react to the imbalance to reflect a feminist perspective. In rejecting inequities as the natural way of being (Bem, 1993), an individual may have the potential to effect self-change as well as societal change.

Finally, the third part of the definition, a philosophy of women as equally valued (as men) members of society, is based on feminist interpretations of hierarchical structures found in our society. For example, feminist theorists assert that culture is organized around a patriarchal system; that is, a social organization marked by the supremacy of fathers/males and, furthermore, is based on androcentrism (men are the standard against which all others are judged). The concept of androcentrism creates the category of the “other”, a category of individuals (including women) given less value than the standard. To develop a feminist perspective, it is important for an individual to become aware of the patriarchy, androcentrism, and the social construction of value judgments of the “other” to move beyond these stereotypes and consider women as equally valued (as men) members of society.

Individuals with a feminist perspective may differ from others in society in their developmental patterns and in their willingness to consider variations from stereotypic gender roles. Hogeland (1998) notes that the development of a feminist identity or perspective requires the individual to oppose mainstream culture, display criticism of fundamental societal institutions, and engage in self-examination and self-expansion. This break from mainstream ideologies may be a difficult task for any individual but specifically so for young adults; the age range in this study.

To gain perspective on the complex and extensive process of developing a feminist perspective, further examination of the Downing and Roush (1985) model in connection to the intervention course is worthwhile. This model provides a framework for understanding the developmental process many students go through in confronting the information presented in gender studies courses and in accommodating the personal meaning of this content in their lives.

Gender inequity acceptance is the first step of the model and is characterized by a lack of awareness or denial of individual, institutional, and cultural discrimination against women. The authors propose that individuals who are experiencing gender inequity acceptance tend to concur with traditional gender role stereotypes and hierarchies and to avoid associations with individuals or experiences that would challenge this patriarchal world view. In the classroom setting, a student may display verbal challenges to course content during discussion time; for example, in response to the class topic examining societal expectations that women will be the primary care-giver for children, the student might remark “Women have nurturing tendencies to want to stay home with the children, that’s the way the world is supposed to be.”

The second step of the model, gender inequity awareness, suggests that women develop an openness to reevaluating ideas about the societal roles of women. Furthermore, this increased acceptance of reevaluation may be associated with higher levels of self-esteem or ego development. In the classroom, a student might, for example, display anger or disbelief after reading or discussing the gender inequities that exist in our society today.

Third, feminist perspective exploration involves two phases; first, women in the initial phase embed themselves in women's culture and women's company. An example of this behavior would be female students meeting outside of the classroom to discuss course content; a frequent occurrence in gender studies courses. In the second phase, women begin to view the world with more openness to alternative viewpoints and from a more relativistic perspective rather than dualistic perspective. For example, the student may begin to accept more flexibility in individual behaviors such as the acceptance of androgyny in addition to femininity and masculinity as options for gender identity. In addition, women experiencing exploration form more flexible and adaptive coping strategies and begin to interact, although cautiously, with men.

Fourth, Downing and Roush (1985) propose that when women reach the feminist perspective development step of the model, they begin to value the positive aspects of being female and are able to integrate these positive components into their own identities. This category addresses the concept of androcentrism (Bem, 1993) in that culture so often devalues femininity or behaviors associated with femininity (masculinity is the standard against which all others are judged, Bem, 1993) and individuals who begin to value femininity move beyond this socialized notion of value. The student who embraces this concept may, for example, begin to believe that a typically "feminine" behavior such as completing household chores is equally important as the "masculine" behavior being gainfully employed and financially supporting a family. Society places differing values on these behaviors through financially rewarding one (being employed outside the home) and not the other (completing household chores); the individual who can value these behaviors independent from social values may be developing a feminist perspective.

The final step, feminist perspective consolidation, is characterized by women's translation of feminist identities into a focus on societal change with the goal of eliminating oppression (for example, women may be dedicated to working for women's rights). Downing and Roush (1985) suggest that few women reach feminist perspective consolidation. The description of this category would suggest that an individual reaching feminist consolidation would display some form of feminist activism such as participating in a march for women's rights or volunteering in a domestic violence shelter.

Individual Influences and Personal Change

In addition to examining how a gender studies course may affect students' feminist perspectives, it is relevant to address student characteristics that may be related to students' feminist perspectives when they begin the course. Individual differences in processing course content may affect the resulting personal change for each student.

Biological sex. Individuals enter gender studies courses with many differences but, as is proposed in the model, one important difference contributing to the development of a feminist perspective may be biological sex. First, Bem (1993) asserts that, based on biological sex, children are socialized to accept their specific society's "gender lens" (i.e., assumptions about femininity and masculinity) in the development of their beliefs about gender. According to Bem (1993), biological sex interacts with societal gender lenses to assist the individual in constructing an appropriate gender schema to assist in their organization of the gendered world. Bem (1993) attributes the primary influences of biological sex differences to originate not from biological factors,

rather, from sociocultural influences and from society's explicit and implicit messages about values and significant differences of gender.

However, in contrast to Bem's (1993) position on biological influences, it is quite likely that genetic predispositions may interact with socialization and environmental factors in affecting the expression of inherited tendencies. For example, a young girl displaying traditionally feminine behaviors may be encouraged by parents to continue such behavior in favor of masculine behaviors. Inherited biological factors may also have a small effect on the different sex interaction patterns of boys and girls. For example, Maccoby (1998) proposes that biological predispositions interact with socialization factors to encourage boys and girls to interact in distinctive ways with peers which, in turn, fosters sex segregation and the development of a different culture for boys and a different culture for girls. As this process of gender-typing continues, socially defined masculinity continues to be the goal for males and socially defined femininity the goal for most females in constructing a gender identity. The male role is more clearly defined and there is more pressure for boys to conform to gender appropriate standards than for girls to conform to these standards (Lippa, 2002). Furthermore, our society offers additional incentives for males to achieve this goal; western culture is predominantly male oriented with more esteem, privileges, and status connected to the male role (Lippa, 2002). Given this strong pattern of socialization and the more privileged status associated with the male role, males in the course were expected to be less affected by the experience of enrollment in a gender studies class.

In addition, there may exist alienation factors in the structure of gender studies courses that could contribute to males being less affected by the course. With its focus on

women's issues, gender studies classes tend to lessen this prioritization of the male role which may result in an atypical classroom experience for many men. Miner (1994) found that men in gender studies classes may encounter a position of minority status and report being highly visible, subject to being stereotyped, and encounter a loss of individuality. In a comparison of women's studies course instructors and non-women's studies course instructors, Hartung (1990) found a more negative pattern of responses for women's studies instructors from both women and men in the classes; a higher pattern of negativity was found for male students. It is possible that these patterns reflect different experiences in women's studies courses for men.

In the course examined in the present study, an attempt was made to create an open environment for both females and males. As can be noted (see Appendix A), the course focused a week of the semester on the social construction of masculinity and issues related to men were incorporated throughout the semester. However, a significant part of the material in the gender studies course focused on men's societal roles and contributions to oppression; this information would more likely be disregarded by male students in an effort to maintain gender dominance and positive gender self-confidence.

Parental gender role models. Another important influence in the socialization process is parental role models. Parental role models may be important transmission modes of social interpretations of gender and, based on this notion, students' experiences within the family were expected to be related to students' feminist perspectives when they began the course (see Figure 1). Specifically, variations in parental gender role models within the family setting may be related to students' feminist perspectives before they begin the course. If non-traditional parental gender roles were modeled in the

students' homes, then the students may be more likely to have a feminist perspective before beginning the course. In particular, they may be less accepting of gender inequities than students with more traditional parental gender role models.

Research supports the notion that girls and boys from less traditionally defined families (mother is employed outside the home) tend to display less stereotyped concepts of gender appropriate behavior, and the girls may display fewer gender-typed behaviors (Huston & Alvarez, 1990; Lerner, 1994). Jones and McBride (1980) found that children of mothers not employed outside of the home responded to a questionnaire in a more gender-typed manner than did children of mothers employed outside of the home; these children responded in a gender neutral manner. In a study of the traditionality of children's interests, Barak, Feldman, and Noy (1991) reported that the traditionality of mothers' occupations significantly correlated with the traditionality of the interests of both boys and girls. Research on young adults' gender role attitudes found mixed results depending on the gender role attitudes being examined (Katz & Walsh, 1991). The participant's age when his or her mother began working outside the home was significant and females expressed more egalitarian views concerning gender role attitudes when the mother was employed outside of the home. However, mother employment outside of the home is now so common in our society that boys and girls gender concepts may be affected more by the increased presence of women in the workplace than the effect of their own mothers working (Ruble & Martin, 1998; Serbin, Powlishta, & Gulko, 1993).

The hierarchy modeled by parents may also affect gender identity. Parental power has been shown to have a greater influence on boys' gender-typing than on girls' gender typing (Lippa, 2002). In identification with a masculine role, the dominant

mother/passive father combination affects boys (boys with a dominant mother but passive father will tend to exhibit feminine characteristics) but will result in no significant effect on girls' femininity (Katz & Walsh, 1991). In contrast, dominant fathers are more likely to have highly masculine sons (Hetherington, 1967).

Based on this previous research, it was expected that students with non-traditional parental gender role models would be more likely than students with traditional parental role models to report a feminist perspective before beginning the course.

Sexism. Another aspect of experience that may be related to students' feminist perspectives before they begin the course is their experience with sexism. Based on biological sex, these events may differ in amount, type, and effect of event occurrence. These occurrence differences tend to result in a more "hostile" culture of sexism for women in comparison to men. It is possible this sexist environment adds another dimension to the development of a feminist perspective by increasing one's awareness of social norms and expectations of gender which, in turn, will influence how students process the information presented in a gender studies course. However, experience with sexism was expected to be an effective predictor only for females because men do not experience sexist events as often as women, therefore, this occurrence is not as relevant for men.

Research has found widespread discrimination against women in many areas. Lott (1987, 1989) found evidence of sexual discrimination in language and verbal exchanges in the tendencies of others to ignore and to distance women in face-to-face situations. In addition, studies have revealed sexual harassment of female students, faculty (Landrine & Klonoff, 1995), and unfair and unequal treatment of women in employment, housing, and

health and social services (Feagin & Feagin, 1978; Krieger, 1990). Large percentages of women have reported some type of sex discrimination in their lives (Krieger, 1990) and data supports the notion that younger women tend to report more sex discrimination than do older women (Krieger, 1990). Life occurrences such as these may be conceptualized as sexist events and, for the purpose of assessment, can be likened to general stressful life events (Landrine & Klonoff, 1995). Measures used to assess sexist events emphasize timing of the events (recent and lifetime); this dichotomy assists in differentiating between the impact of recent sexist discrimination and lifetime sexist discrimination.

Bem (1993) interprets sexist events or sexism through the concept of androcentrism; the ideology of men's superiority to women as well as this being the standard against which all women are judged. According to Bem (1993), social systems support the occurrence of the discriminatory acts many women will encounter throughout their lives. In Bem's (1993) model, sexist events are regarded as sociocultural influences on gender development. These events may translate as a catalyst for awareness of gender role differences for females. If a woman has encountered many and a variety of sexist events, both acute and lifetime, then it is probable that she may have an increased awareness of such inequities. In the present study, experience with sexism was expected to be an effective predictor only for females because men do not experience sexist events as often as women; therefore, this occurrence is not as relevant for men.

In connection to the Downing and Roush (1985) model of feminist perspective development (see Table 1), experiencing sexism may affect gender inequity awareness as individuals moving to this level are motivated to progress by a series of crises which results in open questioning of self and gender roles in addition to feelings of anger, guilt

and dualistic thinking (Downing & Roush, 1985). Liss, Crawford, and Popp (2004) found significant correlations between reporting an experience of sexist discrimination and collective activism; the term collective activism corresponds to Downing and Roush's last model component, feminist perspective consolidation defined as the commitment to meaningful action, to a non-sexist world. The authors also found a significant correlation between reporting an experience of discrimination and enrolling in a class that focused on women's issues (Liss et al., 2004).

Sexism was not an assigned topic in G101; however, this topic was pervasive in many of the readings, discussions, and material presented in the course. A very commonly discussed area of sexism was noted in the workplace and connected to employment issues (see Appendix A).

Gender Self-Confidence. An individual difference that may be related to students' feminist perspectives before they begin the gender studies course is gender self-confidence (see Figure 1). Hoffman and Border's (2001) concept of gender self-confidence addresses self-evaluative aspects of gender identity; for example, how one interprets and accepts her/his socioculturally defined gender identity may differ from the strength of belief that one meets or adheres to her/his personal standards of femininity and masculinity and this interaction may affect feminist identity development. Defined as the strength of belief that one meets or adheres to her/his personal standards of femininity and masculinity (Hoffman, Borders, & Hattie, 2000), gender self-confidence is connected to gender identity and contained within the global term of gender self-concept which, in turn, may be related to general self-concept. Gender self-confidence asks evaluative

questions of gender identity in representing feelings of individual competency of meeting self-imposed standards of femininity and masculinity (Lewin, 1984).

For the related concept of self-esteem, Carpenter and Johnson (2001) found that women's collective self-esteem (derived from being a member of their gender group) systematically varies with their differing degrees of feminist perspective in the Downing and Roush (1985) model of feminist identity development. These authors found that some women do derive a significant portion of self-esteem from their gender group membership; however, when the negative aspects of feminine roles are more prominent, self-evaluation may be deflated. In contrast, when the positive aspects are more prominent, self-esteem is enhanced. The "value" associated with feminine roles can impact whether women's self-perceptions are more positive or negative.

Downing and Roush (1985) also noted an increase in self-esteem as an associated variable with the gender inequity component (in reevaluation of existing social norms and standards) of their model. In comparison to non-gender studies students, gender studies students reported higher self-esteem on this step in the model. Stake and Gerner (1987) explored changes in students' self-esteem as a result of enrollment in gender studies. They found that gender studies students displayed higher posttest scores on the Performance Self-Esteem Scale and showed greater increases in self-esteem over the semester than did control students. Interestingly, no significant gender differences between females and males were found indicating that gender studies classes may affect males in a similar manner as females. In a recent study, Malkin and Stake ((2004) found significant increases in self-confidence for both women and men in women's and gender studies classes.

