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GENDER SOCIALIZATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES IN  
SELF-CONCEPT AMONG ADOLESCENTS

BY

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BA in Sociology and Women's Studies, University of New Hampshire, 2004

THESIS

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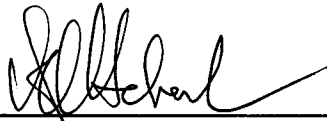
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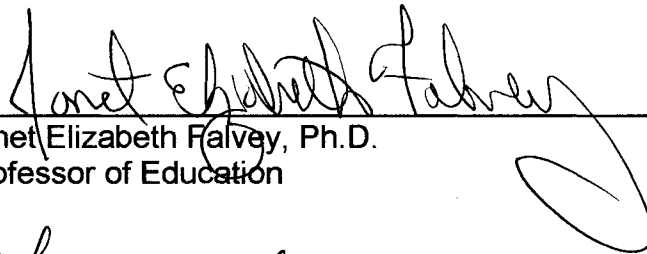
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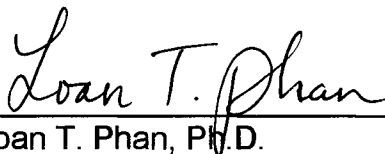
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## ABSTRACT

# GENDER SOCIALIZATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SELF-CONCEPT AMONG ADOLESCENTS

By

Erin D. Libby

University of New Hampshire, May, 2007

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the relationship between traditional gender socialization and self-concept during adolescence, in the domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence, and close friendship.

The sample used in the study consisted of 33 eighth graders, of which 19 were female and 14 were male. Participants completed an instrument developed by the researcher to measure level of gender socialization, along with Harter's (1988) *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* (SPPA) to measure self-concept in the above-referenced domains.

The Mann-Whitney U-Test was used to test distributions of means. Results were not statistically significant and therefore failed to reject the null hypotheses. Still, gender differences were reported which reflect some of the current research. Future research should consider further the relationship between gender socialization, traditional and nontraditional alike, and self-concept in adolescents.

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

A great deal of research has focused on self-concept among the adolescent population. Gender is a specific variable which has been studied in this research, whether in regards to a specific question or hypothesis or as a demographic factor. "Gender differences" is a widely-used and familiar term, particularly within the social sciences field. Fueled by the Women's Movement, many researchers have questioned the differences among numerous life aspects that exist between males and females of varying ages. This study explored the relationship between gender and gender socialization and the variable of self-concept among adolescents.

#### **Purpose of the Study**

This study explored how level of gender socialization during childhood influences self-concept in the domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence and close friendship among eighth grade adolescents.

#### **Statement of Hypotheses**

The following null hypotheses were tested throughout this study:

- A. These hypotheses are designed to test the question as to whether the self-concept in certain domains of males differs from that of

females when both are viewed in the context of traditional gender socialization.

HA1- There is no significant difference between self-concept in athletic competence of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA2- There is no significant difference between self-concept in physical appearance of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA3- There is no significant difference between self-concept in social acceptance of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA4- There is no significant difference between self-concept in close friendship of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

### **Background and Rationale**

Research has shown that gender differences exist in self-concept among adolescents, particularly in certain domains. Many studies have found that male adolescents have a higher self-concept regarding physical appearance/body image and athletics than their female counterparts (Cole,

Maxwell, Martin, Peeke, Seroczynski, Tram, Hoffman, Ruiz, Jacquez, & Maschman, 2001; Crain & Bracken, 1994; Shapka & Keating, 2005). Similar research also suggests that females have a higher self-concept in the realm of social/peer competence than their male counterparts (O’Koon, 1997; Shapka & Keating, 2005). Reviewing these research findings, it would appear that gender stereotypes may be at work here. In this society where beauty and perfection are a striving force especially for girls and women, it may be argued that males tend to be more comfortable with their bodies and more confident in their physical abilities than their female counterparts. There also exists a stereotype that females tend to be more social and verbal than their male counterparts. Recognizing that the afore-mentioned findings adhere to society’s traditional gender expectations might suggest that there may be some form of gender socialization at play.

Few, if any, studies have specifically focused on the relationship between gender socialization and the development of self-concept among adolescents. Sociologists have discussed gender socialization as a powerful teaching and learning process for gender-appropriate behavior. We are taught how to live properly as a boy or girl, man or woman in order to be accepted in society. We learn how to fit the mold of masculinity or femininity, as defined by society. Stockard (1999) suggests that children are taught at a very young age how to recognize our gender and that of others, and we also learn at a young age which gender role to adopt as part of our identity. There are “agents” of socialization, which refers to the sources by which children are socialized, or taught how to

behave in socially acceptable ways (Stockard, 1999). Agents of socialization can include parents, teachers and other adults children may be exposed to and influenced by, and peers later in childhood. In this study, the agents of socialization that were investigated are parents/caregivers and what is being socialized is gender-appropriate behavior.

Gender socialization refers to the process by which individuals learn what is considered acceptable and normal behavior, and what is considered deviant (Kimmel, 2004; Stockard, 1999). Gender stereotypes derive from societal norms and the culture's definition of gender-appropriate behavior. For example, stereotypes exist which suggest that boys have higher abilities in mathematics, whereas girls have higher verbal abilities. This stereotype is perpetuated by gender socialization, meaning that boys are encouraged to do well in traditionally male-dominated areas, whereas girls are encouraged in traditionally female domains. These reactions to and ways of shaping children can seriously influence their self-concept within these areas. This study explored how the traditional gender socialization of an individual affects self-concept during adolescence, in the domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence, and close friendship.

Self-concept is very important in any individual's life and is particularly salient during the period of adolescence, when individuals are experiencing the challenge of identity formation. How the adolescents perceive their abilities in a given area will have an effect on their identity development (Meece, 2002). In investigating the afore-mentioned four domains of self-concept, the beliefs and

attitudes would pertain to perceived abilities within those areas specifically. It is important for adolescents to establish a positive self-concept in a variety of domains, which contributes to confidence and psychological well-being. This is understandable given the association which has been found between self-concept in a particular domain and the individual's actual performance in that area (Meece, 2002). Exploring the relationship between self-concept in domains where current research has uncovered gender-stereotypic differences between males and females during adolescence, and traditional gender socialization, may be helpful in better understanding these gender differences. This research is particularly significant because it fills an important gap in current knowledge surrounding this topic.

### **Definition of Terms and Concepts**

#### **Gender Socialization**

*Gender socialization* refers to the process of learning gender-appropriate behaviors, including which interests, activities, and clothing are appropriate according to one's gender (Kimmel, 2004). This process begins at birth and continues as a child grows. It is a social process, meaning that it is learned through contact with one's environment, including parents/caregivers to start, and later teachers, peers, and other influential people. Children learn primarily from their caregivers how to behave in various situations and what is considered acceptable versus what is considered to be deviant, according to their gender and according to the larger society's norms and expectations. An example of this

would be parents' tendency to reinforce children's play according to the child's gender (Stockard, 1999).

### Level of Gender Socialization

*Level of gender socialization* in this study is used to describe the *degree* to which significant others impose rigid expectations for gender-stereotyped behavior. Some caregivers are more rigid in their gender socialization, in that they have stricter expectations regarding gender-appropriate behavior. "Gender-appropriate behavior" is based on society's determination of what is acceptable behavior for a male individual and what is acceptable behavior for a female individual. Thus, society's expectations differ according to gender. Other caregivers are less strict in their gender socialization, thereby conveying less rigid, and more fluid, gender-related expectations to their children.

### Self-Concept

The term *self-concept* refers to one's perception of oneself, specifically in relation to their relative confidence with various aspects of the self. Meece (2002) defines self-concept as "the beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and ideas people have about themselves" (p. 392). This study focused on the aspects (domains) of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence and close friendship.

### Gender Differences

*Gender differences* in this study refer to the differences found in calculated scores between males and females that have been reported in the findings of current research, and that were found in the results of this study. The scores in

this study derive from the gender socialization instrument developed by the researcher, as well as from the *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* (SPPA) developed by Harter (1988).

### Gender Stereotype

The term *gender stereotype*, as used in this study, refers to the stereotypes that exist in American society regarding gender-related behaviors and expectations. Stereotypes are long-standing assumptions and patterns held and maintained by society which have an effect on the beliefs of society members. Stereotypes help to create the expectations of normal behavior as defined by society, thus gender stereotypes concern what is considered normal for a particular gender.

### Adolescence

The stage of *adolescence* in this study refers to children between the ages of 12 and 19, which is in accordance with Meece's (2002) description of the developmental period. Eighth graders between the ages of 13 and 15 contributed to this research; therefore, the participants are considered to be adolescents.

### **Basic Assumptions**

This research was conducted with the assumption that participants in the study were truthful in their answers and/or had the ability to accurately assess themselves in the manner required by each of the instruments (e.g. self-concept and gender socialization by caregiver). The assumption was also made that these concepts were actually measurable by means of an instrument, and by these instruments specifically.



This researcher's bias lies in her assumption that gender differences do exist in self-concept and that gender differences significantly affect the lives of every individual and may be particularly salient during the period of adolescence. The researcher believes that gender socialization occurs for all individuals, the most significant influence being the parent/guardian or caregiver. The researcher also assumes that there are varying levels, degrees, or intensity of gender socialization, depending on the caregivers. She also assumes that self-concept is particularly relevant throughout adolescence.

