

2007

## Gender differences in relational influences on mood and self-esteem

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN RELATIONAL  
INFLUENCES ON MOOD AND  
SELF-ESTEEM

Thesis

Submitted to

The College of Arts and Sciences of the  
UNIVERSITY OF DAYTON

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

The Degree

Master of Arts in Psychology

by

Rick L. Payne

UNIVERSITY OF DAYTON

Dayton, OH

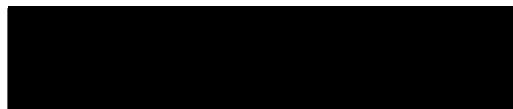
November 2007

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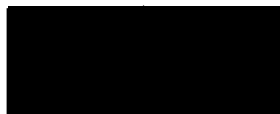
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## Abstract

### Gender Differences in Relational Influences on Mood and Self-esteem

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Many theorists have examined the assumption that men and women demonstrate qualitative differences in the organization of the Self, with men being more agentic and women being more communal. However, research results on this topic have been mixed. One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that men and women differ in the range of types of relationships that have the power to affect their mood and self-esteem. That is, whereas women's mood and self-esteem may vary considerably as a function of feedback from a wide-range of different people, men's mood and self-esteem might only vary when someone with whom they are especially close gives the feedback. Using a sample of 70 male and 57 female college students, the current study used self-report measures and experimental manipulation to examine these hypotheses. Participants completed a measure of sex-role identity, as well as pre-test measures of mood and self-esteem. Then they were randomly assigned to vividly imagine and write about scenarios of praise or criticism from acquaintances or loved ones. Lastly, participants completed post-test measures of mood and self-esteem. It was hypothesized that, in the acquaintance

conditions, only women would experience decreases in self-esteem and mood following being asked to imagine criticism and increases in self-esteem and mood following being asked to imagine praise. In the loved one conditions, it was hypothesized that both men and women would experience decreases in self-esteem and mood following being asked to imagine criticism and increases in self-esteem and mood following images of praise. A similar pattern of means was expected when sex-role identity was substituted for gender in the study analyses. The results indicated that women were more likely than men to experience an increase in negative affect after envisioning a criticism and an increase in self-esteem after envisioning praise. Additionally, those individuals who were low in masculinity demonstrated decreases in self-esteem following a criticism in comparison to individuals high in masculinity. Taken together these results suggest that heightened interpersonal sensitivity can lead to an unstable mood and self-concept. This instability may ultimately lead to chronic depression and low self-esteem, thereby explaining gender differences in these two variables.

## Acknowledgments

A very special thanks must be given to Dr. Catherine Zois for sticking with me throughout this entire project. Your expertise and wisdom has been a blessing to me, along with the generosity of your time.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank and show my appreciation to everyone who has helped with this project. This includes Dr. Roger Reeb, who offered great guidance during my proposal; Dr. John Korte, who has also offered great guidance to complete this project; and Amanda Reinhardt, for helping me with running subjects. I have worked with a great team of people at the University of Dayton to complete this thesis, and I will always be appreciative of their efforts.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this thesis in loving memory of my father. He always stressed the importance of furthering my education. Both of my parents have always been so supportive of me and their never-ending encouragement helped me to complete this project.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of the field, psychological theorists have examined the nature and structure of the self (Freud, 1923/1961; James, 1890; Lewis, 1935). All the beliefs that we have about ourselves---about who we are, what characteristics we have, what our personal histories have made us, and what we may yet become---make up our self-concept (Horowitz & Bordens, 1995). Erikson describes the self as developing through a series of acts as one is forced to separate him or herself from the masses, and develop a self-concept through separation and individuation (Erikson, 1950). Erikson contends that one's entire life consists of stages where each stage has a psychosocial task. During the toddler stage or the second year, Erikson reports that the toddler is striving to be independent and self-confident. Later on, around six years old, the child struggles with competence vs. inferiority. During adolescence, he or she starts to test out different roles to find out who they really are and to develop a single identity. Erikson also suggests that it is not until early adulthood (twenties to early forties) that people start to struggle with intimacy vs. isolation. Thus, according to Erikson, one's experiences in relationships do not form the basis for the development of one's identity. Rather, the basic underpinnings of one's

identity are thought to be consolidated prior to the time that a person's attention shifts toward enhancing intimacy with others.

According to Carol Gilligan and her colleagues, the "normal" struggle to create one's separate identity describes individualist males more than relationship-oriented females (Myers, 1992). Gilligan believes females to be more focused on "making connections" and less focused on separating themselves as individuals (Gilligan, 1982; Gilligan, Lyons, & Hanmer, 1990). Therefore, Gilligan would contend that Erikson's assertion that one's identity is established before one's desire to obtain close relationships would not apply to females.

Many studies have suggested that gender differences exist in the development of the self-concept or identity (Cramer, 2000; Lang-Takac & Osterweil, 1992; Lyons, 1983; Thorbecke & Grotevant, 1982; Vispoel & Fast, 2000), while other studies have proposed that there are no such gender differences (Jackson, Hodge, & Ingram, 1994; Kroger, 1997; Shaw & Edwards, 1997; Streitmatter, 1993). One possible explanation for these contradictory results is that although relationships affect identity development in both men and women, the self-concept of women is influenced by a larger number of relationships and relationships of less depth.

The following sections will first examine the ideas of some prominent psychosocial theorists that contributed to the study of self-concept and self-esteem. Second, the empirical support for gender differences in self-concept will be explored. Third, the difference between self-esteem and self-concept, as well

as research on gender differences in self-esteem, will be discussed. Lastly, a study that examines possible gender differences in the factors that shape self-esteem will be proposed. Specifically, this study hypothesizes that the self-esteem of males and females depends on the breadth and depth of relationships with women's self-esteem being affected by a larger number of different types or breadth of relationships and men's self-esteem being affected by relationships characterized with a high level depth and intimacy.

### *Theoretical Background*

#### *Erik Erikson*

During adolescence we begin to examine the make up of ourselves and pursue the quest for an identity, and Erik Erikson (1950, 1956, 1968a, 1968b, 1974, 1982) was one of the first psychoanalysts to recognize the need for identity development as a major achievement of adolescence. Constructing an identity involves defining who you are, what you value, and the directions you choose to pursue in life. This search for self is the driving force behind many new commitments, including to a sexual orientation, to a vocation, and to ethical, political, religious, and cultural ideals (Berk, 1997).

Erikson believes that all positive outcomes in infancy and childhood help in developing a positive identity. Even though identity formation begins during infancy and childhood, the task of identifying oneself would not become a necessity until adolescence. According to Erikson, in complex societies, teenagers experience an identity crisis, which is a temporary period of confusion and distress as they experiment with alternatives before settling on a set of

values and goals (Berk, 1997). During this time young people are questioning everything that society has exposed to them, and is trying to decide what will fit with their identity and what will not. During this especially important time, they encounter the characteristics, values, and commitments that are important to them. Through this process of examining oneself, they sift through characteristics that defined the self in childhood and combine them with new commitments, and then mold these into a solid inner core that provides a sense of sameness as they move through different roles in daily life (Berk, 1997).

When refining their identity, adolescents usually try on different "selves" in different situations in an effort to find out which self is more comfortable (Myers, 1992). This implies that the adolescent may be one person at home with parents, another person with their friends, and still yet another person at school or with coworkers (Myers, 1992). Difficulties arise when situations overlap and the young person is forced to choose one role. Often, this role confusion gets resolved by gradual reshaping of a self-definition that unifies the various selves into a consistent and comfortable sense of who one is (Myers, 1992).

But sometimes the outcome is negative. Erikson uses the term identity diffusion to describe the negative outcome of the adolescent period (Erikson, 1968). Some young people appear shallow and directionless, either because earlier conflicts have not been adequately resolved or society restricts their choices to ones that do not match their abilities and desires (Berk, 1997). This implies that the young person with identity diffusion will not be prepared for psychological tasks in adulthood.

Erikson also believes that some adolescents forge their identity early, simply by taking on their parents' values and expectations (Myers, 1992). And others may take a longer amount of time to find themselves. College or the workplace provides many opportunities for a person to try different roles. As college seniors, many students have achieved a clearer identity than they had as first-year students (Waterman, 1988).

Erikson contends that the adolescent identity stage is followed in young adulthood by a developing capacity for intimacy (Myers, 1992). Erikson believes once you become more confident in who you are, then you are ready to develop close relationships (Erikson, 1950). As identity and intimacy mature during the twenties, emotional ties between parents and children that have already begun to loosen, continue to loosen further (Myers, 1992). By their late twenties, most individuals feel more comfortably independent of their parents and better able to empathize with them as fellow adults (Frank, 1988; White, 1983). Although Erikson's theorizing has been widely accepted, some believe that he did not consider other variables in the development of self, particularly some variables that impact females.

#### *Critics of Erik Erikson*

*Nancy Chodorow.* Nancy Chodorow was one of the first psychoanalytic theorists to examine the possibility of gender biases in theories of self-development. The mother-daughter relationship and women's psychology had been addressed by psychoanalysts, but it was not until the 1970's that a feminist psychoanalytic perspective was used to examine this mother-daughter bond.

The radicalism of Chodorow's original work is that she extended theorizing about the significance of girls' pre-Oedipal relation to mothers by locating gender division in the problems of the pre-Oedipal mother rather than in the differential relation to the penis, as it is in the work of Freud and Lacan (Benjamin, 2002). Chodorow explains that boys and girls carry a very intimate relationship with their mother before the Oedipal/Electra complex (Chodorow, 1978). During this time, the child's view of self is *embedded* in the relationship with the mother (Chodorow, 1978).