Gender self-confidence adds an evaluative component to the development of a feminist perspective. As one becomes aware of dichotomous and inequitable gender roles, the injustice of such gender roles, and the value of women in society, how does one merge this feminist perspective ideology with feelings or beliefs that one meets or adheres to her/his personal standards of femininity and masculinity (Hoffman et al., 2000)? Furthermore, how does one assimilate and accommodate the somewhat negative connotations of this perspective and maintain a positive sense of gender self-confidence?

Gender self-confidence was not a specific topic of study in G101. This issue was addressed through an examination of media, body image, and the beauty ideal (see Appendix A). Individuals in the gender studies course who become aware of issues related to gender self-confidence were expected to begin to value women's place in society and experience accompanying positive outcomes in gender self-confidence more than students in the education course. In addition, students who enter the course with higher gender self-confidence were expected to develop a feminist perspective to a greater degree than students with lower gender self-confidence.

Gender Identity. Finally, the experience of the gender studies course was expected to change student gender identity. Gender identity is defined as the perception of self as feminine or masculine (Huston, 1983; Ruble & Martin, 1998) and is closely related to gender-typing (the process of acquiring a feminine or masculine gender).

Identification of self as female or male, as well as others' social identification of you as female or male, is a powerful socialization influence in one's life. Gender-based beliefs, primarily derived from gender stereotypes (common beliefs of acceptable attitudes and behaviors for each sex) evolve from standards of masculinity and femininity

to influence individual understanding and acceptance of masculine or feminine gender roles (Lippa, 2002). As part of an on-going process, individuals assimilate and accommodate specific gender-typed beliefs to construct a gender identity. The construction of this gender identity follows a specific pattern for most individuals (Huston, 1983; Ruble & Martin, 1998). At birth, parents and adults promote gender appropriate behaviors through choices of clothing, toys, and gender-typed expectations; girls may be described as “sweet” and “gentle” whereas boys may be described as “active” and “strong” (Beal, 1994; Fagot, & Hagan, 1991). By the age of one year, children recognize male and female faces as belonging to two separate categories. By two years of age, children can correctly label their own gender but they have a limited understanding of gender identity and the accompanying expectations of gender appropriate behaviors (Beal, 1994). At three years of age, children begin the process of gender-typing in an effort to acquire culturally specific appropriate gender behaviors. At this early age, children understand that they, and others, belong to a certain gender class and furthermore, most children have clear preferences for gender appropriate toys and may become rigid in gender stereotyping tendencies (Golombok & Fivush, 1994).

From three to six years of age, research has found that children tend to be more stereotyped in their conceptualization of gender appropriate behaviors than are adults (Beal, 1994; Ruble & Martin, 1998). In addition, children begin to understand the concept of gender stability, the notion that gender does not change; males remain males and females remain females, from four to five years old. However, this concept is not fully developed until age seven. By middle childhood, research has shown that boys and girls have identified the dimensions of femininity and masculinity and perceive

themselves as being different from each other in gender-typed ways (Davis, Williams & Best, 1982; Hall & Halberstadt, 1980). By the time boys and girls are six to seven, both genders spend the majority of social time in same-gender groups (Kagan & Moss, 1962; Ruble & Martin, 1998; Serbin et al. 1993); this preference to remain with same sex individuals further reinforces the tendency to develop gender appropriate behaviors. Furthermore, Hall and Halberstadt (1980) found that as children mature, both boys and girls become more masculine and girls become less feminine. It is possible that girls may not endorse feminine characteristics as they grow older because they realize that the feminine role is less valued by the culture (Hall & Halberstadt, 1980). The research in the area of children's adjustment and their endorsement of feminine and masculine traits is limited and the results have been mixed (Hall & Halberstadt, 1980; Lobel & Winch, 1992; Silvern & Katz, 1986). To and beyond adolescence, most individuals continue this path of development in acquiring and displaying gender appropriate behaviors and the majority of gender identity development theories have focused on these time periods in life. Few attempts have been made to extend theories of gender identity development to include early, middle, or late adulthood.

Prominent theories addressing gender identity, and specifically relevant to the present study, are social learning, cognitive developmental, and enculturated lens theories of gender identity. Social learning theorists assert that children learn how to appropriately behave as a male or female through a focus on observable events and the subsequent consequences of those events (Bandura, 1989). Furthermore, children develop gender identities by being rewarded for gender-typed behavior and punished for gender inappropriate behavior; these rewards are often direct and take the form of praise or

admonishment. Cognitive developmental theorists posit that children acquire gender-appropriate behaviors (and gender stereotypes) through the mental processes used to organize their social environment (Kohlberg, 1966). According to this theory, young children follow a natural predilection of pattern seeking, discover specific gender categories and expectations, and then construct a self and an accompanying set of gender-appropriate social rules (Bem, 1993).

An alternative theory, which includes both aspects of social learning and cognitive developmental, was developed by Sandra Bem (1993) as a perspective on children's acquisition of gender-appropriate behaviors. According to Bem's (1993) enculturated lens theory of gender formation, children are socialized to accept their specific society's assumptions about masculinity and femininity. Furthermore, these assumptions are embedded in cultural discourses, social institutions, and individual psychological schemes and are systematically and invisibly reproduced through generations. Acceptance of these assumptions results in an individual's predisposition to view the world through society's "gender lenses" thereby adhering to and maintaining an invisible system of masculinity and femininity. These gender lenses include three types, gender polarization, androcentrism, and biological essentialism (Bem, 1993). Gender polarization refers to the concept of societal interpretations of males and females as different and as constituting a central organizing principle for gender divisions in society. As noted, Bem (1993) uses the term androcentrism to refer to the ideology of men's superiority to women as well as this being the standard against which all women are judged. Finally, biological essentialism, according to Bem (1993), serves to justify and legitimize gender polarization and androcentrism by representing these concepts as

natural and biological. This enculturation is reinforced and maintained by institutionalized social practices as well as implicit lessons about gender values and significant differences between males and females. From birth, this system organizes a child's daily life view of the gendered world (Bem, 1993).

Most individuals do not question their gender identity; rather, this part of identity is incorporated into the self and the related gender-typed behaviors are performed as a matter of course. Adoption of gender roles is so ingrained in our society that most individuals do not "see" gender nor understand their own gender identity. Furthermore, Bem (1993) proposes that any given culture promotes hidden assumptions of male and female gender-typed behaviors. In an attempt to study a concept as "invisible" as gender identity, Bem (1985) developed an assessment instrument, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). This instrument is intended to measure differences in how individuals perceive themselves in terms of stereotyped masculine and feminine behaviors as a measure of their gender identity. Bem wrote:

... the BSRI was founded on a conception of the sex-typed person as someone who has internalized society's sex-typed standards of desirable behavior for men and women. These personality characteristics were selected as masculine or feminine on the basis of sex-typed social desirability, and not on the basis of differential endorsement by males and females as most other inventories have done. That is, a characteristic qualified as masculine if it was judged to be more desirable in American society for a man than for a woman, and it qualified as feminine if it was judged to be more desirable for a woman than for a man (1974, p. 155).

Individuals are placed (using their masculinity and femininity scores) into one of four separate dimensions; high masculine and low feminine, high feminine and low masculine, androgynous (high feminine and high masculine), and undifferentiated (low feminine and low masculine). While the terms feminine and masculine are widely used

and understood, the term “androgynous” coined by Bem (1974) refers to the combination of the Greek roots andro (male) and gyn (female), and is defined as a balance or blending of masculinity and femininity. Bem (1974) proposed that androgynous individuals would display more behavioral flexibility than traditional gender-typed individuals. This proposal is supported in Bem’s (1993) assertion that a number of relatively traditional women and men who choose to reverse some critical component of female or male gender expectations may be placed in the category of this non-traditional gender identity. In addition to androgyny, Bem (1974) offered the term “undifferentiated” which reflects an uncertainty or a lack of specified classification into one of the four dimensions. Furthermore, these differences in gender identity may be related to willingness to label oneself as a feminist. Toller, Suter, and Trautman (2004) found a positive relationship between women high in masculinity and non-traditional attitudes toward gender roles and a positive relationship between male participants high in femininity and the willingness to label self as a feminist and a negative relationship between male participants high in masculinity and the willingness to label self as a feminist.

The topic of gender identity was extensively addressed in the gender studies course in the current study; first, in readings and discussions concerning the differences between sex and gender, second, in readings and discussions of early childhood and development, and third, in reference to the social construction of femininity and masculinity. Issues of gender were also included in most other focus areas of study (see Appendix A). In addition, as part of the study and class, the students completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory (1985) and were given information concerning theoretical interpretations underlying the concept of measuring gender identity. This course content

increased student awareness in two ways; they became aware of the restrictive and oppressive nature of socially constructed gender roles in addition to becoming more aware of their own gender identity as measured on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (1974). The development of this awareness was expected to result in a change or variation in gender identity for students completing the gender studies course. Specifically, it was expected that the course may influence a feminine or masculine identity to become more androgynous and an undifferentiated identity to become more androgynous, feminine, or masculine.

Research Questions

Limited research has been done to address how individual students are affected by completing a gender studies course. Based on existing research, the present study has identified the following relevant variables as contributing to a feminist perspective; educational experiences, self-reported biological sex, parental role model influences, life experiences (sexist events), gender identity and self-confidence. The following research questions guided this study:

1. Students' sex was expected to be related to students' feminist perspectives before they began the course and to play a role in how the course affects personal change. Males were expected to hold less feminist perspective before they began the course and to be less affected by the course because male roles are presently held in higher societal esteem. Any information concerning men's societal roles and contributions to oppression would more likely be disregarded in an effort to maintain gender dominance and positive gender self-confidence.

2. Students' experiences within the family and in society and students' cognitions about gender (gender self-confidence) were expected to be related to students' feminist perspective when they began the course. Parents' gender models, students' experiences with sexism, and students' gender self-confidence were expected to be effective predictors of the students' feminist perspectives at the beginning of the course. This was expected because parental role models are powerful influences in socialization for most individuals. Gender self confidence factors may influence cognitive processes that are congruent with perceived assigned gender roles. However, experience with sexism was expected to be an effective predictor only for females because men do not experience sexist events as often as women, therefore, this occurrence is not as relevant for men. It is more common for individuals to give attention to information they label as relevant to self.
3. Students completing a gender studies course were expected to develop a feminist perspective to a greater degree than students completing an education course. This was expected because gender studies students are exposed to historical and contemporary information concerning the inequities of gender roles and the treatment of women in society. This knowledge was expected to stimulate critical thinking about issues related to gender and to encourage a reexamination of gender statuses in society, both personal and societal.

4. Students completing the gender studies courses were expected to develop greater gender self-confidence than students completing the education course. This was expected to occur because of gender studies students' increased understanding of the fundamental reasons women have been placed in an unequal position relative to men in society. Awareness of these issues was expected to increase the conviction that one is a valued member of society and that there are societal, rather than personal, variables associated with a lower status in society.
5. Students completing the gender studies courses were expected to be more likely than students who complete an education course to experience a reported personal change in gender identity. This was expected because students in a gender studies course are exposed to the knowledge that society holds specific expectations related to gender and that this may be affecting their own behavior; regardless of their personal inclinations of femininity and masculinity. For example, society expects females to be passive and a student may be, again, regardless of personal inclinations, exhibiting passive behaviors to conform to societal expectations. A reassessment of personal behaviors in relation to societal expectations was expected to occur as a result of enrollment in a gender studies course. This reassessment could contribute to an appraisal of individual gender identity and possibly lead to personal change. Females were expected to experience personal change from feminine to masculine or androgynous. This was expected because females would be exposed to course content

presenting societal interpretations of the male role as more valuable. In addition, females may change as they become more aware of how society influences women to fit the feminine role, regardless of personal inclinations, and they may choose to disregard this influence. Males were expected to experience a personal change from masculine to feminine or androgynous. These changes were expected because males would become more aware of how society influences men to fit the masculine role and they may choose to disregard this influence. Undifferentiated individuals were expected to change to feminine, masculine or androgynous because of the effect of exposure to course content in identifying the choices and helping them to define a role.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Participants

The participants were 108 undergraduate female students and 10 undergraduate male students (mean age = 19.7, range = 18 to 22) from a Midwestern university enrolled in an introductory gender studies course entitled Women, Gender, and Culture (G101) during spring semester, 2003. The majority of students were enrolled in their sophomore year (25 freshmen, 57 sophomores, 17 juniors, and 19 seniors). The majority was white (104 White, 2 African-American, 4 Hispanic, 3 Asian or Pacific Islander). Four students listed gender studies as their major area and 15 students listed gender studies as their minor area of study. Mean number of years of education for fathers was 15.9 and for mothers 15.8 (range = 11 to 21 years).

A total of 24 undergraduate female students and 24 undergraduate male students enrolled in two education courses, at the same Midwestern university, participated in the study as a control group. Initial control data were collected on 9 undergraduate female students and 5 undergraduate male students in an education course, P255: "Educational Psychology for Teachers of All Grades" during the spring semester 2003 and additional control data were collected on a group of 15 undergraduate female students and 19 undergraduate male students in an education course, P313: "Adolescents in a Learning Community" during spring semester 2004. The majority of control group students were enrolled in their junior year (6 freshmen, 16 sophomores, 19 juniors, and 7 seniors). The majority was white (43 White, 2 African-American, 4 Hispanic, 6 other). Mean number of years of education for fathers was 15.9 and for mothers 15.5 (range = 11 to 21 years).

Differences between gender studies and education students at the beginning of the semester were tested using a MANOVA. As can be noted (see Table 2), the gender studies students and the education students were not significantly different in years in college, and mother's or father's education. The two groups were significantly different in age; gender studies students were younger than education students and significantly different in the number of gender studies classes taken; gender studies students had taken more gender studies classes than education students.