### **Scope and Locale**

The participants in this study were in the eighth grade, from a junior high school in Southern Maine. Parental permission was necessary, as the participants are minors under the age of 18. The researcher used an instrument to measure self-concept of the participants and developed an instrument to measure level of gender socialization. Participation in this study was completely voluntary. There was an incentive offered to participants, to be discussed in Chapter III.

### **Summary**

This study was designed to measure level of gender socialization experienced during childhood and how it relates to measured self-concept during adolescence. The current literature reveals that gender differences exist in self-concept among adolescents. The majority of research has discovered gender differences that reflect gender stereotypes, meaning girls have higher-self

concept in areas appropriate to female gender norms, whereas boys' self-concept is higher in areas relating to male gender norms.

There is a need for the research at hand due to the lack of exploration into the influence of gender socialization on the development of self-concept. Common knowledge, life experience, and research have shown the importance of self-concept during the period of adolescence. To know what influences the development of self-concept is therefore very important and would make a significant contribution to current literature and research. This research is helpful to those in the fields of counseling, education and other school activities, who have contact with adolescents, so that they can better understand their students/clients and know how their own treatment and behavior may have an influence. Similarly, this research could benefit parents of adolescents, for a clearer understanding of the self-concept of the population as a whole, and also parents of smaller children in learning how their child-rearing and socialization practices may be influencing their child later throughout adolescence.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This review of the literature will cover research findings related to the following topics: gender socialization, self-concept, and parent influence on self-concept. The purpose of this chapter is to review current research regarding the variables of self-concept and gender socialization, and also to determine what has been researched in terms of the relationship between the two.

The study of how gender affects various aspects of life experience among adolescents has been the focus of a large body of research. How differently individuals experience everyday life can be associated with a number of demographic traits such as race, ethnicity, religion, socioeconomic status, and gender. Gender is a very powerful social construct within one's everyday reality (Kimmel, 2004). On a daily basis, every individual within American society, regardless of his/her other differentiating characteristics, is perceived and evaluated by others according to his/her gender. We also continually manage and are affected by our own gender, among other aspects of our self (Goffman, 1959). We manage our gender by continually checking (whether consciously or subconsciously) that we are behaving in gender-appropriate ways, and by managing our appearance to coincide with our gender (Goffman, 1959). Whether one is male or female has a great deal of meaning in Western culture. Because gender is so influential in shaping our experience, much research has set out to

investigate how this social construct relates to varying aspects of psychological and social well-being and adjustment.

Also within American society, adolescence is viewed as a significant transitional time for individuals, in their movement away from childhood into their teenage years. With this transition, adolescents face various difficulties and begin forming their identity. Due to the importance that Western culture places on this developmental period, many researchers have studied adolescent populations specifically. Often, such studies relate to psychological constructs that are particularly relevant to, or salient, during this time in life. Self-concept has been a popular focus of research, specifically in relation to the adolescent population. Results revealing gender differences have also been reported within a large body of research and will be discussed in depth throughout this chapter.

### **Gender Socialization**

When thinking of the significant role that gender plays in our society, it is important to question why, and how, gender has been socially constructed and continually reinforced for generations. Gender socialization is the process of learning gender roles and gender-appropriate behaviors. This process begins at birth as children absorb cues from their environment, particularly from parents initially, and later from teachers and other children, indicating society's expectations relative to gender (Kimmel, 2004). Immediately at birth, if not before, doctors determine whether the baby is a male or female. Baby girls and boys are dressed in pink or blue, according to their gender, and they are gradually taught acceptable gender role behavior through others' (especially

parents') teachings and reactions to them and their presenting behavior. A young child often learns that boys do not play with dolls and girls do not play with guns. Research has also focused on gender socialization, or the learning of gender roles within the family and will be discussed further in this section.

It is important to note that the research to be discussed involving gender socialization may name other concepts to describe constructs which are similar or directly relate to the process of gender socialization. Such terms include: *gender development*, *gender role conflict*, *gender cues*, and *socialization to gender roles*, among others. The discussion of this research will provide an understanding of how these concepts relate to gender socialization and the purpose of this research study.

Much research explores the social learning aspect of gender roles and gender-appropriate behavior, while other research explores the cognitive processes of gender development. Martin and Ruble (2004) focus on how children learn gender roles through their cognitive developmental processes. In doing so, they are looking at gender development at least partially on a biological or genetic level. Martin and Ruble (2004) discuss their research in which they discovered that six-month old infants can differentiate male and female voices, and nine-month olds can even distinguish between pictures of males and females. The focus of this research, as previously indicated, is on the biological or genetic factors contributing to gender development. How much of gender roles and behaving in gender-appropriate ways is learned and how much of it is biological?

The majority of the research appears to focus on the social, or learned, aspect of gender roles. Indeed, gender socialization implies that gender is socially constructed and therefore learned through parent teaching, modeling, and reinforcement (Kimmel, 2004). Every culture defines its norms, which determine how individuals within that society are expected to behave. Displaying behavior that is outside of society's expectations and that defies social norms is considered deviant; gendered behavior is learned because society deems it a necessity for inclusion (Kimmel, 2004). Gender roles, in addition to other social norms and expectations, are passed on from generation to generation, primarily through socialization by parents or caregivers.

Over time, gender roles have become less rigid and more open to overlap between traditionally male or female roles and behaviors, as evidenced by the increasing numbers of educated women and women in traditionally male positions (Belsky, 2007). Throughout the Women's Movement during the 1970s, women's rights advocates began questioning and challenging the many inequities that existed between men and women in American society. Since that time, progress has been made in terms of equality between the sexes. Bohannon and Blanton (1999) looked at how gender role perspectives have changed over time among American mothers and daughters. This study was a follow-up to an earlier study conducted fifteen years prior. The original study explored mother and daughter attitudes on marriage, children, and career. The later study's purpose was determining how, if at all, attitudes on those subjects changed over the fifteen-year period. The daughters at the time of the original study were

between the ages of ten and fourteen. In the follow-up study, the researchers found that attitudes on marriage, children, and career had changed to become less traditional. The authors' initial hypothesis was that mothers would still be influential fifteen years later regarding their daughters' attitudes on these subjects. The findings showed that over time attitudes of both mothers and daughters became less traditional. The researchers concluded, however, that it was unclear, considering the change in attitudes, whether the mothers were still influencing the daughters, or vice versa (Bohannon & Blanton, 1999).

Other studies focus on boys' socialization into male roles. Watts and Borders (2005) conducted a qualitative study among adolescents between the ages of fourteen to eighteen; all eleven participants were in high school. The study's generalizability is limited due to the small and nonrandom sample. However, the results are important in that they do provide a rich example of how adolescent boys perceive their gender role. The researchers asked each participant five questions which outlined the focus of this study. They were: "Do adolescent boys experience restricted affection between men? Do adolescent boys experience restricted emotionality? Does gender role conflict apply to adolescent boys? Do adolescent boys experience a conflict between work or school and family? Lastly, do adolescent boys experience a need for success and achievement?" (Watts & Borders, 2003, p. 269-270).

The researchers found "a theme of homophobia" in the participants' responses to the question pertaining to affection between men (Watts & Borders, 2003). They also found that some respondents felt they did not have any

affection toward other men and so did not have reason to express it. Others admitted to holding back some feelings of affection toward other men for fear of being made fun of or laughed at by others. An important and common response among participants to the restricted emotionality question was that anger and rage were the only emotions that are acceptable for males to experience (Watts & Borders, 2003). This suggests that other emotions, particularly those that are more sensitive and thus stereotypically feminine in nature, are unacceptable for the male role. These findings would suggest that the men in this sample have been socialized not to experience or admit to various emotions, such as sadness or affection. Furthermore, the response that anger and rage are acceptable for males is disconcerting to the male role, particularly considering the disproportionate number of males that are disciplined for aggressive behavior in schools and incarcerated for the more violent crimes.

Some research explores how gender socialization can affect specific aspects of our life experience. Crouter, Manke, and McHale (1995) focused on how socialization, including gender socialization, affects “gender intensification” during adolescence. Crouter et al. (1995) described gender intensification as the stricter adherence to gender roles which comes about during adolescence. They hypothesized that male and female adolescents would begin to experience stricter gender socialization, or treatment based on gender, by parents, and that this in turn would lead to gender intensification during that period of time. The study was longitudinal, conducted over one year. The sample at the beginning of the research consisted of 152 families in the initial phase, and by phase 2, there



were 144 families remaining. The researchers looked at three activities in particular that may lead to gender intensification. They were: participation in traditionally male or female chores; spending time with mother or father; and “parental monitoring” (Crouter et al., 1995, p. 317).