Despite a close relationship, the boy changes during the phallic stage. Chodorow explains that girls experience continuity with their mother as less threatening than do boys (Benjamin, 2002). On the other hand, boys tend to fear that continuity and what is feminine, and therefore shift their focus to the father for identity formation and denial of what is feminine in himself (Chodorow, 1978). The problem is that, in our society, the father often is not the main caregiver and is unavailable to establish the needed bond to develop this relationship. Because time with their father is limited, boys have more difficulty in developing their identity. As a result, instead of boys' identification consisting of embracing what is male, it consists of denying what is female (Chodorow, 1978). Chodorow refers to this as *positional identification* as opposed to *personal identification* (Chodorow, 1978). While boys identify with the unclear male, which is based on one's hierarchical position in society, girls continue to identify with the personal relationship that develops between the mother and daughter (Chodorow, 1978). Due to these different experiences during the phallic stage, boys' identities are



closely tied to competition and achievement whereas girls' identities are closely tied to relationships (Chodorow, 1978).

*Carol Gilligan.* Carol Gilligan has faced many critics for her radical views on women's self-development. Like Nancy Chodorow, Gilligan believes that early conceptualizations of self-development, such as the one outlined by Erik Erikson, were based on male experiences and, therefore, biased towards the male gender. Gilligan criticizes the long-established pattern in academic research of establishing norms based on men's experience alone (Kerber, Greeno, Maccoby, Luria, Stack, & Gilligan, 1986). Building on the theories of Nancy Chodorow and other ego psychologists, Gilligan stresses the necessarily different early experiences of girls, who understand at a very young age that they are like their mothers, and boys, whose first psychic task is to learn that they are not and can never grow up to be like their mothers (Kerber et al., 1986). Gilligan argues that the effect is a self delineated through *connection* for girls, and a self defined through *separation* for boys (Gilligan, 1982).

Most importantly, Gilligan disagrees with Lawrence Kohlberg's moral development scale in which women show a developmental deficiency in moral reasoning in comparison to males. Gilligan argues that the supposed deficiencies of female development were due to the analyses of moral "levels" being primarily based on male subjects (Kerber et al., 1986). Kohlberg's moral development scale consists of four levels, and adult reasoning starts at level three (Kohlberg, 1981). Level three reasoning is concerned with maintaining bonds with others (Kohlberg, 1981). The move to level four is made by shifting

one's reasoning to a system of law that is good for the society (Kohlberg, 1981). Some studies suggest that women remain scored at the "immature" level three, but Gilligan argues that women progress on a different path that moves from only serving others' interests to emphasizing self-actualization (Kerber et al., 1986). In her book *In a Different Voice* (1982), Gilligan claims that, when it comes to moral reasoning, women have a "different voice" than men, and she feels that this voice has been unheard. Essentially, Gilligan asserts that the moral reasoning process of women is qualitatively different from that of men. Gilligan reported that men tend to be more focused on the rights of the individual, which she called the *justice perspective* (Gilligan, 1982). On the other hand, Gilligan found women to be more focused on caring and communicating to maintain relationships, which she labeled the *care perspective* (Gilligan, 1982). In her research, Gilligan has identified three levels of moral reasoning (Gilligan, 1982). In Level I, the woman is considered to be thinking very selfishly; Level II consists of caring for others; and Level III encapsulates the balance of caring for oneself and caring for others (Gilligan, 1982). This *caring perspective* explains the voice of women that Gilligan claims to be missing from Kohlberg's theory of moral development (Gilligan, 1982).

*The Women of the Stone Center.* The women of the Stone Center are feminist scholars who examine the women's sense of self and challenge such theorists as Erikson to include the female perspective in theories of development. As such, these scholars borrow heavily from the assumptions of Chodorow and Gilligan. One of the women of the Stone Center, Janet Surrey, has found the

construct of the "self-in-relation" to play an important role in female self-development. Surrey proposed the following definition of self: "a construct useful in describing the organization of a person's experience and construction of reality that illuminates the purpose and directionality of her or his behavior" (Jordan et al., 1991). Surrey then goes on to explore the sex differences in the experience and construction of the self, and views the central theme of women's self as much more associated with relationships. Surrey explains the conception of the self-in-relation to involve the recognition that, for women, the primary experience of self is relational. That is, the self is organized and developed in the context of important relationships (Jordan et al., 1991).

To clarify the differences between the "self-in-relation" theory and Erikson's stages, Surrey explains that in Erikson's stages relational trust is developed in early infancy and is not seen again until late adolescence. Surrey and her colleagues' theory suggests instead that for women a different – and relational – pathway is primary and continuous (Jordan et al., 1991). The "self-in-relation" theory shifts the main emphasis of self-development from separation to relationship.

In sum, Chodorow, Gilligan, and the women of the Stone Center share two common assumptions. First, there are fundamental differences between men and women in the nature of self-concept. This difference can best be summarized by Bakan's (1966) classic distinction between agency in men (i.e., self-protective, assertive, individualistic, pushing toward achievement) and

communion in women (i.e., being at one with other organisms, characterized by contact or union).

The second core assumption is that our society tends to overemphasize the agentic ethic at the expense of the communal ethic (Jordan et al., 1991). By focusing on just the agentic perspective, we may be missing an integral part of self development for women.

#### *Own Versus Other Standpoints in Self-Regulation*

Drawing from self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), Moretti and Higgins (1999) proposed yet another distinction pertaining to gender and self-concept. In general, self-discrepancy theory suggests that people's representations of self-concept can be subdivided into three different domains: the actual self (i.e., the type of person that one perceives that she or he actually is), the ideal self (i.e., the type of person that one wishes to be), and the ought self (i.e., the type of person that one believes she or he should be). When a person becomes aware of a discrepancy between their actual and ought selves, anxiety ensues. In contrast, the theory posits that actual-ideal discrepancies result in depression (Higgins, 1996).

According to the theory, each of these three domains can be viewed from the vantage point of one's own perspective or from the inferred perspective of others. Persons differ in the extent to which they habitually rely upon their own view of self to guide their emotional and behavioral responses to their environment (own self-regulators) versus their inferences regarding other people's wishes and expectations of them (other self-regulators) (Moretti &

Higgins, 1999). One study revealed that other self-regulators demonstrated a greater sensitivity and responsiveness toward negative interpersonal feedback (Moretti, Higgins, Woody, & Leung, 1998). Such a difference may put other self-regulators at greater risk for difficulties with depression and low self-esteem (Moretti and Higgins, 1999).

Some studies indicate that women may be more likely to be other self-regulators. For instance, a study by Moretti and colleagues (Moretti, Rein, & Wiebe, 1998) indicated that female participants, in comparison to the male participants, evidenced greater actual-ideal discrepancies based on their own standpoint rather than the standpoint they inferred from others. This is consistent with the speculation that women are more influenced by the other standpoint in that they presumably are more motivated to resolve discrepancies that may exist in those domains. Another study that supports gender differences in self-regulation (Vlashev, Moretti, and Roney, 1998) found the priming of parental aspirations for them resulted in female participants, but not male participants, listing these qualities when asked to describe their actual self. Again, this finding suggests that women's self-concepts may vacillate more than men's as a function of other people's expectations of them.

#### *Empirical Research on Gender Differences in Self-Concept*

Many studies have examined the possibilities of gender differences in self-concept or identity (Cramer, 2000; Jackson, Hodge, & Ingram, 1994; Kroger, 1997; Lang-Takac & Osterweil, 1992; Lyons, 1983; Mellor, 1989; Shaw & Edwards, 1997; Streitmatter, 1993; Thorbecke & Grotevant, 1982; Vispoel &

Fast, 2000). The proceeding two sections will discuss empirical results that support the claim that there are gender differences in self-concept or identity, followed by empirical results that show no significant gender differences.

### *Empirical Support for Gender Differences in Self-concept or Identity*

Lyons (1983) conducted a study in which male and female subjects were interviewed in order to ascertain their modes of self-definition (Lyons, 1983). The two modes of self definition Lyons examined were separate/objective or connected. Respondents were asked "How would you describe yourself to yourself?" and responses were analyzed to determine the predominance of one of two modes of self definition (Lyons, 1983). Lyons found that women more frequently used characterizations of a connected self, while men more frequently used characterizations of a separate/objective self (Lyons, 1983). Lyons also reported that although these different gender-related modalities occurred systematically across the life-cycle, they were not absolute; some women and some men defined themselves with elements of both modes (Lyons, 1983).

Vispoel and Fast (2000) conducted a study in which they examined sex differences in multiple domains of self-concept. Specifically, they hypothesized that males and females often engage in stereotypically gender-consistent behaviors, but do not necessarily possess gender-consistent self-concepts (i.e., agentic if male or communal if female). To explore one possible explanation for this inconsistency, they used the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR), developed by Paulhus (1988), to examine the possible influence of two forms of socially desirable responding (SDR) on scores within 17 domains of self-

concept (Vispoel & Fast, 2000). The two forms of SDR examined by the researchers were self-deception (unintentional - wearing rose-colored glasses to enhance one's self-views) and impression management (intentional - where one's own views of oneself are not altered, but other's views are) (Vispoel & Fast, 2000). These investigators reported that sex differences were changed by the intentional form of SDR (impression management) but not by the unintentional form (self-deception) (Vispoel & Fast, 2000). In their study, in eight domains (general school, verbal, parent relations, music, visual art, same-sex relations, dance, and honesty-trustworthiness), controlling for impression management reduced sex differences that originally favored women (Vispoel & Fast, 2000). On the other hand, they found that in four other domains (physical appearance, problem-solving, math, emotional stability), controlling for impression management nominally increased sex differences that were thought to be interests or traits of the traditional male role (Vispoel & Fast, 2000). Basically, they found impression management to act as a suppressant for sex differences in the traditional male self-concept domains (physical appearance, problem-solving, math, and emotional stability), with an even bigger sex difference being shown in these domains after controlling for impression management. Based on their findings, Vispoel and Fast concluded that statistical controlling for impression management served to reduce sex differences in traditional female self-concept domains (e.g., verbal, artistic, social, moral) and increase sex differences in traditional male self-concept domains (e.g., physical, problem-solving, math, emotional stability) (Vispoel & Fast, 2000).