Procedure

Students in the two courses completed questionnaires at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester. During class time the first week of the semester, the course grader asked the gender studies students to complete five questionnaires (contained in a manila envelope in random order) assessing gender-related issues (see Appendix J). Students' privacy was protected by using the last 4 digits of their student ID numbers instead of their names on the questionnaires. The questionnaires were: an information sheet (see Appendix B) and the five questionnaires; the Feminist Perspective Composite (see Appendices C and D), the Hoffman Gender Self-Confidence Scale (see Appendices E and F), the Bem Sex Role Inventory (see Appendix G), the Schedule of Sexist Events (see Appendix H), and the Parental Gender Role Model Inventory (see Appendix I). The course grader further explained to the students that this study would increase research knowledge concerning the possible changes in their thoughts that may occur throughout the semester in relation to gender studies. Students were assured that their participation was voluntary and their responses would be confidential. After completion of the questionnaires, the course grader collected the questionnaires

Table 2

Group Differences between Gender Studies Students and Education Students for

Demographic Data

<i>Demographic</i>	<i>Gender Studies</i>		<i>Education</i>		<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Age	19.7	1.1	20.6	2.3	11.14**
Years in college	2.2	.97	2.6	.90	2.86
Number of gender studies classes	.53	.82	.27	.54	5.21*
Mother's education level	15.8	1.3	15.5	1.3	.77
Father's education level	15.9	1.6	15.9	1.6	.06

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

n = 118 (gender studies students). n = 48 (education students)

(which had been placed back into the manila envelope by the student) and then gave the completed questionnaires to the researcher at the end of the class session (see Appendix J).

During class time at the end of the semester, the course grader asked the students to again complete the Feminist Perspective Composite questionnaire, the Hoffman Gender Self-Confidence Scale, and the Bem Sex Role Inventory. At this point, the students were given the option of signing or declining to sign a consent form as in accordance with human subjects requirements (see Appendices K and L) for participation in the study. Forty-two of the students in the gender studies courses declined to participate or were not in class the day consent forms were collected and their data were discarded; this number represents 23% of total class enrollment ($n = 180$).

Students in the education course received the same instructions as the students in the gender studies course (see Appendix J). During class time at the beginning of the semester, the course instructor asked students to complete three questionnaires (contained in a manila envelope in random order) assessing gender-related issues. Students' privacy was protected by using the last 4 digits of their student ID numbers instead of their names on the questionnaires. The questionnaires were: an information sheet (see Appendix B) and the three questionnaires; the Feminist Perspective Composite (see Appendices C and D), the Hoffman Gender Self-Confidence Scale (see Appendices E and F), and the Bem Sex Role Inventory (see Appendix G). During class time at the end of the semester, the course instructor asked the students to again complete the Feminist Perspective Composite questionnaire, the Hoffman Gender Self-Confidence Scale, and the Bem Sex Role Inventory. At this point, the students were given the option of signing or declining

to sign a consent form for participation in the study as in accordance with human subjects requirements (see Appendices L and M) for participation in the study. Sixteen of the students in the education courses declined to participate and their data were discarded; this number represents 53% of total class enrollment ($n = 30$).

Measures

Gender identity. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (Appendix G) was used to assess gender identity. The 60 item questionnaire consists of 20 masculine, 20 feminine, or 20 neutral adjectives (designed to measure social desirability bias). For example, masculine items in the BSRI include: “independent” and “forceful”; feminine items include “sensitive to the needs of others” and “affectionate”; and neutral items used to test social desirability bias include “happy” and “truthful”. An individual rates herself or himself on a 1 - 7 point scale (1 = Never or almost never true, 2 = Usually not true, 3 = Sometimes but infrequently true, 4 = Occasionally true, 5 = Often true, 6 = Usually true, 7 = Always or almost always true). Masculine, feminine, and neutral subscale scores are calculated by averaging items for that subscale. Bem reported good test-retest reliability and internal consistency for the subscales with alphas ranging from .90 to .93 and from .80 to .86 respectively (Bem, 1974). The present study found Cronbach’s alphas of .82, .89, and .55 for feminine, masculine, and social desirability subscales, respectively. The present study calculated feminine, masculine, and social desirability subscale scores in accordance with a method developed by Orlofsky, Aslin, and Ginsburg (1977). The difference between a participant’s femininity and masculinity score was multiplied by a constant (2.322) to obtain an androgyny (*t*-ratio) score. Participants were then categorized as feminine-typed if their androgyny score was greater than +1 and masculine-typed if

their androgyny score was less than -1. Participants with androgyny scores between +1 and -1 were categorized as androgynous. In addition, participants scoring in the androgynous range whose femininity and masculinity scores are both below the median scores for these classifications are categorized as undifferentiated in sex-role orientation (see Table 3).

Gender self-confidence. A shortened version of the Hoffman Gender Scale (2000) (with additional items developed and added) was used to assess gender self-confidence (see Appendices E and F). The questionnaire consists of 15 items, rated on a 1 – 4 scale, and 3 open-ended items (not used in the analysis of the present study). There were two forms of the scale, Form A for females and Form B for males. An example of the rated items on Form A is “I am confident in my femininity and I have a high regard for myself as female”. An example of a Form A open-ended question is “How is your physical appearance related to your femininity”? An overall gender self-confidence score was calculated by averaging the item scores. Internal consistency in previous studies for the measure was .94 for the females and .94 for males (Hoffman et al., 2000). The present study found a Cronbach’s alpha of .85 for combined female and male samples.

Experience with sexism. The Schedule of Sexist Events questionnaire (see Appendix H) was used to assess individuals’ perception of sexist discrimination (Landrine & Klonoff, 1995). The 30-item scale was designed to measure the frequency of sexist events for women only; however, for the purposes of the present study, the scale was modified to assess the frequency of sexist events for men as well. Examples of the items are: “How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by teachers or professors because you are a woman/man? and How many times have you wanted to tell

Table 3

Number of Females and Males for Each of the Types of Gender Identity Before and After the Semester

	<i>Gender Studies Class</i>						<i>Education Class</i>					
	<i>Females</i>		<i>Males</i>		<i>Both</i>		<i>Females</i>		<i>Males</i>		<i>Both</i>	
	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>
Androgynous	22	30	4	1	26	31	8	11	6	7	14	18
Masculine	25	28	1	6	26	34	4	4	6	6	10	10
Feminine	42	32	3	1	45	33	11	9	3	2	14	11
Undifferentiated	19	18	2	2	21	20	1	0	9	9	10	9
Total	108	108	10	10	118	118	24	24	24	24	48	48

someone off for being sexist?” Items are rated on a 1 to 6-point Likert scale (1 = the event never happened, 2 = the event happened once in a while (less than 10% of the time), 3 = the event happened sometimes (10-25% of the time), 4 = the event happened a lot (26-69% of the time), 5 = the event happened most of the time (more than 70% of the time), to 6 = the event happened almost all of the time). Each item was rated twice to differentiate total lifetime sexist events from sexist events within the past year. A lifetime score and a recent score were calculated by averaging the items for each subscale.

Landrine and Klonoff (1995) reported lifetime subscale scores had a Cronbach’s alpha of .92 and split-half reliability of .87. The recent sexism events subscale scores had a Cronbach’s alpha of .90 and a split half reliability of .83. Moradi and Subich (2002) reported alphas of .92 and .91 for the lifetime and recent subscales, respectively. The present study found Cronbach’s alphas of .93 and .89 for the lifetime and recent subscales, respectively. The lifetime and recent subscales were averaged to create an overall score in the present study.

Parental Gender Roles. The Parental Gender Role Model questionnaire (Appendix I), constructed by the author, was used to assess parental gender role models during adolescence. The measure consists of 20 items to assess traditional and non-traditional parental gender role models. Examples of the items are “My father was dominant. My mother was affectionate.” Participants will be asked to rate the items on a 1 - 5 point Likert scale (1 = almost never true, 2 = occasionally true, 3 = sometimes true, 4 = usually true, 5 = almost always true). A total non-traditional score was obtained for each participant; items were averaged (after reverse coding for traditional items). The

present study found a Cronbach's alpha of .59 for the non-traditional parental role model scale.

Feminist Perspective. The Feminist Perspective Composite questionnaire (Appendices C and D) was used to assess pre-class and post-class feminist perspectives. The questionnaire is based on the Downing and Roush (1985) five stage model of feminist identity development (see Table 1) and was constructed from the Feminist Identity Scale (FIS-R) (Rickard, 1989) and the Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS) (Bargad & Hyde, 1991). Psychometric concerns about these two measures prompted Fischer, Tokar, Mergl, Good, Hill, and Blum (2000) to create the Feminist Identity Composite (FIC) from selected FIS and FIDS items. The scale is composed of 33 items (20 from the FIS and 13 from the FIDS). The participants are asked to rate statements relating to a feminist perspective on a 1- 5 point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = mildly disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = mildly agree, 5 = strongly agree). The scale assesses 5 areas of feminist perspective, gender inequity acceptance, gender inequity awareness, feminist perspective exploration, feminist perspective development, and feminist perspective consolidation. Subscale scores were calculated by averaging item ratings for each subscale with higher subscale mean scores indicating greater agreement with the corresponding feminist perspective subscale.

The gender inequity acceptance subscale contains 7 items. Examples of the items are: "I like being a traditional female. I think that most women will feel most fulfilled by being a wife and a mother". The gender inequity awareness subscale contains 8 items, for example, "I never realized until very recently that I have experienced oppression and discrimination as a woman in this society. Gradually, I am beginning to see just how

sexist society really is.” The feminist perspective exploration subscale has 4 items. Sample items are “I am very interested in women’s studies. I am very interested in women artists”. The feminist perspective development subscale has 5 items. Examples of the items are: “I enjoy the pride and self-assurance that comes from being a strong female. I have incorporated what is female and feminine into my own unique personality.” The feminist perspective consolidation subscale contains 9 items. Sample items include the following: “On some level, my motivation for almost every activity I engage in is my desire for an egalitarian world. I choose my ‘causes’ carefully to work for greater equality of all people.”

The questionnaire was originally developed to assess the feminist perspective development of women only; questionnaires administered to men were slightly modified (see Appendix D). For example, the gender inequity acceptance subscale statement “I like being a traditional female” was modified to “I like being a traditional male” and in the gender inequity awareness subscale the following statement “I never realized until very recently that I have experienced oppression and discrimination as a woman in this society” was modified to “I never realized until recently that women have experienced oppression and discrimination in this society.”

The subscales are internally consistent. In previous research, alphas ranged from .68 to .84 (Fischer et al., 2000). No stability data are presently available for the questionnaire. The present study found Cronbach’s alphas of .77, .75, .90, .80, and .91 for gender inequity acceptance, gender inequity awareness, feminist perspective exploration, feminist perspective development, and feminist perspective consolidation, respectively.

Chapter 4

Results

Biological Sex

Possible differences between females' and males' gender self-confidence, experiences with sexism, and parental gender roles at the beginning of the semester were tested using a MANOVA. Males and females did not differ in their gender self-confidence, experience with sexism, and parental non-traditional gender roles when they began the semester. However, there were only 34 males vs. 132 females for the t-test examining differences in gender self-confidence and only 10 males vs. 108 females for the t-tests examining differences in experiencing sexism and non-traditional parental gender roles (see Table 4).

Table 3 presents the number of females and males in the gender studies course for each of the types of gender identity before and after the semester. Most women in the gender studies course and the education course at the beginning of the semester described themselves using traditionally feminine descriptors (39% and 46% for the gender studies course and the education course, respectively). The limited number of males participating in the study limited the analysis of patterns for the males.

Possible differences between females' and males' precourse feminist perspectives were tested using a MANOVA (see Table 4). Males were more accepting of gender inequities and less developed in their feminist perspective than females at the beginning of the semester (see Table 5). Surprisingly, males were more aware of gender inequities than females.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Female and Male Differences for Pre-Course Gender Self-Confidence, Sexism, and Parental Gender Roles

<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Female</i>			<i>Male</i>			<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	
Gender Self-Confidence	3.4	.52	132	3.3	.54	34	.74
Sexism	2.1	.71	108	2.0	.59	10	.32
Parental Gender Roles	3.0	.45	108	2.8	.33	10	15

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Female and Male Differences for Pre-Course Feminist Perspective Subscale Scores

<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Female</i>		<i>Male</i>		<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Acceptance of Gender Inequities Score	2.7	.77	3.0	.62	4.03*
Awareness of Gender Inequities Score	2.5	.70	3.0	.60	9.82**
Exploration of Feminist Perspective Score	3.3	.92	3.1	.90	1.66
Development of Feminist Perspective Score	4.2	.65	3.9	.60	7.80**
Consolidation of Feminist Perspective Score	3.4	.68	3.3	.47	1.36

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

n = 132 (female). n = 34 (male)

Pre-Course Feminist Perspective Subscale Scores

Possible differences between students in the gender studies and education courses were tested using a MANOVA. Students in the gender studies course and education course did not differ in their pre-course feminist perspective scores (see Table 6).

Predictors of female gender studies students' pre-course feminist perspectives were tested using Pearson correlations (see Table 7) and five simultaneous multiple regression equations (see Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12). Experiences with sexism, gender self-confidence, and parental non-traditional gender role models were the predictors for each of the feminist perspective subscale scores (acceptance of gender inequities, awareness of gender inequities, exploration of feminist perspective, development of feminist perspective, consolidation of feminist perspective).

Sexism. Experience with sexism was a significant predictor of the acceptance of gender inequities (*Adjusted R*² = .13, $\beta = -.34$, $p < .00$, see Table 6), awareness of gender inequities (*Adjusted R*² = .17, $\beta = .43$, $p < .00$, see Table 7), exploration of feminist perspectives (*Adjusted R*² = .11, $\beta = .27$, $p < .00$, see Table 8), and consolidation of feminist perspectives (*Adjusted R*² = .09, $\beta = .32$, $p < .00$, see Table 10). Experience with sexism was not an effective predictor of the development of feminist perspectives (*Adjusted R*² = .02, $\beta = .04$, see Table 9).