The researchers found that gender intensification was apparent regarding feminine household chores among female adolescents when they had a brother and when they came from traditional families (Crouter et al., 1995). They did not, however, find gender intensification among the general sample for this activity. For male household chores, there was no gender intensification found overall. However, boys from traditional families did increase their participation in these chores, while others in the sample decreased. This research found that mothers were more likely to spend time with the participants than were their fathers (Crouter et al., 1995). However, throughout the year of this study, boys increased time spent with Dad and girls increased their time spent with Mom. As hypothesized, boys with younger sisters were more likely to do so and girls with younger brothers were more likely to do so. They did not find, however, that the participants spent less time with the opposite-sex parent. For parental monitoring, no gender intensification was found (Crouter et al., 1995). This study provides more focus on the concept of gender intensification and is significant due to its longitudinal design. Though not all of the researchers’ hypotheses were supported, the results tend to show that traditional (versus egalitarian) families were more likely to have an effect on the presence of gender intensification for adolescents.

Similar to the research just described, Peters (1994) also focused on how gender socialization is related to traditionally gender-based chores, family car use, allowance, gifts from parents, and curfew. These variables are similar to those of Crouter et al. (1995) in terms of household chores as well as parental monitoring, in the form of car use and curfew. Through the investigation of their hypotheses, the researchers appear to suggest that children and adolescents are socialized in an environment according to their gender, where their male or female status plays a direct role in their early life experiences.

Peters' (1994) findings supported the hypotheses regarding gender equality in allowance and gift-giving, in that boys and girls reported fairness between brothers and sisters in receiving equal allowances and gifts from parents. They also found support for the hypothesis that curfew is stricter for daughters than for sons, as well as for their hypothesis that boys are more likely to take on outdoor chores (Peters, 1994). For the remaining hypotheses described above, they were only partially supported by the findings, meaning that the results were not statistically significant but the results that were reported did support the focus of those hypotheses. For example, a large percentage of participants indicated that use of family car (59%) was gender equal, though the finding was not statistically significant. The remaining respondents answered in gender traditional or stereotypic ways; the majority (30%) indicated that males were more likely to be permitted to use the family car than females (10%). In regards to indoor chores, 49% of respondents (not statistically significant) indicated that daughters were more likely to be assigned those chores, as

compared to 7% for boys. Forty-four percent of respondents believed the assignment of indoor chores to be gender equal (Peters, 1994).

Other research focuses on how differentiated treatment according to gender by parents, teachers, and others in the child's environment affects various aspects of their everyday experience. Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) looked at whether sons or daughters receive more parental involvement in their education. This research looked at gender differences in terms of parental interest in their children's academics. This study used data from the National Education Longitudinal Study, which involved approximately 25,000 eighth graders. The researchers found that girls are more likely to discuss school-related topics with their parents than boys. The findings also suggested that parents have higher expectations for their daughters than their sons, but that parents are more involved with the school when it relates to their son than when it relates to their daughter (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000). Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) also found that parents are more likely to check their son's homework than their daughters'.

There were no gender differences found regarding time limits on watching television; however, parents were more likely to limit their daughters' time spent socializing. The authors found that parents were more likely to attend an event that their daughter was participating in, than an event in which their son participated, a finding which the researchers did not predict (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000). Many of the gender differences found in this study supported the authors'

hypotheses, which predicted that the results would reflect gender socialization and gender stereotypes.

Other research looks at gender socialization within the classroom environment (Mensinger, 2005; Parsons, Kaczala & Meece, 1982). Mensinger (2005) focused on the effects of gender socialization within schools on a very specific behavior: disordered eating. The researcher found that schools in which the female participants rated a high level of gender role conflict were also associated with a higher incidence of disordered eating. Furthermore, those schools reporting a higher gender role conflict also scored higher on the "Superwoman Scale," an instrument which measures the level of need to be the ideal woman. This measure, in turn, correlated positively (and significantly) with disordered eating (Mensinger, 2005).

Parsons, Kaczala, and Meece (1982) explored how student gender related to teacher expectations and student-teacher interaction, as well as how these interactions influence student attitudes. Their research found that females had lower expectations for the future and believed math to be more difficult than boys. Females were criticized less by teachers in regards to their work and behavior, and asked more questions than boys (Parsons, Kaczala, & Meece, 1982). The results showed that, overall, high teacher expectations positively correlated with math ability ( $p=0000$ ) and student self-concept in relation to math ability ( $p=0000$ ). However, females with high teacher expectations had lower self-concept in math ability than their male counterparts. This could relate to the researchers' finding that females with high teacher expectations were the least

likely group to receive praise during teacher interactions (less than low expectancy females, or high and low expectancy males). This study is an example of research focusing on the school as a socialization agent, conveying societal norms and expectations to American youth.

### **Self-concept**

Clearly, gender socialization has been the focus of a large body of research, varying in terms of how the process affects individuals throughout their lives. As noted, the period of adolescence, a transitional time, has been researched in regards to how one's experience of gender socialization will affect their life at such a transitional and often awkward time. An important and salient part of this developmental period is the level of self-concept in a variety of domains.

Self-concept is a psychological construct that has been widely studied, specifically among the adolescent population. As previously discussed, adolescence is a time of change and questioning and forming identity. Adolescents are challenged during this period to discover who they are and are offered different paths from which to choose. Consequently, self-concept is of particular concern at this time since adolescents are so attuned to their appearance, their peers, and how they will fit in. How adolescents perceive themselves and their abilities in various domains is very important to research for this reason. To look for gender differences is also important because, as stated, gender is so salient and powerful within American society. By researching this area of study, the hope is to gain a better sense of the areas in which males have

higher self-concepts than their female counterparts, and vice versa, and what such findings mean for the larger population.

Numerous studies have focused on self-concept during adolescence. Some look specifically at physical self-concept, including physical appearance and physical or sports ability. Several studies have determined that male adolescents tend to have a higher physical self-concept than females (Cole et al., 2001; Hay, 2000; Hay & Ashman, 2003; Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002; Roothman, Kirsten, & Wissing, 2003; Shapka & Keating, 2005). These studies also focus on other domains of self-concept including social competence and behavior, as well as academic ability, often broken down into language arts and math. Roothman et al. (2003) researched gender differences in varying aspects of psychological well-being. Their results discovered gender differences within a variety of those concepts, including affect, well-being, cognitions, spirituality, self-worth, self-perception, and self-concept (Roothman et al., 2003). The researchers found that overall, men were more accepting of themselves, more comfortable with their physical appearance and have higher self-esteem (Roothman et al, 2003). These constructs are closely related to self-concept.

Jacobs et al. (2002) studied changes and gender differences in self-competence among children from first through twelfth grade. The study was both longitudinal and cross-sequential; they followed first, second, and fourth graders until they reached ninth, tenth, and twelfth grades, collecting data for a total of six years. The authors used the terms "self-competence" and "self-perceptions" to

describe how the participants perceived and believed they perform in various areas. The domains they explored included math, language arts, and sports (Jacobs et al., 2002). These variables reflect those within other current research, as previously mentioned, which focus on “self-concept” within similar areas. It appears that “self-competence” and “self-perception” terms used by these researchers are comparable to self-concept, a term used by many researchers and which will be used in the current study. Jacobs et al. (2002) found that males had higher self-competence in the domains of sports and math, whereas females had higher self-competence in the realm of language arts. These findings supported their hypotheses, which were based on current research and also on the long-standing gender stereotypes that permeate our culture.

Similar to Jacobs et al. (2002), Shapka and Keating (2005) also explored change in self-concept, though they focused primarily on the period of adolescence. Their study was also longitudinal in design, spanning two years. The researchers attempted to understand how self-concept changes during this transitional stage and how these changes relate to gender. Shapka and Keating’s (2005) findings indicated there were gender differences in self-concept of physical appearance, athletic ability, and social competence among their sample. As expected, males had a higher physical and athletic self-concept whereas females had a higher social self-concept. Also important to note, however, is that girls’ self-concept became higher over the two year period, whereas boys’ self-concept declined (Shapka & Keating, 2005). They did not, however, find other

significant gender differences in change over time among any other domain of self-concept.

Some researchers focus on a specific subgroup within the adolescent population, such as gifted adolescents or antisocial adolescents. Hay (2000) researched gender effects in self-concept among adolescents suspended from high school. The goal of this study was to explore the self-concept of this population specifically, and compare that to self-concept scores of the average population. The “antisocial” adolescents in this study were on a 40-day suspension program and enrolled in an alternative school. In addition, Hay (2000) explored gender differences within this adolescent subgroup. The findings showed that the male participants fell into the average range of self-concept pertaining to physical appearance and ability, opposite and same-sex relations, emotional stability, and honest/trustworthiness (Hay, 2000). The males exhibited lower self-concept in the realms of parent relationships, math and verbal ability, general school, and general self, compared to the average (Hay, 2000). Females were found to have average self-concepts regarding physical appearance, math ability, opposite-sex relations, and honest/trustworthiness (Hay, 2000). Females displayed lower self-esteem compared to the general average in regards to physical ability, emotional stability, verbal ability, general school, general self, same-sex relations, and parent relationships.

Among the participants in this study, the results showed that males have significantly higher self-concept than females in the domains of physical appearance, general self and emotional stability; this finding is similar to gender



differences among the adolescent population as a whole (Hay, 2000). It is important to note the differences between the self-concept of adolescents suspended from high school and the self-concept of the general population of adolescents. These findings suggest that there is some connection between misbehavior and lower self-concept. It is also interesting to note that many of the gender differences found in the general adolescent population also rang true within this sample population.