Vispoel and Fast reasoned that the increase in sex differences for the traditional male self-concept domains may be due to women's stronger tendency to attempt to present themselves in a positive light. That is, "masculine traits" such as problem-solving ability are often valued in many societies, thus women would normally endorse possessing them. However, when controlling for a tendency to present themselves in a positive light, the actual nature of women's self-concepts may be revealed.

Lang-Takac and Osterweil (1992) examined separateness and connectedness, hypothesizing that males are more separated and females are more connected. In their study, 60 adults (30 men and 30 women), all Israelis of western origin, completed self-report questionnaires that assessed separateness and connectedness. The authors reported that males show medium to high self-other differentiation and independence, while females showed low to medium self-other differentiation and independence. Further, they found females as compared to males, showed higher empathy and desired higher emotional intimacy. Therefore, Lang-Takac and Osterweil concluded that their findings supported the works of such theorists as Chodorow and Gilligan in that females showed higher degrees of connectedness and males showed higher degrees of separateness.

Cramer (2000) performed a study in which the association between identity development and personality was examined to determine if there were gender differences in those relations. Cramer used four developmental stages or statuses developed by Marcia (1966) as framework for the study. For the



adolescent, the developmental pathway of the four stages begins with the Diffused Identity (no commitment to personal values or goals has been made with no exploration of options), moves toward either a Foreclosed Identity (a commitment to specific values and goals has been made with no exploration or crisis, but an adoption of the values provided by parents or other influential people) or alternatively toward a Moratorium Identity (no commitment to values or goals has been reached, but the individual is exploring possibilities), and finally reaches an Achieved Identity (a commitment to personal values and goals has been made after experiencing exploration or crisis) (Marcia, 1966).

The participants of Cramer's study consisted of 90 males between the ages of 18-21, and 110 females between the ages of 17-21 (Cramer, 2000). All participants first completed the California Adult Q-Sort (CAQ; Block, 1978) and then the Extended Objective Measure of Ego-Identity Status (EOM-EIS-2; Adams, Bennion, & Huh, 1989). The researcher reported gender differences in identity development with males being more characterized by self-definition/autonomy and females by connectedness/social concern (Cramer, 2000). The author found that both males and females with high Achieved identity scores were characterized by self-esteem, low anxiety, and low depression, and both genders described themselves as assertive and believing in their own adequacy (Cramer, 2000). However, Cramer went on to report that a gender difference was found in the way these characteristics were manifested specifically. For males, assertion and adequacy were expressed in self-definition, autonomy, striving, and separateness from others; for females,

assertion and adequacy were expressed through social relations (Cramer, 2000). Again, these findings are consistent with the theorizing of Chodorow (1978) and Gilligan (1982).

Thorbecke and Grotevant (1982) examined gender differences in adolescent interpersonal identity formation. In this study, 41 males and 42 females, all in their junior or senior years of high school, were administered *My Vocational Situation* to assess the relationship between occupational and interpersonal identity issues for males and females (Holland et al., 1980). In order to reveal how masculine (instrumental, agentic) or feminine (expressive, communal) a respondent views himself or herself, the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence et al., 1979) was used. The motivation for achievement was assessed by the Work and Family Orientation scale (WOFO) (Helmreich & Spence, 1978). The authors reported that both mastery and competitiveness are important aspects of self-concept for males (Thorbecke & Grotevant, 1982). In view of the fact that mastery and competitiveness require one to separate himself or herself from a network of people and focus on individual success, the authors suggested that issues of separateness and autonomy more generally were important in the males' self-definitions. The researchers explained the results of their study to be highly consistent with the findings of Gilligan.

Mellor (1989) conducted a study examining the degree to which males and females are "separate" or "connected," as well as their resolutions to six of Erikson's (1959) identity crises in childhood and adolescence. Mellor examined

388 students with ages ranging from 12 to 18 years old and used the Relational Self Definition Scale for subject categorization of relational self definitions (separate or connected). Mellor suggested that "connected" females and "separate" males would have higher degrees of positive resolution to Erikson's identity crises; however, not all suggested differences were significant. The researcher found that "connected" females had significantly higher degrees of positive resolutions to Trust and Intimacy crises as compared to "connected" males and "separate" females (Mellor, 1989). Interestingly, "connected" males reported significantly higher degrees of positive resolutions to the Intimacy crisis than "separate" males (Mellor, 1989). For the Initiative Crisis, "separate" adolescent males and "connected" adolescent females reported significantly higher degrees of positive resolutions than "separate" females and "connected" males (Mellor, 1989). Essentially, Mellor found both males and females to use self-other separation and connectedness in resolving identity crises, with differences between males and females indicated in the degrees of positive resolutions to specific crises (Mellor, 1989). After examining the mean scores of female and male groups, Mellor asserted that "connectedness" is a more distinctive mode of self-definition for females with positive resolutions (Mellor, 1989).

*Research that Fails to Support Gender Differences in Self-concept or Identity*

Streitmatter (1993) performed a longitudinal study examining the gender differences in identity development. In Streitmatter's study, Time 1 started with 500 seventh and eighth grade students completing a questionnaire, and then

three years later Time 2 consisted of 105 tenth and eleventh grade students (44 males and 61 females) of the original 500 students. In order to measure the identity status of the respondents, Streitmatter used the Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status developed by H.D. Grotevant and G.R. Adams (1984). The results of Streitmatter's study, taken as a whole, appear consistent with Erikson's theory of psychosocial development within the fifth stage of identity achievement. There were no statistically significant differences found between boys and girls in their progress through the identity statuses. In her discussion of her study, Streitmatter refers to Carol Gilligan's work with female identity issues related to connectedness and relationship maintenance. Streitmatter explained that the discrepancy between her findings and Gilligan's work may lie in the different methodologies and assessment tools. Streitmatter explained that the Eriksonian-based identity development instruments that she used do not examine intimacy or relationship issues during the identity achievement versus diffusion stage. Therefore, Streitmatter believed that the tools used in her study may have only provided a partial picture of female identity development and may have explained why she found no significant gender differences in identity development.

Shaw and Edwards (1997) examined the similarities and differences between the self-concepts and self-presentations of males and females. Their subjects consisted of 44 males and 56 females with ages ranging from 18 to 39. Subjects completed a series of questionnaires in which they picked 15 adjectives that best described themselves, and then told a narrative about themselves. In

reporting their findings, Shaw and Edwards explained that both males and females were most likely to select active, attractive, busy, capable, curious, faithful, friendly, generous, happy, independent, polite, and responsible to describe themselves. They also reported that males selected able, funny, and smart, whereas females selected careful, sensible, and special. When it came to telling stories about themselves, Shaw and Edwards found that both males and females told narratives that presented themselves as able, active, proud, and responsible. Males' narratives also presented the characteristics of being brave, capable, rough, smart, strong and wild, whereas females' narratives more commonly presented the qualities of bright, funny, independent, sensible and warm. Shaw and Edwards reported that males and females are more likely to be similar when picking adjectives to describe themselves than when telling a narrative about oneself. When comparing their results to the results of authors who have found men to be more "agentic" and women to be more "communal," Shaw and Edwards reported that both males and females were depicted by the composites as active, busy, capable, friendly, generous, independent, and polite. From these findings, they suggest that both men and women are equally "agentic" and "communal."

Kroger (1997) examined the way in which relationships are used in the process of self-definition. In order to do this, Kroger turned to Lyons' (1983) model, which was designed to examine how males and females use relationship styles ("separate/objective" or "connected") for self-descriptions. Thus, this study probed potential gender differences in how both men and women of differing

identity statuses might use "separate/objective" and "connected" relationship modes differently in the process of self-definition. Kroger found no significant gender differences in answers to the questions presented. Kroger reported that both men and women found the key identity-defining areas most valued in life to be relationships with family/spouse/children, seeing relationships as higher in importance than other arenas such as work, education, health, personal development, other personal qualities, and stable life conditions.

Overall, the literature on the topic of gender differences in self-concept or identity can be confusing due to its contradictory findings and multiple operationalizations of self-concept. Therefore, conclusions are difficult to draw. Future research needs to take a closer look at sex role identity (i.e., masculinity vs. femininity), which could play a key factor in self-concept development. The physicality of one's gender does not convey the degree in which one would describe himself or herself as masculine or feminine, and by defining, assessing, and considering this variable the researcher could present clearer results for all domains involved in the development of the self-concept. Secondly, it is important to keep in mind that socially desirable responding may influence the results. As Vispoel and Fast (2000) found, controlling for impression management (a form of socially desirable responding) reduced sex differences in traditional female self-concept domains such as verbal, artistic, social, and moral (Vispoel & Fast, 2000). On the other hand, controlling for impression management increased sex differences in traditional male self-concept domains such as physical, problem-solving, math, and emotional stability (Vispoel & Fast,

2000). Lastly, measures utilized in past research may be tapping different dimensions of agency vs. communion. That is, some may tap values whereas others tap behavior, while still others may take more of a process-based approach to measuring these two constructs. The reviewed studies suggest that relationships and one's achievements do play a part in the human self-concept, but studies differed in the degree to which they were able to identify gender differences in these two bases of self-concept.