Self-confidence. Although the bivariate correlations indicate that self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity was related to exploration of feminist perspectives, and the development of feminist perspectives (see Table 5), self-confidence was not a significant predictor of feminist perspective subscale scores when entered into a the regression equations with the 2 other predictors.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for Gender Studies Course and Education Course

Differences for Pre-Course Feminist Perspective Subscale Scores

<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Gender Studies Course</i>		<i>Education Course</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Acceptance of Gender Inequities Score	2.8	.77	2.90	.68
Awareness of Gender Inequities Score	2.6	.71	2.61	.67
Exploration of Feminist Perspective Score	3.3	.88	3.2	1.02
Development of Feminist Perspective Score	4.2	.54	4.0	.83
Consolidation of Feminist Perspective Score	3.4	.66	3.3	.60

* $p < .05$.

n = 108 (gender studies course). n = 34 (education course)

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Female Gender Studies Students' Pre-Course Feminist Perspective Subscale Scores and the Predictor Variables (n = 108)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Acceptance of Gender Inequities Score	2.8	.74	-	.						
2. Awareness of Gender Inequities Score	2.6	.70	-.06	-						
3. Exploration of Feminist Perspective Score	3.2	.92	-.37**	.33**	-					
4. Development of Feminist Perspective Score	4.1	.65	-.14	.11	.37**	-				
5. Consolidation of Feminist Perspective Score	3.4	.64	-.37**	.36**	.52**	.45**	-			

6. Life-long and prior year experience with sexism	2.1	.70	-.34**	.39**	.26**	.04	.32**	-		
7. Self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity	3.4	.52	-.10	-.10	-.20*	.20*	-.05	-.09	-	
8. Parental non-traditional gender role models	2.9	.44	-.09	-.07	-.03	-.03	-.09	.01	-.09	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8

*Regression Analysis Summary for Developmental Variables Predicting**Before Gender Studies Course Acceptance of Gender Inequities (females only)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Experience with sexism	-.38	.10	-.34*
Self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity	.23	.14	.15
Parental non-traditional gender role models	-.17	.16	-.10

Note. Adjusted $R^2 = .13$ ($N = 108$, $p = .00$).

* $p < .05$.

Table 9

*Regression Analysis Summary for Developmental Variables Predicting**Before Gender Studies Course Awareness of Gender Inequities (females only)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	<i>β</i>
Life-long and prior year experience with sexism	.43	.09	.43*
Self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity	-.05	.13	-.04
Parental non-traditional gender role models	-.12	.14	-.08

Note. Adjusted $R^2 = .17$ ($N = 108$, $p = .00$).

* $p < .05$.

Table 10

*Regression Analysis Summary for Developmental Variables Predicting**Before Gender Studies Course Exploration of Feminist Perspective (females only)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Life-long and prior year experience with sexism	.34	.12	.27*
Self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity	-.39	.16	-.22
Parental non-traditional gender role models	-.10	.18	-.05

Note. Adjusted $R^2 = .11$ ($N = 108$, $p = .00$)

* $p < .05$.

Table 11

Regression Analysis Summary for Developmental Variables Predicting

Before Gender Studies Course Development of Feminist Perspective (female)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Life-long and prior year experience with sexism	.03	.07	.04
Self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity	.16	.10	.16
Parental non-traditional gender role models	-.17	.11	-.15

Note. Adjusted $R^2 = .02$ ($N = 108$, $p = .14$)

Table 12

*Regression Analysis Summary for Developmental Variables Predicting
Before Gender Studies Course Consolidation of Feminist Perspective (female)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Life-long and prior year experience with sexism	.30	.09	.32*
Self-confidence in meeting personal standards of femininity	-.00	.12	-.00
Parental non-traditional gender role models	-.16	.14	-.11

Note. Adjusted $R^2 = .09$ ($N = 108$, $p = .01$)

* $p < .05$.

Parental gender role models. Parental non-traditional gender role models were not significant predictors of the feminist perspective subscale scores.

Post-Course Feminist Perspectives

At the end of the gender studies course, gender studies students were expected to have more feminist perspectives than education students. ANCOVAS for each subscale, controlling for before course feminist perspective scores, were performed (see Table 13). Awareness of gender inequities, exploration of feminist perspectives, development of feminist perspectives, and consolidation of feminist perspectives did not show significant differences. However, gender studies students were less accepting of gender inequities than education students at the end of the semester.

Gender Self-Confidence

It was expected that students completing the gender studies courses would develop greater gender self-confidence than students completing the education course. An ANCOVA was performed to test this hypothesis. The covariate was the pre-course gender self-confidence score and the dependent variable was the post-course self-confidence score. There was no difference between students in the gender studies course and the education course in gender self-confidence ($F = .13, p = .72$). Gender self-confidence was related to the development of a feminist perspective ($r(118) = .28, p = .00$) but not to the other four feminist perspective scores.

Gender Identity

Differences between gender studies and education students. It was hypothesized that students completing the gender studies course would be more likely than students

Table 13

*Means, Standard Deviations, and ANCOVAS Testing Differences Between Students in Gender Studies vs. Education Courses
Controlling for Before Course Feminist Perspective Subscales Scores*

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Gender Studies</i>		<i>Education</i>		<i>ANCOVA</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>
Acceptance of Gender Inequities	2.7	.78	3.0	.64	4.1*
Awareness of Gender Inequities	2.6	.70	2.7	.69	.60
Exploration of Feminist Perspective	3.2	.97	3.2	.85	.24
Development of Feminist Perspective	4.2	.68	3.9	.86	3.3
Consolidation of Feminist Perspective	3.4	.80	3.2	.61	.77

* $p < .05$.

completing the education course to change their gender identity. Likelihood Ratio Chi-square tests (see Table 14) revealed significant differences between gender studies students and education students in no change in gender identity ($\chi^2 = 51.4, p < .001$) change to androgynous ($\chi^2 = 4.0, p < .05$), change from feminine to masculine ($\chi^2 = 5.6, p < .05$), change from masculine to feminine ($\chi^2 = 6.4, p < .05$), and change from undifferentiated to feminine or masculine ($\chi^2 = 7.8, p < .05$). There was no significant difference in change from feminine to androgynous. Students in the gender studies course were less likely to have no change in gender identity than education students and more likely to change to androgynous, change from feminine to masculine, from masculine to feminine, and from undifferentiated to feminine or masculine. Of the 8 students in the gender studies course who changed from feminine to masculine, 6 were women and 2 were men. Of the 9 students in the gender studies course who changed from masculine to feminine, 9 were women and none were men. Of the 14 students who changed from feminine to androgynous, 13 were women and 1 was a man. Of the 11 students who changed from undifferentiated to feminine or masculine, 4 were women changing to masculine, 4 were women changing to feminine, 1 was a woman changing to androgynous, and 2 were men changing to masculine.

Relationship to feminist perspective. At the end of the course, possible differences between the four gender identity groups on the five feminist perspective subscale scores were tested using five ANOVAS. There were no differences between the four gender identity groups (feminine, masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated) on the five feminist perspective subscale scores with one exception. Students with feminine

identities were more accepting of female stereotypes than students with masculine identities ($F = 3.67, p < .01$).

Table 14

*Post-Course Differences in Gender Identity Categories for**Gender Studies and Education Students*

Variable	Gender Studies (n = 118)	Education (n = 48)	χ^2
No change in gender identity	40	44	51.4***
Change to androgynous	24	4	4.0*
Change from feminine to masculine	8	0	5.6*
Change from feminine to androgynous	14	3	1.3
Change from masculine to feminine	9	0	6.4*
Change from undifferentiated to feminine or masculine	11	0	7.8*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Chapter 5

Discussion

In the present study, students in the gender studies course reported a significantly greater effect on personal change than education students; this finding is consistent with previous research on gender studies courses and personal change. Pre-course measures revealed that experience with sexism was a significant predictor of the following feminist perspective self-reports: low acceptance of inequities, high awareness of inequities, high exploration of feminist perspective, and high consolidation of feminist perspective for female students. Post-course measures revealed that gender studies students were less accepting of gender inequities than education students. Gender studies students were also more likely to change their gender identities than education students. The present study offers support for gender studies courses as agents of personal change through influences on feminist perspective and gender identity.

Biological Sex

Students' biological sex was hypothesized to play a role in how the course affects personal change. Several analyses could not be performed due to the low number of male participants. However, it is interesting to note that the number of male participants was directly affected by a proportionally high number ($n = 15$ of 25 possible male participants) who would not consent to participate in the study. Although the absence of this data affected measurable results, a relevant connection between the hypothesized research outcome (the tendency to disregard course information to maintain gender dominance) and refusal to participate in the study may exist. It is possible that by not

consenting to participate in the study, the male students were displaying a tendency to reject information that may be in opposition to gender dominance.

In further support of this observation, the general pattern of gender identity change for males in the gender studies course was increased masculinity (see Table 4). Before the course, one male had a masculine gender identity. After the course, six males had a masculine identity with the additional five males before the course reporting an androgynous or feminine identity. The course may have increased males' identifications with the traditional masculine gender role. Although of merit, this interpretation of results needs further research to explore the possible reasons for the different reactions of male students versus female students to the course content.

Experience with Sexism

An important predictor of female students' feminist perspectives before taking the course was their experiences with sexism. Previous research reveals the existence of a range of gender specific stressors in women's lives; stressors that have the potential to lower quality of life standards for many women. With the same questionnaire used in the present study, (the Schedule of Sexist Events), Landrine and Klonoff (1995) found that sexist discrimination significantly contributed to the variance in women's physical and psychiatric symptoms beyond the variance accounted for by generic stressors. In a study addressing stressors on female firefighters, Yoder and McDonald (1998) found that a higher number of number of sexist events resulted in lower perceived validation by co-workers and greater employment stressors related to the token status of being a woman in a predominantly male field. The present study extended this research to include the life-long effects of sexism on college women. Sexism was related to the majority of the

feminist perspective subscale scores. The design of the study does not make it possible to determine whether experiences with sexism cause women to adopt a feminist perspective or whether women with a feminist perspective are more likely to be aware of sexism. Regardless of directional uncertainties, there is a connection between sexism and an individual's feminist perspective.

Parental Gender Role Models

Parental non-traditional gender role models were not significant predictors of the feminist perspective subscale scores. This finding contradicts existing research indicating parental influence in most areas of an individual's life; in view of the previous findings, it is likely the results can be contributed to measurement error. Specifically, initial administration of this questionnaire may have introduced error as the questionnaires had a missing/incorrect second page (due to printing problems) and a second administration of this questionnaire was required. Furthermore, the questionnaire was short (20 items) and Cronbach's alpha was somewhat low (.59). The questionnaire may not have been successful in measuring the intended underlying construct of non-traditional parental gender role model.

Feminist Perspective

Although gender studies students were expected to report higher feminist perspective subscale scores than education students at the end of the gender studies course, only the subscale acceptance of gender inequities reflected a difference between gender studies students and education students with gender studies student reporting less acceptance of gender inequities. In view of the Downing and Roush (1985) based model of feminist perspective development (see Table 1), this finding is not surprising. In

general, students enrolled in an introductory gender studies course are young (first and second year university students) and have had little exposure to the study of gender and the cultural effects of gender roles on individual functioning in society. The change from gender inequity acceptance to less acceptance is indicative of an existing unawareness of the often restrictive nature of gender. Gaining this awareness through the study of gender requires substantial consideration and a re-evaluation of the appropriateness of traditional gender roles; not a simple task for students of this age and maturation level. This understanding of gender roles may be a small first step, but a significant one, in encouraging a critical analysis of gender in society.

In addition, variables connected to the course focus, content coverage, and time limitations may partially account for the results. Course focus was not placed on women's studies or feminist's studies but addressed issues specifically associated with gender studies. Although similar in academic content, gender studies is not the same area of study as it does include both women and men in the subject matter presented to the students. This focus in content is not congruent with the model used in the present study. Noticeably, this model has a focus on women and their progression in the development of a feminist perspective whereas the objectives of the course included a more inclusive consideration of gender. Quite simply, the course may not have been the best intervention to encourage the development of a feminist perspective. In support of this notion, the most substantial personal change was seen in gender identity, a topic closely connected to gender studies.

Time limitations may have also affected results. In its requirements of awareness of gender role inequities, the perception of injustice of inequities, and a philosophical

interpretation of women as equally valued (as men) members of society, development of a feminist perspective is a monumental undertaking. This objective may be beyond the reach of an introductory gender studies course. Further research that includes students who have completed additional courses in gender studies, at higher levels, is needed to address this issue.

Gender Self-Confidence

Although students were expected to display more gender self-confidence after completing the gender studies course, there was no difference between students in the gender studies course and the education course in gender self-confidence. This finding indicates that awareness of one's gender role in society does not necessarily contribute to greater confidence in that role. As noted, gender studies students reported a decrease in the acceptance of gender inequality or an awareness that traditional gender roles are not advantageous for women. Students reporting agreement with the self-confidence questionnaire statements such as "I believe that I have similar goals (career, marriage, family) with other women." or "I sometimes wish that I could be more feminine." might experience direct conflict with their evolving awareness of the disadvantages of the feminine gender role. In an effort to reduce this dissonance, the students may question the validity of adhering to a gender role that places them in a position of oppression and they may tend to convey less confidence in that role.

It may be that, as individuals progress through the subsequent categories of the model (see Table 1), they will possibly develop greater gender self-confidence. For example, an individual in the third category (Feminist Perspective Exploration) is represented as having a connectedness to other women and a strengthening of a feminist

view; this would point to a female with confidence in her own femininity and with her own interpretations of the feminine gender role. This third category might possibly be the one with the highest degree of gender self-confidence as measured by Hoffman's Gender Self-Confidence Scale (2000). In support of this assertion, the next category (Feminist Perspective Development) represents a woman who has developed sex-role transcendence; this position signifies an individual with their own interpretations, not societal interpretations, of their gender role. Women occupying this category may report (regardless of biological sex) a masculine, feminine, or androgynous gender role and would most likely have confidence in their chosen gender role. However, due to this noted variability in gender role composition, they may not necessarily score high on confidence in a feminine gender role. Further research using more inclusive confidence measures is needed to address this issue.

Gender Identity

Gender studies students were expected to be more likely than education students to experience a reported personal change in gender identity (changes from masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated to another category); the data supported this expectation. Gender identity serves a fundamental role for the individual as she or he strives to meet societal expectations of gender-typed behaviors. As previously noted, most individuals do not question their gender identity (Bem, 1984); rather, this part of identity is incorporated into the self and the related gender-typed behaviors are performed as a matter of course. Bem's (1984) concept of the "unconscious ideology" reflects an individual's unawareness of being constricted and molded into specific gender roles and functions as an organizing principle that contributes to the socialization of female and

male children into specific gender-typed roles in society. As is the case with many young adults, the majority of students entered this gender studies course with this unconscious ideology effectively altering the view of their own gender identity and also masking the perception of hidden socially constructed expectations placed on them to meet standards of gender-typed behavior.