Cole et al. (2001) used a cohort-sequential longitudinal study to research development in self-concept among children and adolescents over a period of six years, and to explore the effects of gender. The researchers did not find gender differences regarding changes in self-concept over time, in the domains of academic competence, behavioral conduct, and social competence. However, the researchers did find some gender differences among changes in self-concept pertaining to physical appearance, the males having increased and the females having decreased significantly. The transition from elementary to middle school did not involve any significant gender differences in self-concept change related to sports ability; there was, however, a significant gender difference in self-concept change in the transition from middle school to high school (Cole et al., 2001). The researchers also found an overall significant gender difference between males and females in the domain of sports ability, males having higher self-concept than females (Cole et al., 2001). Also in the realm of behavior, the researchers' hypothesis was supported: that females view themselves as better

behaved than their male counterparts. These two findings, again, support the stereotypical gender roles of American society.

### **Parent Influence and Self-concept**

Hay and Ashman (2003) researched how parents, as well as peers, affect the development of self-concept among adolescents. They also set out to determine gender's role within this interaction of variables. By incorporating parental influence in adolescent's self-concept, Hay and Ashman (2003) have contributed to the literature in terms of socialization. Their research question was, "What is the relative influence of parents and peers on males' and females' emotional stability and general self-worth for adolescents older than 15?" (Hay & Ashman, 2003, p. 81). To explore this question, the researchers used a sample consisting of 633 students, of which 275 were female and 380 were male. The students were in the end of tenth grade and the mean age was 16. In their findings, they determined there was no significant influence of either parents or peers on general self-concept among females. There was, however, a significant influence of both on males' general self-concept (Hay & Ashman, 2003). For adolescents' emotional stability, both same and opposite-sex peers were influential. However, parents were found only to be influential for males (Hay & Ashman, 2003). This research is important because it explores outside influences on an aspect of adolescents' well-being, that of general self-concept ("self-worth").

Ostgard-Ybrandt and Armelius (2004) studied how mother and father behavior during the child's early years contributes to self-concept among both

normal and antisocial adolescents. The researchers found that self-concept in the antisocial group was more negative in comparison to the normal adolescent group (Ostgard-Ybrandt & Armelius, 2004). They also found that boys among the antisocial group had a higher self-concept than girls in the antisocial group. Because they did not find any significant gender differences among the normal population, the researchers concluded that this finding related to some aspect specific to the antisocial adolescents. The researchers indicated that many of the antisocial girls in the study were sexually or emotionally abused, and speculated that this could account for the greater likelihood for gender differences among the antisocial group than among the normal group (Ostgard-Ybrandt & Armelius, 2004).

In terms of perception of early mother and father behavior, the normal adolescents had a more positive opinion of their parents in comparison to the antisocial adolescents. Among the antisocial group, girls perceived their parents less positively than the boys in the group. Again, because this finding was not apparent in the normal group, the assumption was made that this gender difference is in some way connected to the nature of the antisocial group. It is important to note that this study had only thirty participants among the antisocial group, compared to 277 participants among the normal group. Due to this small sample size, the ability to generalize to a larger antisocial adolescent population is limited.

## Summary

This review of the current literature has shown that the period of adolescence has been a focal point in research exploring various aspects of psychological well-being. Self-concept is one such aspect that is the focus of a large amount of current research. Among the majority of this research, gender differences are reported. Though there are differences within some of the findings, there are some frequent similar findings reported concerning gender differences in self-concept among adolescents, many of which differentiate in gender-stereotypic ways. For example, the research cited here had similar findings in physical self-concept, where males were higher than that of females (Cole et al., 2001; Hay, 2000; Hay & Ashman, 2003; Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002; Roothman, Kirsten, & Wissing, 2003; Shapka & Keating, 2005). Another example concerns self-concept in math ability, where the research covered in this review determined that of males to be higher than that of females (Jacobs et al., 2002; Parsons, Kaczala, & Meece, 1982). The results of this research also found that males had a higher self-concept in sports ability (Cole et al., 2001; Jacobs et al., 2002; Shapka & Keating, 2005).

Cole et al. (2001), who performed a longitudinal study, found that there was no significant gender difference in change over time for self-concept in social competence. Similarly, Shapka and Keating (2005), who found that their female participants had significantly higher self-concept in social competence than males, also did not find a significant gender difference in change over time in self-concept within this domain, over the two-year period.

There are fewer similar findings among the gender socialization research, as well as within the parent influence and self-concept research. For the research discussed in this chapter regarding gender socialization, there seems to be an overall consensus that gender socialization does occur and has some influence over childhood and adolescent experiences. However, the factors that are studied in terms of gender socialization differ to such a degree that it is difficult to determine where their findings agree or overlap. Two studies reviewed in this literature review discussed parent socialization in terms of chores (Crouter, Manke & McHale, 1995; Peters, 1994). Other studies explored parent expectations and various ways of parent monitoring (such as curfew, car use, allowance, school performance, etc.); the specific variables explored differed between studies (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000; Crouter, Manke & McHale, 1995; Peters, 1994).

For the research on parent influence and relationship to self-concept, the research is even sparser. Consequently, it is difficult to determine where there is overlap in significant findings. The research in these areas appears to be growing slowly. Further exploration is necessary to build on what has been studied thus far in order to produce a more solid foundation of research. Furthermore, the majority of current research focuses on parent influence and gender differences without identifying the *nature* of the parent influence (traditional or nontraditional). In doing so, the research may be missing a significant factor in exploring the relationship between gender socialization and the adolescent experience.

Research in gender socialization reflects the power and importance of gender development and the learning and expectations of gender roles within American society. Although some research has explored parental influence, socialization, and gender socialization and consequences for several variables, there is a limited amount of research on the *level* of gender socialization, (traditional to nontraditional) and how those varying experiences of gender socialization may differ in their effect on the development of self-concept in specific domains. Due to this gap in the literature, and the power of gender within our culture, it is important to learn more about the relationship, if any, between gender socialization and self-concept between boys and girls during adolescence. This study focused specifically on the domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence, and close friendship, which, according to the majority of research, reflects the most stereotypic gender differences.

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

This chapter will describe the methodology and statistical procedure used in this study. The sections included relate to: the selection of the sample; selection of instruments; data collection procedure; a restatement of the hypotheses to be tested; the procedures used for analyzing the data, and; a general summary of the chapter.

#### **Selection of Sample**

The sample used in this research is comprised of eighth graders. The junior high school from which this sample is drawn is located in Northern New England, in a suburban area. The school has 196 eighth graders, among a total student population of around 600, of sixth to eighth graders. There is little racial/ethnicity diversity within this school, with a large majority of students being White/Caucasian. This reflects the lack of diversity that exists within the suburban area as a whole. Permission was granted by the principal to conduct this research among the school's eighth grade class (N=196). The participants were young adolescents between the ages of 13 and 15 years old. The sample consisted of 19 females and 14 males. In terms of racial/ethnicity demographics, the participants were primarily White/Caucasian, with a few participants under other racial/ethnic categories, to be specified in Chapter IV.

### **Selection of Instruments**

The measure used in this research is the *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* (SPPA), developed by Susan Harter to measure self-concept among an adolescent population. The SPPA (see Appendix F) focuses on the following domains: academic competence, social competence, behavioral conduct, sports competence, physical appearance, job competence, romantic appeal, and close friendships as well as a general score for self-worth (Harter, 1988). Among these nine domains, there are 45 items within the questionnaire (five items for each domain). Each response requires a numeric answer between 1 and 4, where 1 is the lowest self-concept and 4 is the highest, within a given domain.

The instrument yields nine scores, one for each of the domain subscales described above and one score for self-worth (Harter, 1988). Each score is the average of all five questions within each domain. For the purposes of testing the hypotheses as outlined in Chapter I, this researcher only used the scores for self-concept among the following four domains: athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence, and close friendship. The participants completed all 45 items on the questionnaire; however, only their responses to 20 items were used (five items for each of the four domains). This instrument reports internal consistency reliabilities for grades 8 through 11 from .65 to .89 (Harter, 1988). Cole et al. (2001) report internal consistency reliabilities of .72 to .92.

For the measurement of gender socialization, the researcher developed a 17-item Gender Socialization Instrument, which yields one score for level of



gender socialization, indicating nontraditional or traditional socialization (see Appendix E). The items in this questionnaire were developed by the researcher based on assumptions of what is considered “gender neutral” and “gender traditional.” To test for validity, the researcher presented the instrument to a panel of judges. The researcher also piloted this instrument using ten adults ranging in age from 23 years to 33 years old. The instrument measures the nature of the home environment of the participants in terms of gender-specific behaviors and gender roles. The objective was to assess the socialization practice of parents/caregivers in terms of gendered behavior and expectations, specifically rated as traditional or nontraditional. This instrument yields one score (rating). A score of zero signifies a technically “gender-neutral environment”; therefore, scores of four and higher, for the purposes of this study, were considered “traditional” environments. Consequently, scores below four were considered non-traditional and thus were not used in the analysis of data.