The following section will discuss self-esteem and its relation to the self-concept. Secondly, some of the research outlining gender differences in self-esteem will be examined. Lastly, hypotheses for the proposal study will be summarized.

#### *Difference Between Self-Esteem and Self-Concept*

Self-esteem has been a popular topic researched in psychology for many years. William James defined self-esteem as the "ratio of one's successes to one's pretensions" (James, 1983). Similarly, Rosenberg viewed self-esteem as a positive or negative evaluation of the self (Rosenberg, 1979). People presenting with high self-esteem seem to know more about themselves, whereas people with low self-esteem appear to be less familiar with their self-concept (Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990). This idea has been labeled as self-concept confusion (Campbell & Lavalley, 1993). People with low self-esteem have views about themselves which may contain contradictions and inconsistencies, and they simply have fewer definite beliefs about what they are like than other people (Baumeister, 1993). In addition, people with low self-

esteem are evaluatively neutral with high levels of instability and inconsistency (Campbell & Lavalley, 1993). On the other hand, those with high self-esteem have positive, well-articulated, clear views of themselves (Von Bergen, Soper, Balloun, Crawford, Samie-Khalajabadi, & Rosenthal, 1996).

Taken together, the research suggests that self-knowledge is closely linked to a positive self evaluation. In that sense, self-esteem could almost be considered a product of self-concept familiarization. Self theorists have also noted that self-concept is the *cognitive* component of the self, whereas self-esteem is the *evaluative* component of the self (Campbell, Chew, & Scratchley, 1991). Given the close link between self-concept and self-esteem, it is not surprising that scholars have extended work on gender differences in self to the arena of self-esteem. The next section will review the research examining gender differences in self-esteem.

#### *Research On Gender Differences In Self-esteem*

Many studies have researched gender differences in self-esteem (Baldwin & Hoffmann, 2002; Baldwin & Keelan, 1999; Blackman & Funder, 1996; Block & Robins, 1993; Cate & Sugawara, 1986; Joseph, Markus, & Tafarodi, 1992; Stein, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1992; Whitley, 1988). Although discrepancies exist, most studies indicate that males possess higher self-esteem than females, especially during adolescence (Block & Robins, 1993; Bolognin, Plancherel, Bettschart, & Halfon, 1996; Chubb, Fertman, & Ross, 1997; Harper & Marshall, 1991; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975; Zimmerman, Copeland, Shope, & Dielman, 1997). It has been suggested that the difference in self-esteem between genders during



adolescence lies in that females' ratings of attractiveness decrease during adolescence and males' ratings of attractiveness remain positive and fixed (Harter, 1993). Baldwin and Hoffmann studied males and females between the ages of 12 and 16, and reported that self-esteem fluctuations were significantly more dramatic in females (Baldwin & Hoffmann, 2001). However, Baldwin and Hoffmann did report males having a decrease in self-esteem between the ages of 14 and 15 (Baldwin & Hoffmann, 2001). Some studies have suggested that this shift in self-esteem for males is related to school changes where males feel they have gone down in social hierarchy (Chubb, Fertman, & Ross, 1997; Wigfield, Eccles, Mac Iver, Ruman, & Midgley, 1991).

Another common finding with regard to self-esteem and gender differences is that males and females demonstrate high self-esteem when maintaining culturally defined gender roles (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999; Eagly, 1987; Joseph, Markus, & Tafari, 1992; Wiggins, 1991). Baldwin and Keelan reported that females expected more affiliation from others and believed that friendliness and submissiveness would bring affiliation (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999). Baldwin and Keelan also reported that while high self-esteem females believed that submissiveness would produce desirable responses from others, high self-esteem males believed that submissiveness would produce undesirable outcomes (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999). This finding is consistent with a study conducted by Costrich, et al., (1975) in which submissive men were devalued by others (Costrich, Feinstein, Kidder, Maracek, & Pascale, 1975). Joseph and colleagues (1992) found high self-esteem in females to be related to their

connection with others, and reported that high self-esteem in males was associated with individuation and uniqueness (Joseph, Markus, & Tafarodi, 1992). Additionally, Block and Robins (1993) suggested that females are socialized to get along in society and males are socialized to get ahead.

A study done by Blackman and Funder (1996) failed to support the findings from previous research. They reported that high self-esteem for both females and males was related to agentic traits where individual goals are demonstrated. These results are consistent with other studies showing a relation between high self-esteem and masculinity (Cate & Sugawara, 1986; Stein, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1992; Whitley, 1988).

### *Current Study*

As indicated by the past research, the findings on gender differences in self-esteem and self-concept vary considerably. As noted previously, one possible explanation for this lack of consistency might be difficulties inherent in operationalizing self-concept. However, despite the fact that the measurement of self-esteem is somewhat more straightforward, the inconsistencies across studies remain. One possibility is that the importance of interpersonal relationships to men and women is a matter of degree. That is, while the self-esteem of both men and women is shaped by the quality of their interpersonal relationships, the self-esteem of women is influenced by a larger number of relationships and by relationships of less depth. It is possible that men might experience fluctuations in self-esteem as a result of reactions from close friends and family. In contrast, women might experience fluctuations in self-esteem as a

result of reactions from a broader range of people in their social environment. Such an explanation might partially explain the lower self-esteem of women observed in several studies in that they may be more susceptible to fluctuation in public opinion of them. This explanation may also help explain inconsistencies across studies in that it's not that men are entirely agentic and women are entirely communal, it is more a matter of degree.

Furthermore, some of the inconsistencies across studies in this area may be partially attributable to the fact that most of these studies fail to take into account sex-role identity (i.e., masculinity, femininity, or androgyny). Possibly, sex-role identity, not gender per se, plays a more vital role in determining the relative importance of achievement or social relationships in shaping self-esteem. This stands to reason when one considers that the very definitions of masculinity and femininity tie to an emphasis on agency versus communion (Bem, 1974; 1979).

Thus, the current study hypothesized that the mood and self-esteem of males and females would depend on the breadth and depth of relationships with females' mood and self-esteem being affected by a larger number of different types of relationships and males' mood and self-esteem being affected by relationships that are characterized by a high level of depth and intimacy. Also, it was hypothesized that the mood and self-esteem of those individuals with higher degrees of femininity would be affected by a larger number of different types of relationships, and the mood and self-esteem of those with higher degrees of

masculinity would be affected by close relationships that contain a high level of depth and intimacy.

The following hypotheses were investigated:

H1: Females will experience greater decreases in mood and self-esteem following criticism from acquaintances than males.

H2: Females will experience greater increases in mood and self-esteem following praise from acquaintances than males.

H3: No difference between males and females in changes in mood or self-esteem will be observed following scenarios pertaining to loved ones.

H4: Those with lower degrees of masculinity will experience greater decreases in mood and self-esteem following criticism from acquaintances than those with higher degrees of masculinity.

H5: Those with lower degrees of masculinity will experience greater increases in mood and self-esteem following praise from acquaintances than those with higher degrees of masculinity.

H6: No difference will be observed between those with lower degrees of masculinity versus higher degrees of masculinity following scenarios pertaining to loved ones.

H7: Those with higher degrees of femininity will experience greater decreases in mood and self-esteem following criticism from acquaintances than those with lower degrees of femininity.

H8: Those with higher degrees of femininity will experience greater increases in mood and self-esteem following praise from acquaintances than those with lower degrees of femininity.

H9: No difference will be observed between those with higher degrees of femininity versus lower degrees of femininity following scenarios pertaining to loved ones. It may stand to reason that both men and women are affected the same, so no gender differences are expected in the loved one condition.

## CHAPTER II

### Method

#### *Participants*

A total of 127 college students (70 males and 57 females) were recruited from the University of Dayton. The recruitment was done through introductory psychology courses. The students were compensated with course credit. The racial demographics consisted of Caucasians (91%), African-Americans (5%), Hispanics (2%), and other ethnic groups (2%). The majority of the participants were first year students (57%); 27% were sophomores; 8% were juniors; and 8% were seniors. The average age of the participants was 19 years old ( $SD = 1.13$ ).

#### *Measures*

##### *Self-Esteem*

The Self-Esteem Scale (SES; Rosenberg, 1965) was used to measure one's self-worth or self-acceptance (see Appendix A). The 10 items used in this scale were designed to optimize time, face validity, unidimensionality, and ease of administration (Rosenberg, 1965). Participants rate their agreement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Five items on this measure are reverse scored. Therefore, the range of possible values was from 10 – 70 with higher scores representing higher self-esteem. Change scores between Time 1 self-

esteem and Time 2 self-esteem were computed for the primary analyses. The change score was calculated by subtracting the Time 2 from the Time 1. Higher change scores indicated a greater *decrease* in self-esteem, while lower change scores indicated a greater *increase* in self-esteem.

The SES has demonstrated good reliability and validity across a large number of studies. With regards to test-retest reliability, Fleming and Courtney (1984) reported a correlation of  $r = .82$  for a college sample over a one-week period. In addition, Silber and Tippet (1965) found a correlation of  $r = .85$  between two administrations of the SES with a college student sample over a 2-week period. Savin-Williams and Jaquish (1981) examined the validity and found that the SES measure demonstrated a correlation of .72 with the Lerner Self-Esteem Scale. In addition, the SES measure demonstrated a correlation of .24 with "beeper" self-reports of self-esteem (a series of self-esteem measurements that were requested at random times over a period of time), and demonstrated a correlation of .27 with peer ratings for a sample of adolescents. Also, Fleming and Courtney (1984) found negative relationships between the SES and several constructs that are associated with low self-worth. For instance, SES scores correlated -.54 with depression, -.43 with anomie, and -.64 with anxiety (Fleming & Courtney, 1984). Further, they found that SES scores correlated .35 with school abilities, .51 with social confidence, .42 with physical appearance, and .78 with self-regard (Fleming & Courtney, 1984). In the present study, the Cronbach's alphas for this measure at Time 1 and Time 2 were both .89.