Through course content, students were offered the opportunity to examine the “gender lens”; that is, to gain knowledge of the social construction of stereotyped gender roles. This observation supports one of the most important motivations and components of the study; as previously noted, student response to the following statement “I developed awareness of societal problems due to this course” on the researcher’s G101 prior course evaluations (agreement with this statement was 3.66 on a 1 to 4 point scale placing the gender studies course in the 93rd percentile of all other College of Arts and Sciences courses measuring this response). It is quite possible that this awareness, in combination with Bandura’s (2001) concept of “consciousness” (purposely accessing and deliberate processing of information for selecting, constructing, regulating, and evaluating courses of action) allowed the students to explore and report an alternative gender identity. This change is noteworthy as an alternative gender identity might more closely reflect individual preference and indicate a rejection of the hidden societal expectations associated with the gender lens.

A personal change in gender identity as found in the present study is meaningful; as noted, the intervention gender studies course may have contributed to this change for a number of students. This finding is even more striking in light of previous research. Spence (1985) argues that, on some level, individuals attempt to maintain their sense of

femininity or masculinity through characteristics they possess to confirm their gender identity. Furthermore, Spence (1985) posits that certain developmental tasks or life experiences (such as a course in gender studies) may result in an outcome that prompts individuals to doubt their femininity or masculinity and then struggle to reaffirm feminine or masculine identities. The present findings indicate that rather than submitting to a struggle to reaffirm feminine or masculine characteristics, some individuals may modify their gender identity. This resulting modification may more closely match their chosen alternative gender identity instead of what their current level of status or power enables them to be (Bem, 1993).

In this study, after having completed the gender studies course, 40 students ($n = 118$) maintained the same reported gender identity, 24 students changed to androgynous, 9 students changed from masculine to feminine, 11 students changed from undifferentiated to feminine or masculine. To interpret the meaning of these changes, it is useful to acknowledge the differences between the categories; that is, what are the characteristics of androgynous women and men and how does their behavior differ from conventionally feminine and masculine typed individuals? A specific area of research in response to this question focused on behavioral flexibility (Bem, 1975; Bem & Lenny, 1976) which is defined as an androgynous individual's ability to make use of both feminine and masculine characteristics. In contrast, feminine or masculine-typed individuals display a majority of feminine or masculine characteristics, respectively, and may have a more limited response set to situations. In addition to differences in behavior, there has been a tendency to value the androgynous category more than the feminine or masculine categories because of this behavioral flexibility. According to Bem, "It may

well be...as the women's liberation movement has urged, that the androgynous individual will someday come to define a new, and more human standard of psychological health" (1975, p. 643). Based on this interpretation, the students in the course who changed to androgynous (n = 24) may have developed a more "valuable" gender identity that would offer them increased flexibility in their everyday lives.

In a closer examination of these changes, 6 women and 2 men changed from feminine to masculine, 9 women and 0 men changed from masculine to feminine, and 13 women and 1 man changed from feminine to androgynous. Furthermore, of the 11 students who changed from undifferentiated to feminine or masculine, 4 were women changing to masculine, 4 were women changing to feminine, 1 was a women changing to androgynous, and 2 were men changing to masculine. These findings reveal a mixture of gender identity changes; a total of 29 students (both female and male) changed to a masculine or androgynous gender role while 13 (all women) changed to feminine. For women and men changing to the masculine or androgynous role, this may reflect their increased awareness of the privileges and value attached to these roles which may, in turn, increase their desire to occupy these roles. For the women changing to a feminine role, this may reflect their own personal re-evaluation of the feminine role (motivated by exposure to course material) as well as a higher degree of respect for women and femininity. The finding that no males changed to a feminine role offers additional support for the lesser degree of value placed on the feminine role versus the masculine role.

However, it is problematic to apply questions of value to socially constructed gender roles. Forty students maintained the same pre-course/post course reported gender identity, 9 students changed from masculine to feminine, and 11 students changed from

undifferentiated to feminine or masculine; are their reported gender identities less behaviorally flexible or more dysfunctional in our society (of less value)? Feminist scholars argue against judgments of value and support the notion that placing more importance on androgyny and masculinity may be supportive of oppressive structures such as the patriarchy and androcentrism (Bem, 1993). From a social perspective, when more value is placed on these categories, individuals with a feminine identity are unjustly further devalued.

It can be argued that the key question does not concern the embracing of androgyny or the value of one gender category over another. In fact, in a review of the literature testing the validity of the androgyny/behavioral flexibility connection, Cook (1985) found little evidence for the validity of the hypothesis. Furthermore, Bem (1993) recently concluded that the concept of androgyny has been interpreted on a level too private and personal and has removed the focus of gender identity from her original intent, an application to the conceptual, social, and political realm. The more relevant question to be addressed in connection to gender identity categories is related to personal change and the importance of individual choice in adopting a gender role that more closely matches their chosen gender identity rather than existing within the pretense of an unconscious ideology. Pursuing this choice is not simple; social-structural or situational theories inform us of the powerful influence of culture in constraining individuals psychologically through channeling individual motivations and abilities to match a stereotypic feminine or masculine role (Bem, 1993). Furthermore, these theories posit that culture constrains individuals more coercively by restricting abilities to modify their gender identities if motivated to do so. From this perspective, individual gender identity

may not match societal expectations of gender-typed behavior but the individual choice of change does not typically appear to be available.

The gender studies course in the present study offered this choice of change to the students through two specific means. First, course content directly addressed issues of gender identity (see Appendix A). This information presented to the students was new, and often disquieting, knowledge that created a sense of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). On entering the course, the majority of the students were unaware of societal expectations for gender-typed behaviors and were equally unaware of the pressure society had placed on them to conform. In combination with the four elements of feminist pedagogy, participatory learning, validation of personal experience and development of confidence, development of political/social understanding and activism, and critical thinking skills and open-mindedness, this content knowledge resulted in a rendering of the gender lenses as no longer invisible; rather, the students were able to look at our culture's gender lens and not unknowingly through the lenses. With choice now visible, the students were able to confront sociocultural expectations of gender-typing and to achieve a gender identity more compatible with their authentic gender identity.

The data support these interpretations both in the gender studies students' notable changes in gender identity and in the differences of the acceptance of gender inequities subscale scores between gender studies students and education students. After completing the course, gender studies students were less accepting of gender-typed behaviors in our society. Again, there is the question of value associated with a changed gender identity. Is it better or more valuable for an individual to have a closer connection with her or his own alternative gender identity in possible separation from the "ideal" socially

constructed gender identity? From a personal perspective and in the formation of self-knowledge, the display of an alternative gender identity would be more valuable in its reflection of a move from the unconscious ideology (Bem, 1984) to consciousness (Bandura, 2001).

An additional beneficial outcome for the individual in identifying an alternative gender identity is an increased awareness of societal problems or inequities based on gender. Bem's (1974) measure of gender identity may reflect how closely an individual matches socially constructed expectations of gendered identities, that is, acceptable biological sex based feminine and masculine gender roles. From this standpoint, individual self ratings reflect a measure of how well one "believes" (or reports) that they fit these socially constructed gendered identities. As noted, the results of this study show a significant change in gender identity for many of the participants; this outcome may signify an increased awareness of the feminine and masculine roles (due to completion of the gender studies course) and a more precise judgment of how well one fits into these socially constructed gender roles. In this study, the association between gender identity and personal change offers support for the connection between gender studies and personal change.

Limitations

Although the findings offer support for the influence of gender studies classes on students' lives, the study was limited in several ways. First, although there was an attempt to include both females and males in the study, this was not possible due to the low number of males consenting to participate. Because of this, the analyses focused mainly on female students. Second, lack of participant random assignment to the gender

studies courses and to the education courses was limiting to the study. The control and experimental groups were not equivalent at the beginning of the study; analyses revealed that students in the gender studies course were different than education students but not greatly different. For example, education students were slightly older than gender studies students (mean age = 20.6 vs.19.7) and this may have affected the outcome of the study.

In addition to sample limitations, it is important to consider measurement limitations, specifically in relation to the Bem Sex Role Inventory. For example, recent research questions the theoretical foundations of the feminine and masculine scales found on the BSRI (Ballard-Reisch & Elton, 1992; Hoffman & Borders, 2001). It is quite possible that feminine and masculine items constituting the original scale (Bem, 1972) can no longer be considered accurate representations of feminine and masculine items in contemporary society. If this is an acceptable statement, then androgyny may be constructed on inaccurate representations of femininity and masculinity rendering this concept less valid. Additional research questions the nature of the constructs being measured; does the Bem measure femininity and masculinity or is this questionnaire more likely a measure of “human traits” such as expressiveness and instrumentality (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1974; Spence, 1991; Spence & Buckner, 2000)?

Conclusion

The findings of the present study offer preliminary support for the connection of individual personal change and enrollment in a gender studies course in the areas of feminist perspective (gender inequity acceptance) and gender identity. Furthermore, support was found for a connection between experienced sexism and higher pre-course development of feminist perspective scores in gender studies students. These conclusions

are noteworthy and indicate the potential of the study of gender to contribute to personal change through the process of education. Furthermore, this resulting personal change may encourage gender studies students to engage in a re-examination of the stereotypic gender expectations of our culture and to question how those expectations may or may not apply to their own gender identities. This level of achieved consciousness offers individual choice in accessing and deliberate processing of information for selecting, constructing, regulating, and evaluating courses of action (Bandura, 2001) relative to gender roles and identities.

Implications for future research

As noted, the results of this study indicate that, through the study of gender, individual personal change occurred in specific areas of the societal gender framework. These personal changes offer the possibility of contributing to the development of increased social awareness and an ultimately more equitable society through the process of education. However, this contribution is somewhat dependent on the continuation and communication of these personal changes. In a society that tends to reject deviation from stereotypic gender roles, it would be valuable to examine whether or not individuals continue to report the personal changes over time in addition to exploring the extent to which these individuals communicate the knowledge to others in society. Through these two factors, stability of change and communication of knowledge, widespread social change might occur to result in a more egalitarian society.

In addition to these two important areas, research addressing the long-term effects of gender studies classes may offer valuable support for the connection between increased social awareness, personal change and a more equitable society. For example,

further research is needed to explore if or how the knowledge obtained in the course contributes to individual awareness of inequitable work environments or discrimination in social areas. Moreover, does this knowledge contribute to activities to decrease inequities in these environments? Research to address the life-long effects of gender studies courses may also inform supporters, as well as individuals who oppose this area of study, concerning the appropriateness of gender studies at the university level.

Also, gender studies courses often evoke a type of resistance (for both women and men) relative to certain topics presented in the content of the class readings and discussions. For example, in the focus course of the present study, resistance was noted (through students' comments) toward the topic of homosexuality; it would be worthwhile to further investigate this occurrence to discover possible sex, class, or race differences in this resistance.

Important to note, gender studies courses may be only one influence on individual development of a feminist perspective and a change in gender identity. It would be valuable to examine additional life experiences, such as cultural components, changes in parental gender roles (e.g. a divorce in the family that would necessitate a mother entering the workforce), peer influences, and maturation variables as measurable effects.

Finally, future research in gender studies also has the potential to speak to the accompanying fundamental questions regarding all forms of study at the university level; is the goal of higher level education simply to impart knowledge or is there value in also promoting social awareness and personal change? Gender studies includes both of these educational components and is an area of study that merits the consideration of educational research to increase understanding of the influences of gender studies courses

on students' lives and on social issues. Through the dissemination of this knowledge, education can be a valuable intervention to encourage the removal of gender limitations and boundaries to the benefit of all women and men in society.

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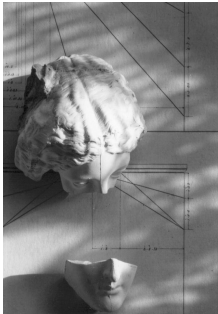
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Appendix A



GENDER STUDIES
Indiana University - Bloomington

Syllabus: G101, Fall 2004

Course: G101: Women, Gender, and Culture
Semester: Fall 2004
Instructor: Linda Hoke-Sinex
Office Hours: Friday 1 – 2 p.m., Memorial Hall Rm. 216
email: lsinex@indiana.edu
website: www.indiana.edu/~gender
Updates: Oncourse

Gender is an important concept to every individual; each person is of a biological sex and has been touched in some manner by cultural expectations based on gender. G101 will explore historical and contemporary perspectives of this interaction between gender and culture through such topics as gender roles and gender identities, institutions and gender, sexism and language, media influences, body image and body ideal, women's health, sexuality and reproductive freedom, sex and violence, gender and the law, employment, and the economy.

Course Overview

Course Description: Women, Gender, and Culture is an introductory interdisciplinary course which explores the diverse interconnections between biological sex, gender, and cultural discourses on masculinity and femininity. The course will examine historical and contemporary perspectives of the interaction between gender and culture and the resulting conditions that have created societies predisposed to define individuals by sex and gender. Specifically, topics to be addressed will include gender role development, gender identity, family and households, education and gender, sexism and language, media influences, women's health, body image and the beauty ideal, sexuality and sexual expression, crime and justice, the sexual division of labor and economic development, and perspectives on feminist movements. Lectures, readings, and class discussions will consider how people of different races, ethnicities, classes, and nationalities are affected by these issues.

This comprehensive course offers an overview of gender issues and is excellent preparation for students interested in planning to undertake further or more advanced studies of gender, either within disciplines or interdisciplinary Gender Studies.

Course Objectives: The goal of this course is to encourage analytical and critical thinking about issues associated with gender. The course will:

- provide an overview of issues relevant to the study of gender
- encourage the development of reading, writing, analytical, and evaluative skills
- provide a knowledge base for further study in the area of gender

Required Materials: Course Reader (purchase at I.U. Bookstore or TIS). Course reader will also be available on-line through e-reserve. All students will be given information and a password to access this option.