### **Procedures**

The researcher contacted the junior high school and was granted permission to conduct research among the eighth graders by the school Principal. The researcher described the objectives of the research and the requirements of participation, as well as possible benefits and risks to the Principal, school counselors, participants and parents/guardians of the participants. All eighth graders in the school (N=196) were offered participation.

Participation in this study was voluntary. Parental consent was granted for each participant, in addition to the assent granted by the participant him/herself.

The parent/guardian consent forms were sent home by teachers with each eighth grade student. This letter informed parents of the general objective of the research (without giving away the hypotheses), discussed possible risks and benefits, length of participation, when the surveys were to be administered (during lunchtime), and provided contact information of the researcher for any follow-up or for further information. The consent form required parent/guardian signature whether they were consenting to their child's participation in the study, or declining their participation (see Appendix C).

Due to the low number of consent forms that were returned (36 out of 196), consent forms were sent home with students a second time and an incentive was added for the purpose of encouraging students to return their forms. Students were offered the chance to win two mall gift certificates, and one teacher at the school also offered to grant extra credit to any student in his class who participated. This researcher also met with the eighth graders over two visits; one half of the eighth grade class was gathered at one visit and the other half during a second visit. The purpose of these visits was to explain verbally what the students' participation would entail and to answer any questions. Still there was a very low turnout in consent forms that were returned. Furthermore, of those whose parents/guardians did consent, some did not participate in the research, either due to absence or unwillingness to participate. Thirty-eight students (19.4%) participated in the research. Of the 38, it was determined that 33 students were raised in a traditional environment (score of 4 or higher) and

thus these scores were utilized in the analysis of data, while the five remaining were not.

In the collection of data, the researcher worked alongside the eighth grade school counselor to reserve a room where the research could be administered. The students participated in the research during their lunch break. This researcher conducted the research by reading aloud the same set of instructions to all participants as well as the risks and benefits of their participation, the expected duration of participation, that participation was voluntary and other information as outlined on the consent form (see Appendix B). The participants were asked to read their consent forms and sign them before beginning the surveys. When this was done, the researcher and school counselor collected all consent forms so that student identities would be in no way connected to their responses. Students were reminded verbally not to write their names on either survey. The researcher and school counselor confirmed that all consent forms were consenting to the participation and that no student with a survey had declined to participate.

Before completing the surveys, students were informed by the researcher of the debriefing form attached to their surveys. The researcher instructed the students to take this form with them when leaving. This form reiterated that their identity would not be associated with their data and should they encounter any difficulties or concerns due to their participation, who they should contact (see Appendix D).

### **Statement of Hypotheses**

The following null hypotheses were tested throughout this study. They were designed to test the question as to whether the self-concept in certain domains of males differs from that of females when both are viewed in the context of traditional gender socialization.

HA1- There is no significant difference between self-concept in athletic competence of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA2- There is no significant difference between self-concept in physical appearance of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA3- There is no significant difference between self-concept in social acceptance of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA4- There is no significant difference between self-concept in close friendship of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

### **Procedure for Analyzing the Data**

Step 1- The results of the Gender Socialization Instrument were tabulated and individuals found to be raised in a self-assessed traditional environment were divided by gender.

Step 2- The results of the *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* were tabulated for males and females.

Step 3- The results were organized and listed according to the four domains under review.

Step 4- The four hypotheses (HA1, HA2, HA3, HA4) associated with the traditional environment were investigated. This was accomplished by using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U-Test, designed to test differences in distributions. This statistical analysis was chosen because it uses ordinal data and requires less than 20 subjects in each group (Christensen & Stoup, 1991).

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter will present the analysis of data. The statistical analysis follows those steps as outlined in the previous chapter and will be discussed below following the demographic information of the sample.

Forty-two eighth graders participated in this research. Of those, 38 subjects' responses were used; the remaining data could not be used due to incomplete or incorrectly completed survey(s). Of the 38 respondents, 33 were determined to have been raised in a "traditional environment" and thus were used for the purpose of this study. Data from the remaining five respondents were not used. Of the 33 participants, representing 16.8% of the eighth grade class, 19 were female and 14 were male. Ten participants were 13 years old (30.30%); twenty-one participants were 14 years old (63.64%); one participant was 15 years of age (3.03%); and one participant did not indicate age (3.03%). All participants were in eighth grade. Twenty-seven participants identified as White/Caucasian (81.82%); two participants identified as Asian American/Pacific Islander (6.06%); two participants identified as Native American/Alaskan Native (6.06%); one participant identified as Hispanic/Latino (3.03%); and one participant identified as Biracial/Multiracial (3.03%).

Step 1- Of the 38 participants in the research, it was found that 33 participants were raised in a gender socialization environment rated as traditional

(gender socialization score equal to or greater than four). The data collected from the five remaining participants raised in a nontraditional gender socialization environment were not used in the data analysis. The gender socialization score of these 33 participants ranged from 4 to 16. Females had a mean gender socialization score of 9.42 and male's mean gender socialization score was 8.93.

Step 2- The results of the *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* were tabulated by males and females across the domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence and close friendship (see Appendix A). Scores for each individual participant, across each domain are between 1 and 4, where 1 is lowest self-concept in a given domain, and 4 is the highest self-concept in a given domain. The five responses within each domain were averaged to determine one score for each domain.

Step 3- The Mann-Whitney U-test was utilized to determine if the samples have been drawn from the same population. This test was applied to the four domains measured by the *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents*.

Step 4- The four hypotheses tested were as follows:

HA1- There is no significant difference between self-concept in athletic competence of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA2- There is no significant difference between self-concept in physical appearance of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA3- There is no significant difference between self-concept in social acceptance of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

HA4- There is no significant difference between self-concept in close friendship of males and females when both are raised in gender socialization environments rated as traditional.

Table 1 presents the mean rankings by gender for each of the four domains measured by the SPPA.

Table 1

Mean Rankings by Gender

	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
Self-Concept		
Athletic Competence	20.4	14.5
Physical Appearance	19.5	15.1
Social Competence	16.5	17.7
Close Friendship	15.5	18.1

The computed U-values for nondirectional tests does not allow the researcher to reject the null hypotheses at the .05 significance level (Christensen & Stoup, 1991). It should be understood that the mean ranks noted above will be discussed in the conclusions section of Chapter V; however, they are only provided here for descriptive purposes and are not part of the Mann-Whitney test.



## CHAPTER V

### IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### **Implications**

The purpose of this study was to explore how level of gender socialization during childhood influences self-concept in the domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence, and close friendship among eighth grade adolescents. The research investigated whether the experience of traditional gender socialization contributes to gender differences in self-concept among the four domains. This study has focused on these four domains specifically because the literature shows that gender differences in self-concept discovered in prior research are more likely to fall into these, or similar, categories. Indeed, the tendency to assume that gender differences exist in these domains comes from, and possibly perpetuates, long-standing stereotypes that boys are more physical and athletic, whereas girls are more social.

The way in which this study has attempted to investigate traditional gender socialization effects on self-concept is by first measuring level of gender socialization experienced by participants within the home environment. The researcher developed the Gender Socialization Instrument to collect information regarding play (toys), activities, time spent with parents/guardians, as well as participants' perspectives of parent expectations for them and who made household decisions. The instrument was presented to a panel of judges and

subjected to a pilot study, which together provided support for the use of this instrument in serving the purpose of measuring level of gender socialization.

The way in which this study investigated respondents' self-concept was through the administration of Harter's (1988) *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* (SPPA), which has been widely used in previous research. The four domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, social competence and close friendship were used, although participants responded to all items on the questionnaire, which also covered self-concept in five other domains. The scores for each of the above four domains were tallied and the means compared between males and females. As Chapter IV indicated, there were no significant differences found among the data. Consequently, the results failed to reject the four null hypotheses at the focus of this research.

Although not statistically significant, there were gender differences found among the sample along the four domains of self-concept. The domains of athletic competence, physical appearance, and social competence produced gender differences which support the majority of current research and which also reflect gender stereotypes. The gender difference found in the domain of physical appearance was the closest to statistical significance, compared to the analysis of the other three domains. In this domain, males' self-concept was notably higher than females'.

Several studies, cited in the review of the literature, found physical appearance gender differences in self-concept, where that of males were significantly higher than that of females. For example, Roothman et al. (2003)

found males were more comfortable with their physical appearance, as compared to females. Shapka's and Keating's (2005) results also supported this finding. Hay (2000) found that among an antisocial adolescent population, males' physical appearance self-concept was higher than that of females. Cole et al. (2001) performed a longitudinal study, investigating changes of self-concept over time. They found that over the period studied (six years), males' self-concept in physical appearance increased whereas females' decreased significantly. The researchers had two cohorts of participants, one which started in third grade and one which started in the sixth grade. After the six-year period, the younger cohort was in eighth grade, the older in eleventh grade. The gender differences found in the study at hand may reflect the change that Cole et al. (2001) discovered among their sample. The gender differences found in this study within the domain of physical appearance, being the largest gender gap found among the data, is supported by Cole et al.'s finding that during adolescence, males' self-concept in this area appears to increase, while females' decreases.