## *Mood*

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988) was used to measure the participant's mood (see Appendix B). The PANAS consists of 20 descriptive items in which 10 items relate to positive affectivity (PA) and 10 items relate to negative affectivity (NA). Some examples of descriptive items for PA would be "interested," "strong," and "enthusiastic;" examples of adjectives for NA would be "ashamed," "hostile," and "afraid." A five-point Likert scale is used, ranging from "Very Slightly or Not at All" to "Extremely." The range of score per subscale is 10 – 50 with higher values indicating a greater degree of positive or negative mood. Change scores between Time 1 and Time 2 mood were computed for use in the primary analyses. The change score for positive affect was calculated by subtracting Time 2 from the Time 1, and the same was done to derive the change score for negative affect. Thus, a positive change score for positive affect indicated a *decrease* in positive affect, while a negative change score indicated an *increase* in positive affect. This same interpretation also applied to the change scores for negative affect. That is, a positive change score for negative affect indicated a *decrease* in negative affect, and a negative change score for negative affect indicated an *increase* in negative affect.

The scales have shown to be highly internally consistent, largely uncorrelated, and stable at appropriate levels (Watson, et al., 1988). The alpha reliability values have been found to range from .86 to .90 for positive affect and .84 to .87 for negative affect (Watson, et al., 1988). In order to examine



convergent and discriminant validity, Watson and Clark (1994) correlated self-ratings on the positive and negative affect scale with corresponding judgments from well-acquainted peers. With peer ratings, the convergent validity of the PANAS was found to be especially good for positive affect, with its coefficients ranging from .35 to .48, and negative affect ranging from .21 to .36 (Watson & Clark, 1994). Further, Watson and Clark (1994) found discriminant validity values for the PANAS to be low and nonsignificant. In the present study, the alpha for Time 1 positive affect was .84, and the alpha for Time 2 positive affect was .89. Additionally, the Cronbach's alpha for Time 1 negative affect was .90, while the Cronbach's alpha for Time 2 negative affect was .89.

### *Sex-Role Identity*

Sex-role identity was measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) (see Appendix C). This is a self-administered 60-item questionnaire containing a masculinity subscale, a femininity subscale, and 20 neutral, filler items. The participant is asked to answer on a scale from 1 (Never) to 7 (Always true) how well each item describes him or herself. The masculinity score is the average of the 20 masculinity items, and the femininity score is the average of the 20 feminine items. Therefore, both scores can range from 1 to 7. Scores on either subscale falling above 4.9 are believed to indicate the presence of the trait (i.e., masculinity or femininity). Therefore, a score of 4.9 is used as the median split to indicate a high or low score of masculinity or femininity in the current study.

The BSRI has been shown to have high reliability with alpha coefficients equaling .86 for masculinity and ranging from .80 to .82 for femininity (Bem, 1974). Further, the test-retest values have been found to be highly reliable over a four-week interval for masculinity ( $r = .90$ ) and femininity ( $r = .90$ ) (Bem, 1974). With regards to validity, Bem's assertion that masculinity and femininity are independent constructs was supported by a study in which the correlations were .11 for males and -.14 for females (Bem, 1974). Holt and Ellis (1998) found all of the masculine and all but two of the feminine adjectives from the BSRI were rated as significantly more desirable for a man or a woman, respectively, which suggests that the BSRI continues to be a valid measure of gender role perceptions (Holt & Ellis, 1998). In the current study, the masculinity scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .83, and the femininity scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .79.

### *Experimental Manipulation*

Participants were randomly assigned to vividly imagine and write about one of the following scenarios (see Appendices D through G): 1) a rejection from an acquaintance, 2) a rejection from a loved one, 3) praise from an acquaintance, or 4) praise from a loved one. All of the participants were then asked to write how the pre-assigned scenario made them feel about themselves and their abilities.

After the measures were completed, as a manipulation check, the participants completed an item that asked them to rate on a 1 to 7 scale how vividly they were able to envision the specified scenario (see Appendix J). There was also a space for qualitative comments.

### *Procedures*

Participants completed a measure of sex-role identity, as well as pre-test measures of mood and self-esteem. A demographic questionnaire (male/female, age, race, year in college) was always first in the questionnaire packet (see Appendix H). With regards to the rest of the measures, the questionnaires were counterbalanced using a random starting order with rotation (e.g., CBA, BAC, ACB) procedure. In the questionnaire packet, the measures were given in the following order: sex-role identity, mood, and self-esteem. An instruction sheet was printed at the beginning of the questionnaire packet to ensure that it was completed in the appropriate order (see Appendix I). Next, participants were asked to vividly imagine and write about one of the following scenarios: 1) a rejection from an acquaintance, 2) a rejection from a loved one, 3) praise from an acquaintance, or 4) praise from a loved one. Finally, participants re-completed the mood and self-esteem measures, as well as a brief manipulation check to measure how vividly they were able to envision the scenarios (see Appendix J).

Due to the possibility of the experimental manipulation leading to increases in negative mood, a 10 minute comedy clip was shown at the end. Lastly, participants were thanked and debriefed.

## CHAPTER III

### Results

#### *Preliminary Analyses: An Examination of the Relationship Between Demographic Variables and Dependent Variables*

The means, standard deviations, and ranges of the continuous variables can be found in Table 1. Preliminary analyses were carried out in order to examine the relationship between demographic variables (age, race, and year in school) and dependent variables (change in positive affect, change in negative affect, and change in self-esteem). Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) were conducted between both race and year in school and the dependent variables. Pearson correlations were conducted between age and the dependent variables. The results indicated that there were no significant differences in the dependent variables as a function of year in school or race. Additionally, no significant correlation was found between age and change in negative mood, change in positive mood, and change in self-esteem. Therefore, age, race, and class were not statistically controlled for in the main analyses. Gender was not treated as a demographic variable in these analyses as it was considered a primary study variable.

The relationships between all of the dependent variables were analyzed through Pearson correlations. The results of these analyses can be found in

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Study Measure*

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
T1 Self-esteem	24.00	70.00	55.19	10.47
T2 Self-esteem	29.00	70.00	57.01	10.02
Self-esteem Change	-15.00	13.00	-1.82	4.42
T1 Positive Affect	14.00	49.00	31.28	6.97
T2 Positive Affect	10.00	50.00	29.39	8.40
Pos. Affect Change	-15.00	24.00	1.89	5.39
T1 Negative Affect	10.00	42.22	17.74	7.31
T2 Negative Affect	10.00	40.00	17.16	6.81
Neg. Affect Change	-28.22	22.00	-.58	4.94

Table 2. These analyses were computed in order to determine whether the dependent variables were associated with each other in the expected directions. It was expected that self-esteem would be negatively correlated with negative affect and positively correlated positive affect. The results of the Pearson correlation matrix indicated that Time 1 self-esteem was negatively related to Time 1 negative affect,  $r = -.47, p < .01$ . Further, Time 1 self-esteem was positively related to Time 1 positive affect,  $r = .19, p < .05$ . Time 2 self-esteem was negatively related to Time 2 negative affect,  $r = -.53, p < .01$ . In addition, Time 2 self-esteem was positively related to Time 2 positive affect,  $r = .24, p < .01$ .

It was also expected that the same construct would be moderately correlated at Time 1 and Time 2, but a perfect correlation was not expected because mood and self-esteem were hypothesized to change as a function of the experimental manipulation. The results of these analyses indicated that Time 1 self-esteem was positively correlated with Time 2 self-esteem,  $r = .91, p < .01$ . Additionally, Time 1 positive affect was positively correlated with Time 2 positive affect,  $r = .77, p < .01$ . Lastly, Time 1 negative affect was positively correlated with Time 2 negative affect,  $r = .76, p < .01$ .

*Primary Analyses: Factorial ANOVAs to Test for Gender x Depth Interactions*

The primary analyses in this study consisted of nine factorial ANOVAs. The first three analyses examined the Gender (male v. female) x Tone (praise v. criticism) x Depth (acquaintance v. close relationship) interactions in the prediction of the dependent variable of change in negative affect, positive affect,

Table 2

*Pearson Correlation Matrix of Dependent Variables*

Variable	T1 Neg Affect	T2 Neg Affect	Neg Affect $\Delta$	T1 Pos Affect	T2 Pos Affect	Pos Affect $\Delta$	T1 Self- est	T2 Self- est	Self- est $\Delta$
T1 Neg Affect	--								
T2 Neg Affect	.76**	--							
Neg Affect $\Delta$	-.44**	.26**	--						
T1 Pos Affect	.09	.04	-.07	--					
T2 Pos Affect	.19*	.04	-.24**	.77**	--				
Pos Affect $\Delta$	-.19*	.00	.28**	.09	-.56**	--			
T1 Self- est	-.47**	-.46**	.06	.19*	.14	.03	--		
T2 Self- est	-.41**	-.53**	-.12	.25**	.24**	-.06	.91**	--	
Self-est $\Delta$	-.18*	.09	.39**	-.12	-.23**	.20*	.31**	-.12	--

*Note.* T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2, Pos = Positive, Neg = Negative,  $\Delta$  = Change, and Self-est = Self-esteem.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

or self-esteem. The other six analyses were in the identical form with the exception that in three, high versus low masculinity was substituted for gender. Likewise in the last three, high versus low femininity was substituted for gender.