Course Format/Policies: The course will revolve around an information-sharing format. Class discussions/lectures will be supplemented by films, student presentations, group problem solving, and a variety of classroom activities.

- Attendance is important and will be recorded
- Absences must be accompanied by documentation and may or may not be excused at the discretion of the instructor

Grading Scale:

Lowest percentage needed for this grade:

A+	=	99	B+	=	88	C+	=	78	D+	=	68
A	=	93	B	=	83	C	=	73	D	=	63
A-	=	90	B-	=	80	C-	=	70	D-	=	60
									F	=	59 or below

Course Requirements

A. Analysis Forms (10% each form, total of 20% of grade)

Two analysis forms, analytical interpretations of course readings, are required.

- a statement relevant to readings and class topics is presented in-class
- students then, immediately, write a personal response to the statement (in class) that includes her/his knowledge and opinion about the statement.
- students then organize lecture and reading notes in two ways; how these notes support your response statements (pro) and how these notes do not support your response statement (con).
- students then summarize pros into five main points and cons into five main points, type these points onto the summary form, and turn in at assigned time.

B. Group Response Forms (10% each form, total of 30% of grade)

Three group response forms, analytical interpretations of two course articles (as a group) are required.

- each group member must find one outside resource (from library, must be from reputable journal or book) and bring the resource to class for group discussion
- students meet in-class with their discussion groups to examine and critique the assigned articles and the resources from the other group members
- responses are typed onto the group response form and each student must submit a form (one for each person in your group)
- Form must have bibliography in MLA style (see Oncourse for MLA style)
- IMPORTANT: The grading procedure is as follows: you must be present for in-class discussion and must turn in your individual group response form. If you miss in-class discussion, your grade is reduced by 25%. If you fail to turn in your individual group response form, your grade is reduced by 75%

C. Synthesis Paper: (20% of final grade)

The synthesis paper is a 4 - 5 page paper written on a subject related to gender.

- students may
 1. write a research paper; must be written in one of the following forms: analytical, expository (explanatory) or argumentative (see Oncourse for explanation of differing forms)
 2. view a movie related to gender (if you are unsure of choice, see instructor) and write an analytical interpretation of the movie
 3. read a book (if you are unsure of choice, see instructor) and write an analytical interpretation of the book
- locate 3 -4 outside resources to include in the paper
- Paper must have bibliography in MLA style (see Oncourse for MLA style)

D. Quizzes (10% each quiz; total of 30% of final grade)

Three short, unannounced quizzes will be administered during the semester

E. Extra Credit

1 – 10 points of extra credit will be available throughout the semester. The points will be added to your total final grade as a percentage of that grade. Students may choose one of the following:

- find an interesting article to present to the class (5 to 10 minutes to present)
- be an activist; “react” to something in our culture that you think may encourage or reflect unequal treatment of women or men (an article in a newspaper, a television show, a radio program, etc.). Write a letter/call/e-mail the source and then report the response you received to the class (5 to 10 minutes to present)
- choose an individual who differs from you in one of the following ways: race, gender, age or sexual orientation. Interview this person and ask them how these variables have affected or affect her/his life (5 to 10 minutes to present)

ANALYSIS SUMMARY FORM

Name _____ Date _____

Statement:**Your opinion of statement:****Main Points (5 on each side)**

<u>PRO</u>	<u>CON</u>

Table of Contents
(schedule is subject to change)

Week 1: Course Introduction

Shaw, Susan M. and Lee, Janet. "Women's Studies: Perspectives and Practices." Women's Voices, Feminist Visions. Ed. Susan M. Lee and Janet Shaw. Mayfield Publishing Company, 2001. 1 – 17.

Bem, Sandra L. and Bem, Daryl J. "Homogenizing the American Woman: The Power of an Unconscious Ideology." We're All Nonconscious Sexists, 1984. 22-27.

Feminism

Week 2: Historical Perspectives

Hole, Judith and Levine, Ellen. "The First Feminists." Women: A Feminist Perspective. Ed. Jo Freeman. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1984. 533-542.

Stanton, Elizabeth Cady and Anthony, Susan B. "Declaration of Sentiments and Resolutions, Seneca Falls." Feminism: The Historical Writings. Ed. Miriam Schneir. New York, NY: Vintage Books, 1994. 76 – 82.

Truth, Sojourner. "Ain't I a Woman?" The Liberator. 22, March 1855. 93 – 95.

Quindlen, A. "Still Needing the F Word" Newsweek, October 20, 2003. 74.

Gender and Human Development

Week 3: Biology, Sex, and Gender (Analysis Form #1 due Wed., 1/28)

Beal, Carol R. "Biological Beginnings." Boys and Girls: The Development of Gender Roles. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1994. 14 – 29.

Gould, Lois. "A Fabulous Child's Story." Ms. December 1978: Vol. 1, no. 6.

Lorber, Judith. "Night to His Day": The Social Construction of Gender." Paradoxes of Gender. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1994. 13 – 36.

Social and Psychological Perspectives on Gender

Week 4: Families

For Group Response Forms:

Silverstein, Louise B. "Fathering is a Feminist Issue." Psychology of Women Quarterly (1996): 268.

Popenoe, David. "Parental Androgyny." Society (September/October 1993): 268.

Class Readings:

Coltrane, Scott. "Mothers, Fathers, and Family Care." Gender and Families. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Pine Forge Press, 1998. 75 – 106.

Week 5: Peers (Group Response Form #1 due Wed., 2/11)

Brown, Lyn Mikel, Way, Niobe, and Duff, Julia L. "The Others in my I: Adolescent Girls' Friendships and Peer Relations." Beyond Appearance: A New Look at Adolescent Girls. American Psychological Association, 1999. 205 – 225.

Simmons, Rachel. "The Hidden Culture of Aggression in Girls." Odd Girl Out: The Hidden Culture of Aggression in Girls. Harcourt, Inc., 2002. 15 – 37.

Morrison, Toni. "Cinderella's Stepsisters." Ms. Magazine, 1979.

Week 6: Education

Sadker, Myra and Sadker, David. "Women and Education: A History of Sexism." Teachers, Schools, and Society. McGraw-Hill, 2000. 437 – 439.

Wood, Julia T. "Gendered Education: Communication in School Settings." Gendered Lives: Communication, Gender, and Culture. Boston: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1999. 230 – 253.

Shakeshaft, Charol. "Reforming Science Education to Include Girls." Theory Into Practice 34. 1 (Winter 1995): 74 – 79.

Week 7: Media

Renzetti, Claire M. and Curran, Daniel J. "The Great Communicators: Language and the Media." Women, Men, and Society. Allyn & Bacon, 2002. 119 – 147.

Dubois, Diana. "Seeing the Female Body Differently": Gender Issues in The Silence of the Lambs." Journal of Gender Studies, 10.3 (2001). 297 – 310.

Week 8: Body Image and the Beauty Ideal (Analysis Form #2 due Friday, 3/5)

Faludi, Susan. "Beauty and the Backlash." Backlash: The Undeclared War Against American Women. New York: Crown Publishers, Inc. (1991): 200 – 226.

hooks, bell. "Straightening Our Hair." Reading Culture. Ed. Diana George and John Trimbur. New York: Harper Collins (1992). 401 – 405.

Coward, Rosalind. "Feel Good, Look Great!" Female Desires: How They are Sought, Bought and Packaged. New York: Grove Press Inc.(1985): 21 – 25.

Kilbourne, Jean. "Buy This 24-Year-Old And Get All His Friends Absolutely Free", in Can't Buy My Love: How Advertising Changes the Way We Think and Feel, pp. 32-56, Simon & Schuster.

Week 9: Social Construction of Masculinity

Kilmartin, Christopher T. "Introduction", The Masculine Self, Boston: McGraw Hill, 2000. 3 – 19.

Powell, Kevin. "Confessions of a Recovering Misogynist", Ms. Magazine, Volume X. No. 3, April/May: 72 – 77.

Kimmel, Michael S. "Invisible Masculinity", Society, Sep/Oct93, Vol. 30, Issue 6.

Kimmel, Michael S. "Snips and Snails...and Violent Urges", Newsday, March 8, 2001: 216.

Week 10: Spring Break (no class)**Week 11: Gender and Violence****For Group Response Forms:**

Heise, Lori, Ellsberg, Mary, and Gottemoeller Megan. "Ending Violence Against Women", Population Reports, December, 1999.

Eyler, A. E. and Cohen, Marian. American Academy of Family Physicians, <http://www.aafp.org/afp/991201ap/2569.html>. December 1: 1999.

Class Readings:

Pipher, Mary. "Sex and Violence." Reviving Ophelia. New York: Ballantine Press, 1994. 203 – 231.

"Woman Demands Justice in Acid Attack", Associated Press, Hoosier Times, Sunday, April 6: 2003.

Herman, Dianne. "The Rape Culture." Changing Our Power: An Introduction to Women Studies, Ed. Cochran, Langston, and Woodward, Dubuque: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co. (1988) 260-273.

Gender and the Economy**Week 12: Women, Work, and Poverty (Group Response Form #2 due Wed., 3/31)**

Friedan, Betty. "The Problem That Has No Name." The Feminine Mystique. Laurel Publishing, 1963. 15 – 32.

Kelly, Rita Mae. "Sex Role Spillover: Personal, Familial, and Organizational Roles." The Gendered Economy: Work, Careers, and Success. Newbury Park: Sage Publications (1991): 78 – 95.

GAO Study Raises Questions Over Pay Gap, Pittsburgh Post-Gazette, printed in The Herald-Times, Sunday, November 9: 2003.

Reimer, Susan. "Women in Power View It Differently Than Men" The Herald-Times, Sunday, November 9: 2003.

Drescher, Sarah. "Why Welfare Fails: Addressing the Pre-Existing Gender Inequities Contributing to the Feminization of Poverty." The Oregon Advocate (Summer 2000)

McNamara, Colleen. "I Just Don't Know If I Can Make It." Up From Under, 1.4 (Winter 1971 – 1972). 34.

Gender and Health

Week 13: Women's Health

For Group Response Forms:

Kopelman, Loretta M. "Female Circumcision/Genital Mutilation and Ethical Relativism." Second Opinion, (October 1994).

James. Stanlie M. "Shades of Othering: Reflections on Female Circumcision/Genital Mutilation." Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society (Summer 1998).

Class Readings:

Murphy, Elaine M. "Being Born Female Is Dangerous for Your Health." American Psychologist 58.3 (2003): 205 – 210.

Sesan, Robin. "Feminist Inpatient Treatment for Eating Disorders: An Oxymoron?" Feminist Perspectives on Eating Disorders. Ed. Patricia Fallon, Melanie A. Katzman, Susan Wooley. New York: The Guilford Press. 1994. 251 – 271.

Week 14: Sexuality (Group Response Form #3 due Wed., 4/14)

Hefner, Hugh. "Introduction." Playboy 1953: 1.1.

Kamen, Paula. "Changing Sexual Scripts: A Close-Up." Her Way: Young Women Remake the Sexual Revolution. New York University Press, 2000. 61 – 84.

Card, Claudia. "Homophobia and Lesbian/Gay Pride." Lesbian Choices. New York: Columbia University Press, 1995. 151 – 168.

Week 15: Reproductive Freedom

Sanger, Margaret. "My Fight for Birth Control." Health and Productive Rights. 1931.

Dreifus, Claudia. "Sterilizing the Poor." Seizing Our Bodies. Ed. Claudia Dreifus, New York: Vintage, 1978. 105 – 120.

Week 16: Future of Feminism (Synthesis Form due 4/30)

Orenstein, Peggy. "Anything is Possible." Flux. Anchor Books, 2000. 15 – 40.

Woolf, Virginia. A Room of One's Own, New York : Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1991.

Baumgardner, Jennifer and Richards, Amy. "A Day With Feminism." Manifesta. Farrar, Straus & Girous, 2000. 315 – 321.

Appendix B
Information Form

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Please fill in the blank or circle the appropriate response.

Last 4 digits of student ID number (ID): _____

1. Sex: 1. Male 2. Female 2. Age: _____
3. Year in School: 1. Freshman 2. Sophomore 3. Junior 4. Senior
4. How do you describe your racial or ethnic background?
1. White (not of Hispanic origin)
 2. Black (not of Hispanic origin)
 3. Asian or Pacific Islander
 4. Hispanic (a person of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race)
 5. American Indian or Alaskan Native
 6. Other _____
5. Please indicate your current marital status:
1. never married
 2. married
 3. separated
 4. divorced
 5. widowed
 6. other: _____
6. What is the highest grade of school your mother completed?
1. Less than high school: _____ grade
 2. High school
 3. Some college or technical school
 4. A college BA or BS
 5. Some graduate school
 6. Masters
 7. Doctorate (Ph.D., M.D., Law, Dental)

7. What is the highest grade of school your father completed?

1. Less than high school: _____ grade
2. High school
3. Some college or technical school
4. A college BA or BS
5. Some graduate school
6. Masters
7. Doctorate (Ph.D., M.D., Law, Dental)

8. How many classes have you taken in Gender Studies? _____

9. Are you minoring in Gender Studies? 1. yes 2. no

10. Are you majoring in Gender Studies? 1. yes 2. no

11. Why are you taking this course?

Appendix C
Feminist Perspective Composite

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Answer the following questions according to this scale:

1 = strongly disagree

2 = mildly disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = mildly agree

5 = strongly agree

1. I like being a traditional female. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
2. My female friends are like me in that we are all angry at men and the ways we have been treated as women. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am very interested in women artists. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am very interested in women's studies. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5
5. I never realized until recently that I have experienced oppression and discrimination as a woman in this society. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel like I've been duped into believing society's perceptions of me as a woman. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel angry when I think about the way I am treated by men and boys. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Men receive many advantages in society and because of this are against equality for women. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
9. Gradually, I am beginning to see just how sexist society really is. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Regretfully, I can see ways in which I have perpetuated sexist attitudes in the past. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am very interested in women musicians. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am very interested in women writers. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5