The results of this study also found that males' self-concept was higher in the domain of athletic competence compared to their female counterparts. This gender difference is reflected in much of the current literature, including the above-referenced study of Shapka and Keating (2005), who also found that males' had a higher self-concept in athletic ability than their female counterparts. Jacobs et al. (2002) researched self-competence in sports, which as discussed is comparable to self-concept in a given domain; their results also showed that males' self-competence in sports is higher than females'. Finally, the study of

Cole et al. (2001) also found a significant gender difference in self-concept of sports ability, males higher than females.

The finding that males' self-concept in social competence (though the least statistically significant) was higher than that of females' is not supported by most of the current research, such as Shapka and Keating (2005), whose research found that females' self-concept in competence was significantly higher than that of males. However, this study's inability to reject the null hypothesis in this domain of self-concept reflects some of the findings of Cole et al. (2001), who did not find a significant difference between males' and females' change in self-concept from elementary to middle school. Their only significant finding along the domain of social competence was in the transition from middle school to high school. Because the sample used in this study consists of eighth graders who have not yet entered high school, the failure to reject the null hypothesis and yield significant results in this domain may be supported by Cole et al.'s (2001) finding, as indicated.

Although the findings in this study failed to reject the null hypotheses, there were still gender differences noted that may support or add to the current literature. Two of the four analyses' provided descriptive support for the majority of current research findings and also reflect gender stereotypes that are prominent within American society. The domain of close friendship, which is somewhat related to social acceptance, has not been the focus of research. However, it has been argued that close friendship self-concept may be expected to be higher in females than males, for stereotypical reasons; the gender

difference, though not statistically significant, did support this stereotype. As discussed, the gender difference found in social competence was surprising, at least in terms of stereotypes and assumptions; males' scores were higher than those of females. However, as indicated, a lack of significant findings within the transition from elementary to middle school was reported by Cole et al. (2001); therefore, the lack of significant findings in this study may suggest there is no significant gender difference in social competence in adolescents of middle school age.

### **Limitations**

The small sample size (33) is a limitation of this study and may have played a role in the inability to yield statistically significant results. The use of participants who were minors is certainly a limitation of this study, for several reasons. First, parental permission was required. This is considered a limitation because some parents refused to consent to their child's participation. In addition, the majority of eighth graders who were offered participation neglected to return consent forms, even after sending them home on two separate occasions. This may be because forms were lost or forgotten; this appears to reflect a lack of responsibility or accountability, or simply a lack of care for participation in these young adolescents.

Furthermore, of the consent forms that were returned with consent to participate, some of those students declined to participate themselves by not attending the allotted time for the administration of the surveys, or were absent on the scheduled day. A limitation which may have contributed to eighth graders'

unwillingness to participate is the administration of the surveys during their lunch break. It is possible that some eighth graders were not willing to give up their lunch time to participate in the research. Or, they may have simply chosen not to participate due to disinterest, or for a variety of other unknown reasons. All of these limitations contributed to the small number of participants, which comprised only 19.4% of the eighth grade class.

Of the respondents who did participate in the research, some of the data collected could not be used due to a failure to complete all questions of the survey(s) and/or incorrectly completing the survey(s). The sample was also chosen due to convenience, in that the researcher has a relationship with the school and because of this was able to acquire permission to conduct research within the facility. Social desirability may also be a limitation in this study, in that respondents may have answered more positively than would accurately describe their true feelings/thoughts regarding a given question, in order to make themselves more appealing to the researcher, themselves, or other students who were also participating. Participants were completing surveys in a room which allowed little space between them, which may have contributed to the possibility of social desirability as an issue. The reward of two mall gift certificates and extra credit offered by one eighth grade teacher must also be mentioned to consider which eighth graders were willing to, or more likely to participate, due to this incentive.

There is a lack of demographic diversity, with the majority of the sample identifying as White/Caucasian and only six participants (18.2%) identifying as a

race/ethnicity other than White/Caucasian. This makes the results generalizable perhaps to White/Caucasian eighth graders but certainly not to other racial/ethnic populations of eighth graders; however, it is interesting to note that this percentage is higher than the demographic percentage for the state in which the research was conducted. The results of this may not be generalizable to other geographical locations, such as the Midwest, Pacific Northwest, the South, etc. Furthermore, the population area can be considered largely suburban, rather than urban/city or rural. Therefore, the results may also not be generalizable to adolescents in the inner city or urban area or adolescents from more rural locations.

Finally, the lack of reliability/validity information on the Gender Socialization Instrument developed by the researcher is also a limitation of this study. Though the measurement was reviewed by a panel of judges and subjected to a pilot study, the fact remains that this instrument has no technical reliability or validity support. Therefore, the finding that these 33 respondents were raised in a traditional gender socialization environment is potentially debatable. This instrument was developed based on research and perceived general attitudes and gender stereotypes within this society, but also on biases and assumptions of the researcher.

### **Recommendations of the Study**

The question behind this research is whether gender socialization plays a role in the development of self-concept. The focus of the research was to explore traditional gender socialization, with the hypothesis that a traditionally raised

group of adolescents would show gender differences among the four chosen domains in gender-stereotyped ways (boys' higher self-concept in physical appearance and athletic competence; girls' higher self-concept in social competence and close friendship). All null hypotheses researched in this study stand as the results were unable to reject them. Future research on this topic would be well advised to use a much larger sample in order to possibly achieve statistically significant results.

A larger sample would also allow for the possibility to measure for traditional versus nontraditional gender socialization environments, with the hope of having more numbers in each category. In doing so, future research may have the opportunity to *compare* the gender differences (or lack thereof) yielded from the results of each group. In order to measure and separate these two groups, a gender socialization instrument similar to the one used in this research, and involving further psychometric testing should be developed. As indicated in previous chapters, there has been a lack of research directly studying the link between gender socialization environments and the development of self-concept among adolescent populations.

Considering the findings of this study regarding the domain of social competence, along with the finding of Cole et al. (2001), further research would be helpful to learn more about gender differences along the domain of self-concept, specifically among male adolescents. The gender difference, though insignificant in this study, showed males with a higher self-concept in social competence, which was not expected from the hypothesis concerning this



domain of self-concept. Cole et al. (2001) discovered that males' self-concept in social competence increased while females' decreased during the transition from middle school to high school. During the transition from elementary to middle school, Cole et al. did not find a significant gender difference in change of self-concept in social acceptance. Since the sample used in this study consists of eighth graders, it is possible the change that Cole et al. researched, from middle school to high school, has begun to show in this population of students.

As noted, the largest gender difference found in this study was among the domain of physical appearance, with males' higher than that of females. This difference may reflect the pressures that females face regarding physical appearance and the difficulties that adolescent girls experience in terms of body image. The long-standing notion that women are to look a certain way, along with media images of impossible standards for females, has arguably led to serious concerns for girls, starting at young ages and continuing even into adulthood. These issues include eating disorders and other concerns related to a negative body image and pressure to fit a certain model of physical appearance.

Mensinger (2005) also explored the possible link between such concerns and gender socialization within the classroom. Using the "Superwoman Scale", which measured the respondent's need to fit the image of the ideal woman, Mensinger (2005) found that scores yielded by this instrument correlated positively with disordered eating. Therefore, these results would suggest that gender socialization plays a role in the pressures felt by adolescents and their perception of how they should look, specifically females. These findings, along

with the gender differences in physical appearance found in this study, and the fact that they were not statistically significant, suggest there may be a need to research self-concept of physical appearance further.

Though this study has not yielded statistically significant results and the null hypotheses were retained, some of the gender differences found may have heuristic implications for future research in the ways just discussed. The research supports current literature in terms of gender differences in self-concept in physical appearance and athletic competence. For self-concept in the domains of social competence and close friendships, the results and their link to current research is less clear. Further inquiry into self-concept in these domains would be beneficial to contribute to the current research. Also, further investigation into what aspects of development and life experience, such as gender socialization, and their effects on the development of self-concept among adolescents would also be a valuable contribution to this field of study and to our understanding of adolescent development and experience in general.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

**TABLE 2: SUMMARY OF DOMAIN SCORES BY GENDER**

	Gender	Athletic Competence	Physical Appearance	Social Acceptance	Close Friendship
1	Female	2.80	2.00	2.20	1.00
2	Female	1.40	2.20	3.00	3.60
3	Female	1.75	2.25	2.25	3.50
4	Female	2.80	2.00	3.80	4.00
5	Female	2.20	3.00	3.20	4.00
6	Female	1.80	1.40	3.20	4.00
7	Female	3.20	3.60	3.20	3.40
8	Female	1.20	2.20	1.80	3.20
9	Female	3.00	2.80	3.40	3.60
10	Female	3.40	3.40	3.00	4.00
11	Female	3.80	2.60	3.40	3.60
12	Female	2.20	3.00	3.20	4.00
13	Female	3.00	1.00	3.60	3.40
14	Female	1.40	1.00	2.80	2.60
15	Female	2.25	2.00	2.40	2.00
16	Female	2.40	1.20	2.00	3.40
17	Female	2.60	1.20	2.60	2.40
18	Female	3.20	1.80	3.20	3.60
19	Female	3.00	1.60	2.40	4.00
20	Male	2.00	1.60	3.20	4.00
21	Male	4.00	2.00	3.60	4.00
22	Male	1.40	2.60	1.60	2.80
23	Male	3.80	3.60	3.00	3.00
24	Male	3.00	2.80	1.80	2.60
25	Male	3.60	2.60	3.20	2.80
26	Male	1.60	1.20	2.00	2.20
27	Male	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
28	Male	4.00	3.40	3.80	4.00
29	Male	3.40	2.00	3.40	2.40
30	Male	3.60	1.80	3.60	2.80
31	Male	1.40	2.20	2.20	4.00
32	Male	3.00	2.40	2.80	3.20
33	Male	3.80	4.00	3.80	4.00
Total	N 33	33	33	33	33

Note: Each score is the mean of five separate responses, with scores ranging between 1 and 4.