### *Hypotheses 1 through 3*

Hypotheses 1 through 3 suggests females, versus males, are more likely to experience decreases in mood and self-esteem following criticism from acquaintances; females, versus males, are more likely to experience increases in mood and self-esteem following praise from acquaintances; and no differences in gender will be found in scenarios pertaining to loved ones. Tables 3 through 5 summarize the results of the first three equations. As one can see, none of the Gender x Depth interactions were significant. Thus, Hypotheses 1 through 3 were not supported. However, a few interesting two-way interactions were revealed. Specifically, the results indicated significant Gender x Tone interactions on both change in negative affect,  $F(1, 119) = 9.89, p < .01$ , and change in self-esteem,  $F(1, 119) = 6.37, p < .01$ . The simple main effects of these two significant interactions were then calculated in order to determine the direction of the effects. This was done by computing simple One-Way ANOVAs with gender as the independent variable and either change in negative affect or change in self-esteem as the dependent variable. In both instances, separate analyses were conducted for the two different levels of tone: that is, for the praise versus punishment conditions. The results indicated that women were more likely than men to experience increases in negative affect ( $M = -3.00, SD = 5.52$  versus  $M = .21, SD = 3.03$ , respectively) after envisioning criticism from someone



Table 3

*Factorial ANOVA with Gender, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables  
and Change in Negative Affect as the Dependent Variable*

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p
Gender	1	14.69	0.75	.40
Depth	1	81.18	4.13	.04
Tone	1	473.23	24.07	.00
Gender x Depth	1	33.92	1.73	.19
Gender x Tone	1	194.37	9.89	.00
Depth x Tone	1	12.97	.66	.42
Gender x Depth x Tone	1	3.90	.20	.66
Error	119	19.66		

Table 4

*Factorial ANOVA with Gender, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables  
and Change in Positive Affect as the Dependent Variable*

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p
Gender	1	54.05	1.99	.16
Depth	1	3.99	0.15	.70
Tone	1	213.24	7.86	.01
Gender x Depth	1	0.15	0.01	.94
Gender x Tone	1	6.12	0.23	.64
Depth x Tone	1	144.83	5.34	.02
Gender x Depth x Tone	1	34.80	1.28	.26
Error	119	27.13		

Table 5

*Factorial ANOVA with Gender, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables  
and Change in Self-Esteem as the Dependent Variable*

Source	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	1	0.60	0.03	.86
Depth	1	58.10	3.16	.08
Tone	1	102.48	5.57	.02
Gender x Depth	1	1.56	0.09	.77
Gender x Tone	1	117.17	6.37	.01
Depth x Tone	1	11.94	0.65	.42
Gender x Depth x Tone	1	6.50	0.35	.55
Error	119	18.40		

envision criticism from a loved-one experienced greater decreases in positive affect ( $M = 4.60$ ,  $SD = 5.35$ ) than did participants asked to envision criticism from a casual acquaintance ( $M = 2.10$ ,  $SD = 4.76$ ).

In addition to the two-way Gender x Tone interaction as the independent variable, main effects for tone in all three analyses were revealed (see Tables 3 through 5). Specifically, the results suggested participants who were instructed to envision being criticized experienced significant increases in negative affect ( $M = -1.11$ ,  $SD = 4.48$ ), and significant decreases in positive affect ( $M = 3.05$ ,  $SD = 5.10$ ) and self-esteem ( $M = -1.15$ ,  $SD = 4.77$ ) in comparison to those who were instructed to envision being praised ( $M = 2.41$ ,  $SD = 4.80$ ;  $M = .64$ ,  $SD = 5.45$ ;  $M = -2.55$ ,  $SD = 3.92$ , respectively).

#### *Hypotheses 4 through 6*

Hypotheses 4 through 6 suggests those with lower degrees of masculinity, versus those with higher degrees of masculinity, are more likely to experience decreases in mood and self-esteem following criticism from acquaintances; those with lower degrees of masculinity, versus those with higher degrees of masculinity, are more likely to experience increases in mood and self-esteem following praise from acquaintances; and no differences within degrees of masculinity will be found in scenarios pertaining to loved ones. Tables 6 through 8 summarize the results of the second three analyses in which masculinity was substituted for gender. Hypotheses 4 through 6 were not supported. However, a significant two-way Depth X Masculinity interaction was revealed when change in positive affect was used as the dependent variable,  $F(1,119) = 5.33$ ,  $p < .05$ .

Table 6

*Factorial ANOVA with Masculinity, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables and Change in Negative Affect as the Dependent Variable*

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p
Masc	1	7.61	.37	.55
Depth	1	115.75	5.59	.02
Tone	1	423.34	20.42	.00
Depth x Tone	1	13.26	.64	.43
Depth x Masc	1	45.52	2.20	.14
Tone x Masc	1	29.73	1.43	.23
Depth x Tone x Masc	1	18.90	.91	.34
Error	119	20.73		

*Note.* Masc = Masculinity.

Table 7

*Factorial ANOVA with Masculinity, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables and Change in Positive Affect as the Dependent Variable*

Source	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Masc	1	75.77	2.93	.09
Depth	1	3.29	.13	.72
Tone	1	160.40	6.21	.01
Depth x Tone	1	200.86	7.78	.01
Depth x Masc	1	137.76	5.33	.02
Tone x Masc	1	16.93	.66	.42
Depth x Tone x Masc	1	3.32	.13	.72
Error	119	25.83		

*Note.* Masc = Masculinity.

Table 8

*Factorial ANOVA with Masculinity, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables and Change in Self-Esteem as the Dependent Variable*

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p
Masc	1	.60	.03	.86
Depth	1	67.73	3.61	.06
Tone	1	96.41	5.14	.03
Depth x Tone	1	5.45	.29	.59
Depth x Masc	1	1.81	.00	.98
Tone x Masc	1	78.76	4.20	.04
Depth x Tone x Masc	1	1.15	.06	.81
Error	119	18.75		

*Note.* Masc = Masculinity.

After analyzing the simple main effects, it was shown that participants high in masculinity experienced a greater decrease in positive affect ( $M = 3.54$ ,  $SD = 5.08$ ) in the acquaintance condition as opposed to those participants who were low in masculinity ( $M = -.07$ ,  $SD = 4.30$ ). Further, those individuals low in masculinity were found to demonstrate greater decreases in positive affect ( $M = 2.00$ ,  $SD = 5.64$ ) in the loved ones condition as opposed to those high in masculinity ( $M = 1.52$ ,  $SD = 6.03$ ). In addition, as was the case with the previous results, a significant two-way Masculinity x Tone interaction was revealed when change in self-esteem was used as the dependent variable,  $F(1,119) = 4.20$ ,  $p < .05$ . An analysis of the simple main effects indicated that participants low in masculinity experienced greater decreases in self-esteem ( $M = .00$ ,  $SD = 4.76$ ) following envisioning criticism than did participants high in masculinity ( $M = -2.00$ ,  $SD = 4.67$ ).

Again, main effects for tone in all three equations were present (see Tables 6 through 8). Those individuals who were instructed to envision being criticized experienced an increase in negative affect ( $M = -1.28$ ,  $SD = .59$ ), and a decrease in both positive affect ( $M = 3.11$ ,  $SD = .66$ ) and self-esteem ( $M = -.81$ ,  $SD = .56$ ) in comparison to those instructed to envision being praised ( $M = 2.47$ ,  $SD = .59$ ;  $M = .80$ ,  $SD = .66$ ;  $M = -2.60$ ,  $SD = .56$ , respectively).



### *Hypotheses 7 through 9*

Hypotheses 7 through 9 suggests those with higher degrees of femininity, versus those with lower degrees of femininity, are more likely to experience decreases in mood and self-esteem following criticism from acquaintances; those with higher degrees of femininity, versus those with lower degrees of femininity, are more likely to experience increases in mood and self-esteem following praise from acquaintances; and no differences within degrees of femininity will be found in scenarios pertaining to loved ones. Tables 9 through 11 provide the results for the last three analyses in which femininity is substituted for gender. As with prior results using gender and masculinity as the independent variable, no Femininity x Depth interactions were found. Thus, hypotheses 7 through 9 were not supported. However, a significant Depth x Tone interaction was found again when positive affect was used as the dependent variable,  $F(1,119) = 5.56, p < .05$ . The simple main effects were analyzed and showed that participants who were asked to envision experiencing a criticism from a loved one had a greater decrease in positive affect ( $M = 4.60, SD = 5.35$ ) in comparison to those asked to envision experiencing a criticism from an acquaintance ( $M = 2.10, SD = 4.76$ ).

Once again, main effects for tone were found in all three equations (see Tables 9 through 11). Those individuals who were instructed to envision being criticized experienced an increase in negative affect ( $M = -1.40, SD = .59$ ), and decreases in both positive affect ( $M = 3.28, SD = .67$ ) and self-esteem ( $M = -1.00, SD = .56$ ) in comparison to those instructed to envision being praised ( $M = 2.50, SD = .60; M = .78, SD = .68; M = -2.64, SD = .56$ , respectively).

Table 9

*Factorial ANOVA with Femininity, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables  
and Change in Negative Affect as the Dependent Variable*

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Fem	1	5.25	.25	.62
Depth	1	111.19	5.22	.02
Tone	1	458.64	21.54	.00
Fem x Depth	1	9.37	.44	.51
Fem x Tone	1	1.98	.09	.76
Depth x Tone	1	8.52	.40	.53
Fem x Depth x Tone	1	15.99	.75	.39
Error	119	21.29		

*Note.* Fem = Femininity.