13. I enjoy the pride and self-assurance that comes from being a strong female. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
14. I choose my "causes" carefully to work for greater equality of all people. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
15. I owe it not only to women but to all people to work for greater opportunity and equality for all. . (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
16. In my interactions with men, I am always looking for ways I may be discriminated against because I am female.	1	2	3	4	5
17. As I have grown in my beliefs I have realized that it is more important to value women as individuals than as members of a larger group of women. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am proud to be a competent woman. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
19. I feel like I have blended my female attributes with my unique personal qualities. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
20. I have incorporated what is female and feminine into my own unique personality. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
21. I think it's lucky that women aren't expected to do some of the more dangerous jobs that men are expected to do, like construction work or race car driving. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
22. I care very deeply about men and women having equal opportunities in all respects. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
23. If I were married to a man and my husband was offered a job in another state, it would be my obligation to move in support of his career. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
24. I think that men and women had it better in the 1950s when married women were housewives and their husbands supported them. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5

25. It is very satisfying to me to be able to use my talents and skills in my work in the women's movement. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
26. I am willing to make certain sacrifices to effect change in this society in order to create a nonsexist, peaceful place where all people have equal opportunities. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
27. One thing I especially like about being a woman is that men will offer me their seat on a crowded bus or open doors for me because I am a woman. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
28. On some level, my motivation for almost every activity I engage in is my desire for an egalitarian world. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
29. I don't see much point in questioning the general expectation that men should be masculine and women should be feminine. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel that I am a very powerful and effective spokesperson for the women's issues I am concerned with right now. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
31. I think that most women will feel most fulfilled by being a wife and a mother. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
32. I want to work to improve women's status. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
33. I am very committed to a cause that I believe contributes to a more fair and just world for all people. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5

GIAccept = Gender Inequity Acceptance

GIAware = Gender Inequity Awareness

FIE = Feminist Perspective Exploration

FID = Feminist Perspective Development

FIC = Feminist Perspective Consolidation

Appendix D (Men's form)
Feminist Perspective Composite

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Answer the following questions according to this scale:

1 = strongly disagree

2 = mildly disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = mildly agree

5 = strongly agree

1. I like being a traditional male (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am aware that many men in society treat women as unequals and it makes me angry. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am very interested in women artists. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am very interested in women's studies. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5
5. I never realized until recently that women have experienced oppression and discrimination in this society. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel like I've been duped into believing society's perceptions of women. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel angry when I think about the way women are treated by men and boys. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Men receive many advantages in society and because of this are against equality for women. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
9. Gradually, I am beginning to see just how sexist society really is. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Regretfully, I can see ways in which I have perpetuated sexist attitudes in the past. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am very interested in women musicians. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am very interested in women writers. (FIE)	1	2	3	4	5

13. I enjoy the pride and self-assurance that comes from being a sensitive male. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
14. I choose my "causes" carefully to work for greater equality of all people. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
15. I owe it not only to women but to all people to work for greater opportunity and equality for all. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
16. In my interactions with women, I am concerned with not discriminating against them because they are women. (GIAware)	1	2	3	4	5
17. As I have grown in my beliefs I have realized that it is more important to value women as individuals than as members of a larger group of women. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
18. I like competent women. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
19. I feel like I have blended my "feminine side" with my unique personal qualities. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
20. I have incorporated what is sensitive and caring into my own unique personality. (FID)	1	2	3	4	5
21. I think it's lucky that women aren't expected to do some of the more dangerous jobs that men are expected to do, like construction work or race car driving. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
22. I care very deeply about men and women having equal opportunities in all respects. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
23. If I were married to a woman and I was offered a job in another state, it would be her obligation to move in support of my career. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
24. I think that men and women had it better in the 1950s when married women were housewives and their husbands supported them. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
25. It is very satisfying to me to be able to use my talents and skills in my work in the women's movement. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5

26. I am willing to make certain sacrifices to effect change in this society in order to create a nonsexist, peaceful place where all people have equal opportunities. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
27. One thing I especially like about being a man is that I can offer my seat to women on a crowded bus or open doors for them because I am a gentleman. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
28. On some level, my motivation for almost every activity I engage in is my desire for an egalitarian world. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
29. I don't see much point in questioning the general expectation that men should be masculine and women should be feminine. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel that I am a very powerful and effective spokesperson for the women's issues I am concerned with right now. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
31. I think that most women will feel most fulfilled by being a wife and a mother. (GIAccept)	1	2	3	4	5
32. I want to work to improve women's status. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5
33. I am very committed to a cause that I believe contributes to a more fair and just world for all people. (FIC)	1	2	3	4	5

8. I feel like I don't have much in common with other women.	1	2	3	4
9. Being a female contributes a great deal to my sense of self-confidence.	1	2	3	4
10. I sometimes wish that I could be more feminine.	1	2	3	4
11. I believe that I have similar goals (career, marriage, family) with other women.	1	2	3	4
12. I feel like I have a lot of common interests with other women.	1	2	3	4
13. I don't meet my ideals of what a woman should be like.	1	2	3	4
14. I am happy with myself as a female.	1	2	3	4
15. I think I look feminine.	1	2	3	4

Appendix F
Hoffman Gender Scale (Male)

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Please respond to the following short answer questions in your own words:

1. What does the word “masculinity” mean to you?

2. How is your physical appearance related to your masculinity?

3. How do you feel about your own masculinity? Explain.

Please indicate your agreement with each of the following statements with this scale:

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = somewhat agree

4 = strongly agree

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 4. I am confident in my masculinity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I meet my personal standards for masculinity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I am secure in my masculinity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I have a high regard for myself as a male. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I feel like I don't have much in common with other men. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 9. Being a male contributes a great deal to my sense of self-confidence. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. I sometimes wish that I could be more masculine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. I believe that I have similar goals (career, marriage, family) with other men. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. I feel like I have a lot of common interests with other men. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I don't meet my ideals of what a man should be like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I am happy with myself as a male. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I think I look masculine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Appendix G
Bem Sex Role Inventory

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Please answer the following questions according to this scale:

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

1. Acts as a leader (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Adaptable (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Affectionate (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Conceited (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Aggressive (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Cheerful (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Ambitious (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Conscientious (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Childlike (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Conventional (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Analytical (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Compassionate (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Assertive (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Friendly (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Does not use harsh language (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Happy (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Athletic (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Eager to soothe hurt feelings (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Competitive (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Feminine (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Inefficient (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Defends own beliefs (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. Flatterable (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Dominant (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Jealous (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Gentle (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Likable (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Forceful (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Gullible (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Has leadership abilities (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Moody (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Loves children (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Reliable (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Independent (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Loyal (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Individualistic (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. Secretive (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. Sensitive to the needs of others (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. Sincere (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. Makes decisions easily (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. Shy (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. Masculine (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. Solemn (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Soft-spoken (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. Tactful (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. Self-reliant (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Sympathetic (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Self-sufficient (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Theatrical (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Tender (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Truthful (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

53. Strong personality (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Understanding (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Willing to take a stand (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Unpredictable (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Warm (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Unsystematic (N)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. Willing to take risks (M)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. Yielding (F)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix H
Schedule of Sexist Events

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Please think carefully about your life as you answer the questions below. For each question, read the question and then answer it twice; answer once for what your ENTIRE LIFE (from when you were a child to now) has been like, and then once for what the PAST YEAR has been like. Circle the number that best describes events in YOUR ENTIRE LIFE, and in the PAST YEAR, using these rules:

Circle 1 = If the event has NEVER happened to you

Circle 2 = If the event happened ONCE IN AWHILE (less than 10% of the time)

Circle 3 = If the event happened SOMETIMES (10-25% of the time)

Circle 4 = If the event happened A LOT (26-49% of the time)

Circle 5 = If the event happened MOST OF THE TIME (50-70% of the time)

Circle 6 = If the event happened ALMOST ALL OF THE TIME (more than 70% of the time)

1. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by teachers or professors because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

2. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by your employer, boss or supervisors because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

3. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by you co-workers, fellow students or colleagues because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

4. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by people in service jobs (by store clerks, waiters, bartenders, waitresses, bank tellers, mechanics, and others) because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

5. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by strangers because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

6. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by people in helping jobs (by doctors, nurses, psychiatrists, case workers, dentists, school counselors, therapists, pediatricians, school principals, gynecologists, and others) because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

7. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by neighbors because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

8. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by your significant other (boyfriend, girlfriend, husband, wife) or other important man in your life because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

9. How many times do you think you were denied a raise, a promotion, tenure, a good assignment, a job, or other such thing at work that you deserved because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

10. How many times do you think you have been treated unfairly by your family because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

11. How many times do you think people have made inappropriate or unwanted sexual advances to you because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

12. How many times do you think people have failed to show you the respect that you deserve because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. How many times have you wanted to tell someone off for being sexist?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

14. How many times have you been really angry about something sexist that was done to you?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE? 1 2 3 4 5 6

How many times IN THE PAST YEAR? 1 2 3 4 5 6

15. How many times do you think you were forced to take drastic steps (such as filing a grievance, filing a lawsuit, quitting your job, moving away, and other actions) to deal with some sexist thing that was done to you?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How many times IN THE PAST YEAR?	1	2	3	4	5	6

16. How many times have you gotten into an argument or a fight about something sexist that was done or said to you or done or said to somebody else?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How many times IN THE PAST YEAR?	1	2	3	4	5	6

17. How many times do you think you have been made fun of, picked on, pushed, shoved, hit, or threatened with harm because you are a woman/man?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How many times IN THE PAST YEAR?	1	2	3	4	5	6

18. How many times have you heard people making sexist jokes or degrading sexual jokes?

How many times IN YOUR ENTIRE LIFE?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How many times IN THE PAST YEAR?	1	2	3	4	5	6

19. How different would your life be now if you HAD NOT BEEN treated in a sexist and unfair way

THROUGHOUT YOUR ENTIRE LIFE:

The same as it is now	A little different	Different in a few ways	Different in a lot of ways	Different in most ways	Totally Different
1	2	3	4	5	6

IN THE PAST YEAR?

The same as it is now	A little different	Different in a few ways	Different in a lot of ways	Different in most ways	Totally Different
1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix I
Parental Gender Role Questionnaire

LAST 4 DIGITS OF STUDENT ID NUMBER _____

Please answer the following questions according to how you perceived your family when you were an adolescent and living at home. Use the following scale:

1 = almost never true

2 = occasionally true

3 = sometimes true

4 = usually true

5 = almost always true

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My mother was employed outside of the home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My father was dominant. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My mother liked to watch soap operas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. My father washed the dishes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. My mother liked to watch sports on T.V. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. My mother was affectionate. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. My mother always worried about her appearance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. My father was competitive. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My father was emotional. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. My mother helped me with my math. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. My father liked to build things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. My mother had the primary responsibility of taking care of the child/children in our family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. My family was traditional (mother stayed home, father worked). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. My mother taught me how to do household chores (cooking, cleaning). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

15. My father played a major role in doing household chores and childcare.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My mother read a lot of fashion magazines.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My father liked to go grocery shopping.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My mother was passive.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My father helped me with my science projects.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My mother liked to talk on the telephone.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix J

Consent Script (participants in gender studies course)

The third party will say to the students:

“Linda would like to use the results of the questionnaires you filled out at the beginning of the course and the questionnaires you just completed in her dissertation research.

She is doing research concerning feminist perspectives and how taking a gender studies classes may affect your feminist perspective. In using the information she obtains from you, Linda thinks she will be able to add to the research we now have concerning education and gender and the connection between those two areas.

Participation will be completely anonymous; Linda will not use your names in any of her written research. Participation is also totally voluntary. If you decide you would not like to take part in the research your questionnaire information will be destroyed. Please remember that choosing to participate or not participate will have no effect on your grade in any way.

I’ll distribute the consent forms and give you time to read them. I’ll also answer any questions you might have about the consent forms”.

Consent Script (participants in education course)

The researcher will say to the students:

“At the beginning of your education course and just now, your instructor asked you to fill out some questionnaires related to gender. These questionnaires are part of a study I am doing related to college students and what their perceptions and perspectives of feminist viewpoints might be at this time in their lives. I would like to use the results of the

questionnaires you filled out at the beginning of the course and the questionnaires you just filled out in my dissertation research. I think the information I gather will add to the research we now have concerning education and gender and the connection between those two areas.

Participation will be completely anonymous; I will not use your names in any of my written research. Participation is also totally voluntary. If you decide you would not like to take part in the research your questionnaire information will be destroyed. Please remember that choosing to participate or not participate will have no effect on your grade in any way.

I'll distribute the consent forms and give you time to read them. I'll also answer any questions you might have about the consent forms".

Appendix K

INDIANA UNIVERSITY – BLOOMINGTON INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Study of Feminist Perspectives in College Students

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of the study is to explore the development of a feminist perspective in college students.

INFORMATION

As a class activity, you were asked to complete five questionnaires related to gender at the beginning of the semester. You were also asked to complete three questionnaires related to gender at the end of the semester. Filling out the questionnaires took a total of approximately 20 minutes each time.

BENEFITS

The data collected in the questionnaires will provide valuable information about how individuals develop a feminist perspective and how this perspective might change as the result of completing a course in gender studies. This knowledge will be a significant addition to education and to the study of gender.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All of the information collected in the questionnaires will be totally confidential. I do not have your names on any of the questionnaires but have asked to have the last four digits of your student ID on the questionnaire. This will enable me to match up the beginning of the semester and the last of the semester questionnaire data for comparison.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Linda Hoke-Sinex, at the Department of Gender Studies, Memorial Hall East 130, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN, 47405-7005, 812/855-0101, and by e-mail at lsinex@indiana.edu.

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact the office for the Human Subjects Committee, Bryan Hall 110, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405, 812/855-3067, by e-mail at iub_hsc@indiana.edu.

subject's initials

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may refuse to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read this form and received a copy of it. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this study.

Subject's signature _____ Date _____

Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

Consent form date:

Appendix L

BLOOMINGTON CAMPUS COMMITTEE for the PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS**SUMMARY SAFEGUARD STATEMENT**

Project Title: Study of Feminist Perspectives in College Students

- A. Briefly describe, in lay terms, the general nature and purpose of the proposed research, and where the study will take place. If student research, indicate whether for a course, thesis, dissertation, or independent research. If the study is only for a course, please review the Student Research Policy to ascertain if this project requires HSC review.