## APPENDIX B

### INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this research study is to explore how a person is raised according to his/her gender (being boy or girl), and how this impacts their self-concept (the way they see themselves).

Your participation in this study would require approximately a ½ hour of your time. You will be asked to respond to various questions pertaining to some of your gender-related experiences as a younger child as well as your experiences in the present. Other questions will ask you about the way you perceive yourself in a variety of situations.

All responses and data collected within this research will be kept completely confidential. You will not be asked to write your name on your answer sheet, therefore your identity cannot be linked to your responses in any way. Only the researcher will have access to this data, which will be kept under lock and key.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may skip any question that you do not wish to answer and may stop your participation at any time, without penalty. If you decide not to participate, you may do so without penalty.

Any possible risks associated with participation in this study might involve emotional difficulty or similar issues that could arise due to the personal nature of the questions.

The benefit of this research is to learn more about the connection or relationship between our early childhood gender-related experiences and our development of self-concept.

**Please read and take note of the following statements and respond below with either your consent or decline to participate in this research.**

I understand the following statements in relation to my participation in this study:

1. The purpose of this study, including possible risks and benefits.



APPENDIX B (continued)

2. That my responses will be kept confidential and my identity will in no way be connected to any data that is collected.
3. That my consent to participate is completely voluntary and I may choose not to participate without penalty.
4. That I will receive no reward, financial or otherwise, for my participation.
5. That this research has been approved on human subjects by the University of New Hampshire Internal Review Board.
6. That should I have any questions or concerns regarding this research study, I may contact the Researcher, Erin Libby, a UNH graduate student at (603) 969-0847, or Julie Simpson at the UNH Office of Sponsored Research at (603) 862-2003, and that my identity, if revealed, will be kept confidential.
7. That I fully understand the content of this consent form, the purpose of this research and any risks or benefits to my participation.

**PLEASE CHECK ONE OF THE FOLLOWING AND SIGN BELOW**

(This sheet will be kept SEPARATE from your responses so that your identity and responses will remain confidential).

\_\_\_\_\_ I CONSENT/AGREE to participate in this research study.

\_\_\_\_\_ I DO NOT CONSENT/REFUSE to participate in this research study.

---

Signature

Date

## APPENDIX C

### CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

Dear Parent/Guardian,

My name is Erin Libby and I am a graduate student in the counseling program at the University of New Hampshire. I will be conducting a research study at your child's school on \_\_\_\_\_ . This letter serves to inform you of the purpose of this research, along with possible risks and benefits resulting from your child's participation, after which you may either consent to or decline your child's participation in this study.

The purpose of this research study is to explore how gender socialization relates to the development of self-concept. Gender socialization is the process of learning how to behave in gender-appropriate ways, to engage in gender-appropriate activities, and to develop interests suitable for one's gender (boy-masculine; girl-feminine).

Your child's participation in this study would require approximately a ½ hour of his/her class time. The student will be asked to respond to various questions pertaining to gender-related experiences as a young child as well as similar experiences in the present. Other questions will focus on how your child perceives him/herself in a variety of situations. All questions are personal in nature.

All responses and data collected within this research will be kept completely confidential. Your child's identity cannot be linked to his/her responses in any way. Only the researcher will have access to this data, which will be kept under lock and key.

Your child's participation in this study is completely voluntary to them, and is only permitted with parent permission. Once parent permission is granted, your child will be provided with an informed consent form before the questionnaire is administered, where he/she will be given the option of consenting to or declining participation.

Any possible risks associated with participation in this study could potentially involve emotional difficulty or similar issues that might arise due to the personal nature of the questions.

APPENDIX C (continued)

The benefit of this research is to learn more about the connection or relationship between our early childhood gender-related experiences and our development of self-concept.

For further information regarding this study, please contact the Researcher, Erin Libby, at (603)969-0847, or Julie Simpson at the University of New Hampshire Office of Sponsored Research at (603) 862-2003. The UNH Internal Review Board has approved the conduction of this research study on human subjects.

PLEASE CHECK ONE OF THE FOLLOWING, FILLING IN NAMES WHERE APPLICABLE, AND FOLLOWED BY YOUR SIGNATURE.

\_\_\_\_\_, I, \_\_\_\_\_, parent/guardian  
of

\_\_\_\_\_ hereby **CONSENT** to his/her  
participation in this research study.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature for Consent

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_, I, \_\_\_\_\_,  
parent/guardian of

\_\_\_\_\_ **DO NOT** consent to his/her  
participation  
in this research study.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature for Decline

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

## APPENDIX D

### DEBRIEFING FORM

#### **THANK YOU!**

Thank you for your participation in this study. You have contributed to important research which will explore the impact of gender socialization on adolescent self-concept.

The goal of this research study is to determine whether the way we are raised and treated by our parents in terms of gender (being male or female) has an effect on our self-concept in the areas of physical appearance, sports ability, social competence, and close friendship during adolescence.

Specifically, this study will explore whether traditional households, which are characterized by boys doing masculine things and girls doing feminine things will positively influence boys' self-concept in the areas of physical appearance and sports ability, and girls' self-concept in the areas of social competence and close friendship.

If you are interested in the findings of this research study, feel free to email the Researcher, Erin Libby at [elibby22@yahoo.com](mailto:elibby22@yahoo.com) for further information.

If you experience the need for professional counseling services following your participation in this research, please consult one of the following counseling services:

- Sweetser- See Ms. Ring or Ms. Camp to schedule appt.
- Counseling Services, Inc.: (207) 439-8391
- Great Bay Mental Health (603) 742-9200
- Atlantic Behavioral Medicine (603) 749-2729

If you would like information regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact Julie Simpson at the University of New Hampshire Office of Sponsored Research at (603) 862-2003 or [julie.simpson@unh.edu](mailto:julie.simpson@unh.edu).

Thanks again for your participation!

Sincerely,  
Erin Libby

## APPENDIX E

### DEMOGRAPHIC & GENDER SOCIALIZATION INSTRUMENT

Demographic Information:

Sex: \_\_\_\_\_ Male      Age: \_\_\_\_\_      Grade: \_\_\_\_\_  
                        \_\_\_\_\_ Female

Race/ethnicity:

\_\_\_\_\_ Asian American/Pacific Islander  
\_\_\_\_\_ African American  
\_\_\_\_\_ Native American/Alaskan Native  
\_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic/Latino  
\_\_\_\_\_ White/Caucasian  
\_\_\_\_\_ Biracial/Multiracial. Please specify races/ethnicities: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender socialization information:

1. Growing up, I was raised by:
  1. My mother/female caregiver & father/caregiver (married or divorced)
  1. My mother/female caregiver only
  2. My father/male caregiver only
  3. Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_
  
2. As a young child, which of the following kinds of play were you most likely to engage in? (Choose only FOUR or less)
  1. Play with dolls
  2. Play with cars or trucks
  3. Play with blocks
  4. Play with kitchen/cooking toys (ex: EZ-Bake Oven)
  5. Play house
  6. Play with action figures
  7. Play with toy guns
  
3. As a young child, which of the following toys were your parents/guardians most likely to buy for you? (Choose only FOUR or less)
  1. A Barbie or other doll
  2. Sports memorabilia (basketball, hockey stick, etc.)
  3. Dress-up clothes, accessories, or make-up
  4. Stuffed animal
  5. Board game, puzzle, or book

6. Action figure
7. Play-Doh or Arts & Crafts supplies
8. A video or computer game

4. Which of the following chores were you most likely to do? (Choose only FIVE or less)

1. Cleaning the bathroom
2. Mow or rake the lawn
3. Vacuum or sweep the floor/carpet
4. Wash the car
5. Do the dishes
6. Make dinner or other meals
7. Shovel snow
8. Wash the windows
9. Pile wood
10. Do the laundry
11. Do gardening
12. Take out the trash

5. In which of the following activities did your parents/guardians encourage you to participate and/or sign you up for? (Choose only FIVE or less)

1. Baseball
2. Softball
3. Dance (ballet, tap, jazz, etc.)
4. Football
5. Jump rope club
6. Boy scouts
7. Girl scouts
8. Camping
9. Fishing
10. Soccer
11. Hockey
12. Book club/yearbook
13. Track or Cross Country
14. Math team or chess team
15. Music (chorus, musical instrument, etc.)
16. Cheering or Gymnastics
17. Art/Drawing class
18. Acting/Theater Class
19. Skiing or snowboarding
20. Hiking club

6. With your parent/guardian, what did/do you do together most often? (Choose only FIVE or less)

APPENDIX E (continued)