Table 10

*Factorial ANOVA with Femininity, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables  
and Change in Positive Affect as the Dependent Variable*

Source	<i>Df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Fem	1	2.97	.11	.74
Depth	1	.14	.01	.94
Tone	1	189.83	6.93	.01
Fem x Depth	1	21.67	.80	.38
Fem x Tone	1	22.68	.83	.37
Depth x Tone	1	152.37	5.56	.02
Fem x Depth x Tone	1	13.519	.49	.48
Error	119	27.41		

*Note.* Fem = Femininity.

Table 11

*Factorial ANOVA with Femininity, Depth, and Tone as the Independent Variables  
and Change in Self-Esteem as the Dependent Variable*

Source	<i>Df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Fem	1	65.04	3.47	.07
Depth	1	73.53	3.93	.05
Tone	1	82.01	4.38	.04
Fem x Depth	1	21.90	1.17	.28
Fem x Tone	1	.84	.05	.83
Depth x Tone	1	7.84	.42	.52
Fem x Depth x Tone	1	.57	.03	.86
Error	119	18.73		

*Note.* Fem = Femininity.

*Additional Analyses: Tests of the Hypotheses After Controlling for Vividness*

Additional analyses were conducted in order to determine whether participants' difficulties imagining the scenarios accounted for our failure to identify any significant Gender x Depth interactions in the main analyses. First, the frequency of each response to the "vividness item" was examined. The majority of participants (85%) reported that they were able to envision the scenario "somewhat" to "very vividly." The nine ANOVA analyses were repeated excluding the participants who endorsed lower than a "4" (i.e., "somewhat") on the vividness item. As with the primary study analyses, no evidence for any Gender x Depth interactions was revealed.

## CHAPTER IV

### Discussion

Using a sample of undergraduate student volunteers, the current study examined gender differences in mood and self-esteem when exposed to praise or criticism from loved ones or casual acquaintances. It was hypothesized that, in the acquaintance conditions, only women would experience decreases in self-esteem and mood following being asked to imagine criticism and increases in self-esteem and mood following being asked to imagine praise. In the loved one conditions, it was hypothesized that both men and women would experience decreases in self-esteem and mood following being asked to imagine criticism and increases in self-esteem and mood following images of praise. A similar pattern of means was expected when sex-role identity was substituted for gender in the study analyses.

The results of the current study did not reveal any significant Gender x Depth interactions. However, a few interesting two-way interactions were discovered. It was found that women were more likely than men to experience an increase in negative affect after envisioning a criticism and an increase in self-esteem after envisioning praise. Additionally, those individuals who were low in masculinity demonstrated decreases in self-esteem following a criticism in comparison to individuals high in masculinity. These differences were found regardless of the relationship type. Thus, women and less masculine people in

the current study were more susceptible to interpersonal feedback regardless of whether the feedback was from a loved one or a casual acquaintance. In regards to the depth of the relationship, individuals low in masculinity experienced greater decreases in positive affect in the loved ones condition as opposed to those high in masculinity. Further, individuals in the acquaintance condition who were more masculine had a greater decrease in positive affect as opposed to those less masculine. The remainder of the discussion section will address the implications of the current findings as well as limitations and suggestions for future research.

#### *Gender Differences in Relational Influences on Mood and Self-Esteem*

One of the central results in the current study is that male participants, unlike female participants, did not demonstrate a decrease in negative mood or self-esteem after envisioning a criticism. This stability in mood and self-esteem of male participants in comparison to female participants was observed regardless of whether the criticism was from an acquaintance or a loved one. Although not predicted, this finding is noteworthy because it suggests that males may have a more powerful buffer than women against temporary fluctuations in mood and self-esteem when faced with criticism from others. These results are consistent with the research of Baldwin and Hoffmann (2002) and Garter (1993) that suggests that females have greater fluctuations in self-esteem during adolescence than do males. However, some studies suggest that the self-esteem of young men is variable during that time period as well if they have

experienced a change in their social status (Chubb, Fertman, & Ross, 1997; Wigfield, Eccles, Mac Iver, Ruman, & Midgley, 1991).

The results of the current study are also consistent with the research findings of Moretti, et al. (1998) and Vlashev, et al. (1998) in that the findings from both of these studies suggest that women may be more likely to be other self-regulators. As Moretti and Higgins (1999) speculated, this propensity to use other people's rather than one's own standards to guide behavior may partially help explain the gender difference rates of Major Depressive Disorder (Maier, Gansicke, Gater, et al., 1999) and trait self-esteem (Baldwin & Hoffman, 2002; Block & Robins, 1993; Bolognin, Plancherel, Bettschart, & Halfon, 1996; Chubb, Fertman, & Ross, 1997; Harper & Marshall, 1991; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975; Zimmerman, Copeland, Shope, & Dielman, 1997) observed across a number of studies. However, Moretti and Higgins (1999) cautioned that possessing a tendency toward other self-regulation in and of itself is not likely to result in depression. Rather, one might also need to possess *negative outcome contingency beliefs*. Negative outcome contingency beliefs refer to the idea that some people may believe that their failure to live up to other people's expectations of them will result in dire consequences such as interpersonal rejection or abandonment. The links between gender, other self-regulation, negative contingency outcome beliefs and Major Depressive Disorder have yet to be tested empirically.

Other central results of the current study were that low masculinity, rather than high femininity, was related to decreases in self-esteem when envisioning a



criticism and decreases in positive affect when envisioning feedback from loved ones. Further, those high in masculinity demonstrated decreases in positive affect when envisioning feedback from acquaintances. One explanation for the former result might have to do with the underlying constructs thought to be assessed by the masculinity and femininity subscales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory. Specifically, some theorists have argued that the masculinity subscale measures the dimension of autonomy versus dependency while the femininity subscale measures the dimension of emotional expressiveness versus emotional constriction (Choi & Fuqua, 2003). This would suggest that it may be the lack of autonomy or dependency, rather than the presence of emotionality, that affects a person's susceptibility to fluctuations in mood and self-esteem as a function of others' opinions of them. In terms of the finding that those high in masculinity experience a decrease in positive affect following feedback from acquaintances, this result was the opposite of what was hypothesized. It suggests that while those high in masculinity don't experience an increase in distressing emotions, they might experience fewer positive emotions following feedback from persons with whom they are not close. Assuming this is replicable, it is an intriguing finding that could be further elucidated in future studies.

### *Study Limitations*

There are several limitations of the current study that need to be addressed in future research. One limitation is the small sample size of 127 subjects. Specifically, using the typical convention of a power level of .80 and conservatively assuming a small effect size to be detected ( $d = .20$ ), the ideal

sample size to detect a Gender x Depth interaction is over twice that many participants (Murphy & Myers, 2004). With a larger sample size, more significant interactions may have been detected. An example of this would be in Table 6 where the interaction of Depth x Masculinity, with negative affect as the dependent variable, is approaching significance ( $p = .14$ ). Due to the small sample size, data collection to address this problem is currently ongoing. Another limitation is that the subjects were for the most part within a small age range of 18 to 22 years old. Bloom found that self-acceptance increases from when a person is in their twenties until a person reaches their forties (Bloom, 1961). Thus, it is important to examine susceptibility to feedback from others across the lifespan. If self-acceptance increases as individuals get older, then it may be the case that older women show the same imperviousness to the opinions of others as do men. Another limitation of the current study is that most of the subjects were Caucasian. One study examining the differences between gender and race with respect to self-esteem found that African-American males displayed higher self-esteem in comparison to Caucasians (Hendricks, Tavakoli, Hendricks, et al., 2001). The inclusion of a broader range of races might have amplified or minimized the gender differences observed in the current study.

The ability to vividly imagine the scenarios in this study may have been yet another limitation. As mentioned before, 85% of the subjects reported that they were able to envision the scenario "somewhat" to "very vividly." It is possible that demand characteristics could have influenced participants' ratings. That is given the centrality of the hypothetical scenarios to the current study, participants

might have been reluctant to admit to difficulties envisioning their assigned situation. Nonetheless, the nine ANOVA analyses were repeated, excluding the participants who reported low scores on the ability to vividly imagine the scenarios, and still no Gender x Depth interactions were found. This suggests that the failure of the results to support the study hypotheses was most likely not a function of participants' poor ability to imagine the scenarios. Further, the presence of several significant two-way interactions is inconsistent with this speculation as well. In addition, one of the primary strengths of the current study is the experimental design. While a drawback of experimental designs is their artificial nature and possible difficulties generalizing to real life situations, a benefit of experimental designs is that causality can be inferred. For example, it can be inferred that interpersonal feedback caused changes in self-esteem and depression rather than changes in depression and self-esteem caused perceptions of feedback.

#### *Directions for Future Research*

This study builds upon existing research that examines the gender differences in mood and self-esteem. One of the fundamental questions yet to be answered in this research area is "to what degree does a propensity toward other self-regulation translate into long-term, stable differences between men and women in depression and self-esteem?" In the future, longitudinal designs should be used in order to address this question. As indicated earlier, Moretti and Higgins (1999) argue that in addition to an other self-regulation vantage point, a person may also need to possess negative outcome contingency beliefs

in order for chronic depression and low self-esteem to develop. This assumption should be assessed directly. Research by Nolen-Hoeksema (Nolen-Hoeksema & Girgus, 1994) suggests that women may be more likely to ruminate about negative interpersonal interactions. Future research could also investigate whether these ruminative tendencies interact with negative outcome contingencies and other self-regulation processes.