This study will examine developmental and educational factors that may influence the development of a feminist perspective in college students. The developmental factors will include biological influences, parental role models, life gender experiences, gender identity, and gender self-confidence. Educational factors will include the effect of enrollment and completion of a gender studies course in its influence on the development of a feminist perspective. Participants will complete questionnaires in the gender studies course at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester.

The main purpose of this study is to offer new research in the area of femininity and masculinity that will contribute to the understanding of these influences in the development of a feminist perspective in college students.

The research will contribute to the graduate student's fulfillment of doctoral dissertation requirements.

- B. Describe the process by which subjects will be recruited (see item F on page 2), how many (or estimate) subjects will be involved in the research, and how much time will be required of them. List specific eligibility requirements for subjects (or describe screening procedures), including those criteria that would exclude otherwise acceptable subjects. If your study uses only male or female subjects, explain why. For NIH-funded research only, address the inclusion of women, minorities and children in the research. Disclose any relationship between researcher and subjects - such as, teacher/student; superintendent/principal/teacher; employer/employee (see Students as Subjects section in the Policy Manual).

Participants will be approximately 150 students in an introductory gender studies course. The course instructor is the graduate student conducting the research (teacher/student relationship). The students will be given the option to participate or not participate in the research project.

- C. Check appropriate box for type of vulnerable subject population involved when investigation specifically studies:
 minors (under age 18), fetuses, pregnant women, persons with mental disabilities,
 prisoners, persons with physical disabilities, economically or educationally disadvantaged,
 other vulnerable population.

If any of the above are used, state the necessity for doing so. Please indicate the approximate age range of the minors to be involved.

No vulnerable populations will be included in the study.

- D. List all procedures to be used on human subjects or describe what subjects will do. If done during regular class time, explain what non-participants will do. If you are taping, explain that here (see item 13 on page 11). *Asterisk* those you consider experimental. For those asterisked procedures, describe the usual method(s), if any, that were considered and why they were not used. (See item F on page 2 for more information.)

The study will be conducted during regular class time. All students will be asked to complete five questionnaires as part of a class activity lasting approximately 20 – 25 minutes at the beginning of the semester. At the end of the semester, all students will be asked to complete three questionnaires as part of a class activity lasting 15 – 20 minutes. A research assistant will distribute and collect the questionnaires.

- E. State the potential risks - for example, physical, psychological, financial, social, legal or other - connected with the proposed procedures. Briefly describe how risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to anticipated benefits. Describe procedures for protecting against, or minimizing, potential risks. Assess their likely effectiveness. If you are using an electrical device that is attached directly to subjects explain how the subjects will be protected from shock.

There are not foreseeable risks for the subjects. There exists the possibility of significant benefits to the current knowledge of education and gender studies.

- F. Describe methods for preserving confidentiality. How will data be recorded and stored, with or without identifiers? If identifiers are used describe the type: names, job titles, number code, etc. How long are identifiers kept? If coding system is used, is there a link back to the subject's ID? If yes, where is the code list stored in relation to data and when is the code list destroyed? How will reports will be written, in aggregate terms, or will individual responses be described? Will subjects be identified in reports (see item 5 on page 10)? Describe disposition of tapes/films at the end of the study. If tapes are to be kept, indicate for how long and describe future uses of tapes.

Students' privacy will be protected by using the last 4 digits of their student ID numbers instead of their names on the questionnaires. With this coding system, there is not a direct link back to the subject.

All reports will discuss aggregate data, individual subjects will not be discussed.

- G. What, if any, benefit is to be gained by the subject? In the event of monetary gain, include all payment arrangements (amount of payment and the proposed method of disbursement), including reimbursement of expenses. If class credit will be given, list the amount and the value as it relates to the total points needed for an A. List alternative ways to earn the same amount of credit. If merchandise or a service is given, indicate the value. Explain the amount of partial payment/class credit if the subject withdraws prior to completion of the study. (See policy at <http://www.indiana.edu/~resrisk/compensation.html>)

All students will be given the option of having access to their pre-test/post-test score differences on the Feminist Perspective Composite so they may see if their feminist

perspective has changed as a result of enrollment in the gender studies course. All students in the course will be given the option of notification that the dissertation has been completed and is available to the students.

H. What information may accrue to science or society in general as a result of this work?

This study will provide information on education, individual gender development and on factors that are related to differences in this development. The study will make a significant contribution to education and gender studies literatures.

I. Coinvestigators, Cooperating Departments, Cooperating Institutions. If there are multiple investigators, please indicate only one person on the Documentation of Review and Approval (page 3) as the principal investigator; others should be designated as coinvestigators here. **Coinvestigators, not signing on page 3, should sign here, pledging to conform to the sentences on page 3.** If you anticipate that another department or institution may be involved in this research, list that here. If you are working with another institution, please include a letter of cooperation from that institution.

Curriculum Vitae

Linda B. Hoke-Sinex

Contact Information:

Department of Psychological
and Brain Sciences
1101 E. Tenth St.
Bloomington, IN 47405
812-855-2045
E-mail: lsinex@indiana.edu

Home:

3240 Southern Oaks Drive
Bloomington, IN 47401
(812) 332-6938

Education

Ph. D. Educational Psychology (Human Development)

Minor: Gender and Human Development
Indiana University – Bloomington
Spring 2006

M.S. Counseling

Minor: Educational Psychology
Indiana University – Bloomington
January 1981

B.S. Psychology

Indiana University – Bloomington
Minor: Sociology
May 1977

Teaching Experience

Adjunct Instructor (August 2005 – January 2006)

Indiana University – Bloomington
Dept. of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences
Instructor of P102 (Introduction to Psychology II)

Responsibilities: full-time teaching schedule for an introductory level psychology course including all related aspects of instruction at the university level (creating plan for the course focus, developing course syllabus, assembling required reading materials, and establishing assessment procedures)

Visiting Lecturer (August 2002 – present)

Indiana University – Bloomington
Dept. of Gender Studies
College of Arts and Sciences
Instructor of G101 (Women, Gender, and Culture)

Responsibilities: full-time teaching schedule for an introductory level gender studies course including all related aspects of instruction at the university level (creating plan for the course focus, developing course syllabus, assembling required reading materials, and establishing assessment procedures).

Associate Instructor (January 2002 – May 2002)

Indiana University - Bloomington
Department of Education
Instructor of P251 (Educational Psychology)

Responsibilities: part-time teaching schedule for a 200 level education course designed to train students how to be teachers at the elementary school level including all related aspects of instruction at the university level (creating plan for the course focus, developing course syllabus, assembling required reading materials, and establishing assessment procedures).

Associate Instructor (August 2001 – January 2002)

Indiana University - Bloomington
Department of Education (Language Education)
Instructor of X156 (College and Life Long Learning) and
X152 (Right Start Seminar).

Responsibilities: assisting at-risk college students in their adjustment to the university setting (teaching study skills, note-taking skills, effective learning techniques, coping and stress reduction strategies).

Associate Instructor (August 2000 – May 2001)

Indiana University - Bloomington
Department of Education
Instructor of P255 (Educational Psychology)

Responsibilities: part-time teaching schedule for a 200 level education course designed to train students how to be teachers at the secondary school level including all related aspects of instruction at the university level (creating plan for the course focus, developing course syllabus, assembling required reading materials, and establishing assessment procedures).

Academic Advisor (August 1999 – May 2000)

Indiana University - Bloomington
Department of Education

Responsibilities: meeting with and advising undergraduate students regarding school and course requirements to obtain their degrees. Also, general counseling on an as needed basis.

Associate Instructor (August 1998 – May 1999)

Indiana University - Bloomington
Department of Education
Instructor of P251 and P255 (Educational Psychology)

Responsibilities: part-time teaching schedule for 200 level education courses designed to train students how to be teachers at both the elementary and secondary school levels including all related aspects of instruction at the university level (creating plan for the course focus, developing course syllabus, assembling required reading materials, and establishing assessment procedures).

Research Experience

Doctoral Research (2004 – 2006)

Indiana University, Bloomington

Discovering the Gender Lens: The Influence of an Introductory Gender Studies Course on Personal Change

This study examined pre-course relationships between biological sex, experiences with sexism, parental gender roles and students' feminist perspective and post-course effects related to the concept of personal change through an inquiry on the influence of an introductory gender studies course on students' feminist perspective, gender identity, and gender self-confidence. Analyses supported findings that the experimental group was less accepting of gender inequities and more likely to change gender identities than control group.

Masters Research (2002)

Indiana University, Bloomington

Parent and Child Influences on Gender-Typed Classroom Behavior

This study assessed parental influences on the gender-typed behavior children in the school setting. Assessments focused on parental academic expectations and adherence to their own gender roles and child's gender-typed view of self. Findings supported child's view of self as masculine resulted in a positive correlation with active learning, high displays of child masculinity resulted in a negative correlation with classroom control

Doctoral Level Independent Research (2002 – 2004)

Indiana University, Bloomington

Psychological Androgyny and the Effects of a Gender Studies Class on Undergraduate College Students (2004)

Cognitive Influences of Gender on Child Behavior in a Montessori Classroom (2003)

Teacher Behavior Effects on Student Interactions (2001)

Research Associate (1986 – 1987)

Speech and Hearing Laboratory

Indiana University, Bloomington

Full responsibilities in laboratory management (scheduled subjects, conducted experiments, entered data).

Additional Employment

Grants Writer and Coordinator (2005 – present)

Department of Psychological and Brain Sciences

1101 E. Tenth St., Bloomington, IN 47405

Responsibilities: research and identification of appropriate funding sources for ongoing research projects and new projects within the Department of Psychological and Brain Sciences, consultation with faculty on proposal development, writing and submitting grant proposals and grants to appropriate agencies and entities, consultation with the office of sponsored research to facilitate grant submission and tracking of progress of open proposals, coordination of publicity for ongoing research in the department.

Montessori Teacher (August 1991 – January 1993)

Bloomington Montessori School

1835 South Highland Ave, Bloomington

Responsibilities: student supervision and education in a preschool setting.

Autism Group Home Management Specialist (August 1987 – August 1991)

Indiana Resource Center for Autism

Institute for the Study of Developmental Disabilities

Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Responsibilities: educational assessments, staff training, parental consultations, research and information dissemination and organization/presentation of teacher training programs throughout the state of Indiana

Home Programmer (August 1982 – January 1986)

Indiana Resource Center for Autism
Institute for the Study of Developmental Disabilities
Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Responsibilities: management of group home, staff training, supervision of clients, educational assessments, and parent training.

Counselor/Case Manager (September 1980 – August 1982)

Columbus Domestic Violence Women's Shelter
Columbus, Indiana

Responsibilities: assistance and counseling for women and children affected by domestic violence and associated issues of physical and psychological abuse.

Mental Health Therapist (September 1979 – January 1980)

Quinco Consulting Center
Columbus, Indiana.

Responsibilities: clinical therapist duties; client intake, individual and group therapy, record keeping, team member consultation participation (practicum experience)

Professional Organizations

American Psychological Association (August 2005 – present)

National Women's Studies Association Member (August 2003 – present)

Preparing Future Faculty Program (August 1998 – August 1999)
Department of Education
Indiana University

Society for Research in Child Development (August 1997 – present)
Student Member

Academic Service

Assistant Chairperson (August 1990 - July 1991)
National Autism Society of America.
National Conference, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Chairperson (August 1985 – August 1986)
Human Rights Committee for Autistic Individuals
Indiana University.

Presentations/Publications

Hoke-Sinex, L. (2004). Discovering the gender lens: The influence of an introductory gender studies course on personal change, dissertation topic in progress.

Hoke-Sinex, L. (2001). Gender-typed behaviors in a non-traditional classroom: Can we expand the boundaries?, poster session presentation, Society for Research in Child Development, April 2001, Biennial Conference, Minnesota.

Hoke-Sinex, L. (2001). Crossing the boundaries: Patterns of non-stereotypic gender role development, poster session presentation, Society for Research in Child Development, April 2001, Biennial Conference, Minnesota.

Stright, A. D., Neitzel, C., Sears, K. G., & Hoke-Sinex, L. (2001). Instruction begins in the home: Relations between parental instruction and children's self-regulation in the classroom. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, 456 - 466.

Hoke-Sinex, L. (1999). Parent and child influences on gender-typed classroom behavior, poster session presentation, Society for Research in Child Development, April 1999 Biannual Conference, New Mexico.

Stright, A. D., & Hoke-Sinex, L. (1999). Parent support of child problem solving as a predictor of child adjustment in the classroom. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Albuquerque, NM.

Dalrymple, N., & Sinex, L. (1991). Being Friends, (autism awareness video), WTIU Public Television, Indiana University.

Dalrymple, N., & Sinex, L. (1991). Learning to Live, (autism awareness video), WTIU Public Television, Indiana University.

Detmer, C., Dalrymple, N., & Sinex, L. (1987). Sexuality: Issues for the Person with Autism, Indiana Resource Center for Autism, Institute for the Study of Developmental Disabilities, Indiana University.

Awards

Alice B. Renfro Scholarship for Dissertation Research, (2003), Department of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

References

Susan Eklund, Ph.D.
Professor
Indiana University
201 N. Rose Avenue
Bloomington, IN 47405
812-856-8328 (e-mail: eklund@indiana.edu)

Anne Stright, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Indiana University
201 N. Rose Avenue
Bloomington, IN 47405
812-856-8318 (e-mail: astright@indiana.edu)

Ellen Brantlinger, Ph.D.
Professor
Indiana University
201 N. Rose Avenue
Bloomington, IN 47405
812-856-8134 (e-mail: brantlin@indiana.edu)

Stephanie A. Sanders, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Gender Studies and
Associate Director of the Kinsey Institute
Indiana University
The Kinsey Institute, Morrison Hall 313
Bloomington, IN 47405
812/855-7686 (e-mail: sanders@indiana.edu)

Julie L. Thomas, Ph.D.
Visiting Lecturer of Gender Studies
Indiana University
130 Memorial Hall East
Bloomington, IN 47405
812-855-0101 (e-mail: julthoma@indiana.edu)

Helen Gremillion, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Gender Studies
Peg Zeglin Brand Chair in Gender Studies
Indiana University
Department of Gender Studies
129 Memorial Hall East
Bloomington, IN 47405
812-855-0101 (e-mail: hgrebill@indiana.edu)