1. Sports activities (ex: play catch)
  2. Read books
  3. Draw, paint, or arts & crafts
  4. Go to the movies
  5. Cook meals
  6. Go to the beach
  7. Build something (ex: woodworking)
  8. Play board games
  9. Do homework together
  10. Go out to eat
  11. Talk
  12. Go shopping
  13. Roughhouse
  14. Go for a walk
  15. Attend a play or museum
  16. Skiing or snowboarding
  17. Hiking
  18. Hunting or fishing
  19. Camping
7. In my family, my mother/female guardian/caretaker:
1. Has a full time job
  2. Works in the home (homemaker, childcare)
  3. Has a part time job and is part time at home
  4. Not applicable, was not raised by female caretaker
8. In my family, my father/male guardian/caretaker:
1. Has a full time job
  2. Works in the home (homemaker, childcare)
  3. Has a part time job and is part time at home
  4. Not applicable, was not raised by male caretaker
9. In which field does your mother/female caregiver work?
1. Business
  2. Medical healthcare
  3. The Arts (Music/Theater/Art)
  4. Education
  5. Mental health
  6. Engineering
  7. Lawyer
  8. Accounting or Finance
  9. Advertising or Marketing
  10. Maintenance (housekeeper, custodian, etc.)
  11. Technician

- 12. Construction or similar
- 13. Hospitality (server, chef/cook)
- 14. Stay at home mom
- 15. Other: \_\_\_\_\_

10. In which field does your father/male caregiver work?

- 1. Business
- 2. Medical healthcare
- 3. The Arts (Music/Theater/Art)
- 4. Education
- 5. Mental health
- 6. Engineering
- 7. Lawyer
- 8. Accounting or Finance
- 9. Advertising or Marketing
- 10. Maintenance (housekeeper, custodian, etc.)
- 11. Technician
- 12. Construction or similar
- 13. Hospitality (server, chef/cook)
- 14. Stay at home dad
- 15. Other: \_\_\_\_\_

11. I believe that my parents/caregivers have the following expectations for me:

(Choose only FOUR or less)

- 1. Get good grades
- 2. Be nice and well-liked
- 3. Make friends
- 4. Be successful
- 5. Play sports/be athletic
- 6. Be outgoing and social
- 7. Be strong
- 8. Make a lot of money in the future
- 9. Go to college
- 10. Get a good job/career
- 11. Get married
- 12. Have children
- 13. Be modest and reserved
- 14. Be sensitive to others' needs

12. As a child, how did your parents/caregivers teach you to interact with others?

(Choose only FOUR or less)

- 1. Be outgoing and social
- 2. Be kind/nice
- 3. Help others



4. Share your feelings with others
  5. Be well-mannered/polite
  6. Show strength/be tough
  7. Don't show your emotions and never let others see you cry
  8. Be aggressive
  9. Be smart/show intelligence
  10. Be competitive
  11. Don't fight back, turn the other cheek
  12. Fight back if threatened, don't back down
  13. Avoid conflict, don't ruffle any feathers
13. As a young child, my parents/guardians often dressed me in:
1. Jeans
  2. Overalls
  3. Skirts
  4. Casual pants
  5. Dresses
  6. Sweatpants
14. Growing up, I noticed that my \_\_\_\_\_ made most of the household decisions and had the final say.
1. Father/male caregiver
  2. Mother/female caregiver
  3. Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_
  4. Do not know
15. Growing up, my \_\_\_\_\_ was more likely to make sure I followed through with things and did what I was supposed to.
1. Father/male caregiver
  2. Mother/female caregiver
  3. Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_
16. Growing up, my \_\_\_\_\_ scheduled most of the doctor's appointments for me and my family.
1. Father/male caregiver
  2. Mother/female caregiver
  3. Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_
  4. Do not know
17. Growing up, my \_\_\_\_\_ most often drove me to my activities.
1. Father/male caregiver
  2. Mother/female caregiver
  3. Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX F

### HARTER'S (1988) SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR ADOLESCENTS

# What I Am Like

		SAMPLE SENTENCE					
	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me		BUT		Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
a)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers like to go to movies in their spare time	BUT	Other teenagers would rather go to sports events.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are just as smart as others their age	BUT	Other teenagers aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends	BUT	For other teenagers it's pretty easy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers do very well at all kinds of sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are not happy with the way they look	BUT	Other teenagers are happy with the way they look.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are ready to do well at a part-time job	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are not quite ready to handle a part-time job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that if they are romantically interested in someone, that person will like them back	BUT	Other teenagers worry that when they like someone romantically, that person won't like them back.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers usually do the right thing	BUT	Other teenagers often don't do what they know is right.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are able to make really close friends	BUT	Other teenagers find it hard to make really close friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are often disappointed with themselves	BUT	Other teenagers are pretty pleased with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are pretty slow in finishing their school work	BUT	Other teenagers can do their school work more quickly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers have a lot of friends	BUT	Other teenagers don't have very many friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers think they could do well at just about any new athletic activity	BUT	Other teenagers are afraid they might not do well at a new athletic activity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX F (continued)

	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me			Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me	
13.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers wish their body was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their body the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they don't have enough skills to do well at a job	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they do have enough skills to do a job well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are not dating the people they are really attracted to	BUT	Other teenagers are dating those people they are attracted to.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers often get in trouble for the things they do	BUT	Other teenagers usually don't do things that get them in trouble	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers do have a close friend they can share secrets with	BUT	Other teenagers do not have a really close friend they can share secrets with	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers don't like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other teenagers do like the way they are leading their life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers do very well at their classwork	BUT	Other teenagers don't do very well at their classwork.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are very hard to like	BUT	Other teenagers are really easy to like.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are better than others their age at sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel they can play as well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers wish their physical appearance was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their physical appearance the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel they are old enough to get and keep a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers do not feel they are old enough, yet, to really handle a job well	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that people their age will be romantically attracted to them	BUT	Other teenagers worry about whether people their age will be attracted to them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel really good about the way they act	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel that good about the way they often act	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers wish they had a really close friend to share things with	BUT	Other teenagers do have a close friend to share things with.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are happy with themselves most of the time	BUT	Other teenagers are often not happy with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers have trouble figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other teenagers almost always can figure out the answers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX F (continued)

	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me			Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me	
29.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are popular with others their age	BUT	Other teenagers are not very popular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers don't do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other teenagers are good at new games right away.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers think that they are good looking	BUT	Other teenagers think that they are not very good looking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel like they could do better at work they do for pay	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are doing really well at work they do for pay.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are fun and interesting on a date	BUT	Other teenagers wonder about how fun and interesting they are on a date.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers do things they know they shouldn't do	BUT	Other teenagers hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends they can really trust	BUT	Other teenagers are able to make close friends they can really trust.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers like the kind of person they are	BUT	Other teenagers often wish they were someone else.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are pretty intelligent	BUT	Other teenagers question whether they are intelligent.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are socially accepted	BUT	Other teenagers wished that more people their age accepted them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers do not feel that they are very athletic	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are very athletic.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers really like their looks	BUT	Other teenagers wish they looked different.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers feel that they are really able to handle the work on a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers wonder if they are really doing as good a job at work as they should be doing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers usually <i>don't</i> go out with the people they would really like to date	BUT	Other teenagers <i>do</i> go out with the people they really want to date.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers usually act the way they know they are supposed to	BUT	Other teenagers often don't act the way they are supposed to.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers <i>don't</i> have a friend that is close enough to share really personal thoughts with	BUT	Other teenagers <i>do</i> have a close friend that they can share personal thoughts and feelings with.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some teenagers are very happy being the way they are	BUT	Other teenagers wish they were different.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX G

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER

University of New Hampshire

Research Conduct and Compliance Services, Office of Sponsored Research  
Service Building, 51 College Road, Durham, NH 03824-3585  
Fax: 603-862-3564

08-Dec-2006

Libby, Erin  
Education, Morrill Hall  
827 Tri-City Road  
Somersworth, NH 03878

**IRB #:** 3842

**Study:** Gender Socialization: Implications for Gender Differences in Self-Concept Among Adolescents

**Approval Date:** 08-Dec-2006

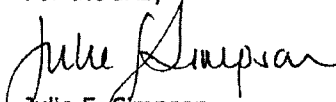
The Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) has reviewed and approved the protocol for your study as Expedited as described in Title 45, Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), Part 46, Subsection 110.

**Approval is granted to conduct your study as described in your protocol for one year from the approval date above.** At the end of the approval period, you will be asked to submit a report with regard to the involvement of human subjects in this study. If your study is still active, you may request an extension of IRB approval.

Researchers who conduct studies involving human subjects have responsibilities as outlined in the attached document, *Responsibilities of Directors of Research Studies Involving Human Subjects*. (This document is also available at <http://www.unh.edu/osr/compliance/irb.html>.) Please read this document carefully before commencing your work involving human subjects.

If you have questions or concerns about your study or this approval, please feel free to contact me at 603-862-2003 or [Julie.simpson@unh.edu](mailto:Julie.simpson@unh.edu). Please refer to the IRB # above in all correspondence related to this study. The IRB wishes you success with your research.

For the IRB,

  
Julie F. Simpson  
Manager

cc: File  
Hebert, David