Studies also should more closely examine whether men's self-esteem and mood vacillates as a function of interpersonal feedback pertaining to achievement or agency. Although the current study looked at this hypothesis with respect to feedback surrounding relationships, it would be critical to examine this hypothesis with respect to feedback surrounding achievement and agency. The theoretical framework advanced by Moretti and Higgins (1999) might assume that women are, due to having different socialization experiences from men, simply more likely to be other self-regulators regardless of the domain in which the feedback pertains. However, as stated previously, some literature supports the contention that men place a high value on agency (Bakan, 1966; Jordan et al., 1991). If this is the case, interpersonal feedback within the achievement domain may have an impact on their mood and self-esteem. This is consistent with research discussed earlier suggesting that the self-esteem of adolescent males changes in reaction to changes in their social status (Chubb, Fertman, & Ross, 1997; Wigfield, Eccles, Mac Iver, Ruman, & Midgley, 1991).

Research could also examine own self-regulation versus other self-regulation and the differences between values emphasized within one's culture

and family of origin, race, religion, or sex-orientation. Specifically, it would be important to address the question of whether gender predicted sensitivity to interpersonal feedback above these other potentially important influences on the self-concept vantage point. The way in which children are raised within different cultures may have an effect on whether they regulate mood and behavior primarily based on their own versus other people's standards. One might predict that if a child was raised to be more independent and autonomous, they would be more likely to demonstrate own self-regulation as an adult. Conversely, it could also be assumed that if a child was reared to be more empathetic, oriented toward pleasing others, then that child may be more likely to demonstrate other self-regulation. This speculation is consistent with research on cross-cultural differences in individualism and collectivism (Darwish & Huber, 2003).

It would also be useful to explore the manner in which the discrimination and adversities inherent in being a racial minority influence own versus other self-regulation. It is possible that the arbitrary nature of discrimination may cause a person to place less importance on others' opinions. Alternatively, it could also be assumed that those faced with chronic discrimination may feel that they will never be accepted by others. Thus, they may constantly look for acceptance and base their self-worth on what others think of them.

Investigating the relationship between religion and self-regulation may also prove to be informative. One study revealed that the older adults showed higher self-esteem when they reported a high commitment to religion or a low commitment, while those reporting a moderate commitment to religion showed

lower levels of self-esteem (Kraus, 1995). It may be the case that those individuals who are confident with their decisions about religion show higher levels of self-esteem in comparison to those who are not. Those who are confident in their decision about religion may be less susceptible to interpersonal feedback and the opinions of others around them, demonstrating own self-regulation. Those who are not as sure of their decision on religion may tend to base their ideas on the opinions of the people around them, and therefore, show lower levels of self-esteem.

Another intriguing question to investigate is how sexual orientation might play a part in the development of self regulation and one's self-esteem. One study examined how gender, social sex roles, and sexual orientation may be related to one's self-concept (Larson, 1981). In this study, homosexuals displayed self-concepts in the "normal range," but they did show more minor deviations across several areas of self-concept that heterosexuals did not show (Larson, 1981). It was also found that masculine and androgynous sex roles were linked with a positive self-concept in men, while feminine and undifferentiated sex roles were linked with less positive self-concepts (Larson, 1981). Once again, Larson's finding could be related to other's opinions or interpersonal feedback and whether one is primarily an own self-regulator or an other self-regulator. The current study found that individuals low in masculinity tend to have greater decreases in self-esteem when criticized by others. If a male scoring low in masculinity demonstrates other self-regulation and is in a society that looks down upon and criticizes feminine and undifferentiated sex

roles in men, this could cause decreases in self-esteem and increases in depression. Future research should take a closer look at self-regulation and self-esteem with respect to sexual orientation.

To answer further questions in regards to the hypotheses of this study, data collection is currently ongoing. One of the follow-up questions to the current study is to look at the types of praises and criticisms that participants write down and measure the scenarios on a scale to see if that has an effect on the results.

In conclusion, the current study revealed increases in negative affect in women and decreases in self-esteem in individuals low in masculinity as a result of envisioning criticism from others. Letting others' opinions build or break down one's self-esteem can be very dangerous. When an individual possesses this type of heightened interpersonal sensitivity, it can lead to an unstable mood and self-concept. It is possible for this instability to grow and ultimately lead to chronic depression and low self-esteem. Solidifying our understanding of the development of these processes could be an important piece of the puzzle in understanding the gender differences in depression and self-esteem observed across a number of studies. This knowledge could, in turn, aid in the development of innovative prevention programs and therapeutic interventions for girls and women at risk for these types of problems.

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

**Self-Esteem Scale**

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
- \*3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
- \*5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
- \*8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
- \*9. I certainly feel useless at times.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**
- \*10. At times I think I am no good at all.  
**Strongly Disagree    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    Strongly Agree**

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.



## APPENDIX B

## PANAS

Directions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely

<p>_____ interested (+)</p> <p>_____ distressed (-)</p> <p>_____ excited (+)</p> <p>_____ upset (-)</p> <p>_____ strong (+)</p> <p>_____ guilty (-)</p> <p>_____ scared (-)</p> <p>_____ hostile (-)</p> <p>_____ enthusiastic (+)</p> <p>_____ proud (+)</p>	<p>_____ irritable (-)</p> <p>_____ alert (+)</p> <p>_____ ashamed (-)</p> <p>_____ inspired (+)</p> <p>_____ nervous (-)</p> <p>_____ determined (+)</p> <p>_____ attentive (+)</p> <p>_____ jittery (-)</p> <p>_____ active (+)</p> <p>_____ afraid (-)</p>
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(+), items loaded onto positive affectivity scale

(-), items loaded onto negative affectivity scale

## APPENDIX C

**Bem Sex Role Inventory**

Directions: Please rate to which the following words or phrases describe you by filling in the blanks. Use a 1 to 7 scale, with one being never true, and with seven being always true.

Never True	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always True
1. Self-reliant (M) _____								23. Sympathetic(F) _____
2. Yielding (F) _____								24. Jealous (N) _____
3. Helpful (N) _____								25. Has leadership abilities (M) _____
4. Defends own beliefs (M) _____								26. Sensitive to the needs of others (F) _____
5. Cheerful (F) _____								27. Truthful (N) _____
6. Moody (N) _____								28. Willing to take risks (M) _____
7. Independent (M) _____								29. Understanding(F) _____
8. Shy (F) _____								30. Secretive (N) _____
9. Conscientious(N) _____								31. Makes decisions easily(M) _____
10. Athletic (M) _____								32. Compassionate(F) _____
11. Affectionate (F) _____								33. Sincere (N) _____
12. Theatrical (N) _____								34. Self-sufficient(M) _____
13. Assertive (M) _____								35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings (F) _____
14. Flatterable (F) _____								36. Conceited (N) _____
15. Happy (N) _____								37. Dominant (M) _____
16. Strong personality (M) _____								38. Soft-spoken (F) _____
17. Loyal (F) _____								39. Likable (N) _____
18. Unpredictable(N) _____								40. Masculine (M) _____
19. Forceful (M) _____								41. Warm (F) _____
20. Feminine (F) _____								42. Solemn(N) _____
21. Reliable (N) _____								43. Willing to take a stand (M) _____
22. Analytical (M) _____								44. Tender (F) _____
								45. Friendly (N) _____
								46. Aggressive (M) _____
								47. Gullible (F) _____
								48. Inefficient (N) _____
								49. Acts as a leader (M) _____
								50. Childlike (F) _____
								51. Adaptable (N) _____
								52. Individualistic(M) _____
								53. Does not use harsh language (F) _____
								54. Unsystematic(N) _____
								55. Competitive (M) _____
								56. Loves children (F) _____
								57. Tactful (N) _____
								58. Ambitious(M) _____
								59. Gentle (F) _____
								60. Conventional(N) _____

(M), indicates those items loaded onto the masculine scale

(F), indicates those items loaded onto the feminine scale

(N), indicates those items that are neutral

## APPENDIX D

## A

**Please carefully follow these instructions.**

Take a moment to vividly imagine a time when a casual acquaintance (co-worker, classmate, or anyone that you don't know very well) has rejected or criticized you. Please write a detailed description of this event and describe how it made you feel about yourself and your abilities?

[illegible]

## APPENDIX E

# B

Please carefully follow these instructions.

Take a moment to vividly imagine a time when a loved one (mother, father, grandparent, best friend, boyfriend, girlfriend, or anyone that you are extremely close to) has rejected or criticized you. Please write a detailed description of this event and describe how it made you feel about yourself and your abilities?

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no handwriting or other markings on the paper.

## APPENDIX F

## C

Please carefully follow these instructions.

Take a moment to vividly imagine a time when a casual acquaintance (co-worker, classmate, or anyone that you don't know very well) has praised or complimented you. Please write a detailed description of this event and describe how it made you feel about yourself and your abilities?

[illegible]

## APPENDIX G

## D

**Please carefully follow these instructions.**

Take a moment to vividly imagine a time when a loved one (mother, father, grandparent, best friend, boyfriend, girlfriend, or anyone that you are extremely close to) has praised or complimented you. Please write a detailed description of this event and describe how it made you feel about yourself and your abilities?

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no handwriting or other markings on the paper.

## APPENDIX H

**Demographic Data****(Please Print)**

Gender: Male or Female (please circle one)

Class: Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior (please  
circle one)

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Race: \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX I

**Instructions**

**Please note that it is very important that you complete this questionnaire in the order that it is provided.**

**Please DO NOT skip any pages.**

**Please read the instructions carefully and complete all items.**

**Thank you.**



## APPENDIX J

Instructions:

On a scale from 1 to 7, please circle the appropriate description of how vividly you were able to envision the scenario.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Very
Vividly						

## Comments:

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R002593499