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## A study of black female assertiveness

Dale Purnell Yeatts

*College of William & Mary - Arts & Sciences*

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A STUDY OF BLACK FEMALE ASSERTIVENESS

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A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Sociology  
The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Master of Arts

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by

Beverly Golemba

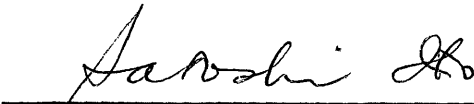
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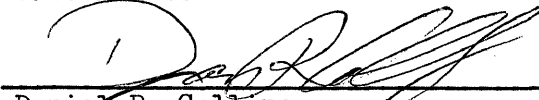
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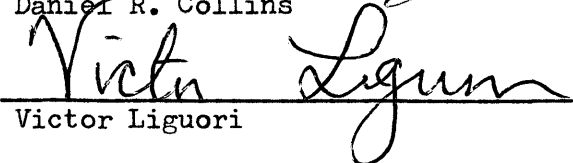
This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts

  
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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .	iv
LIST OF TABLES. . . . .	v
ABSTRACT. . . . .	vii
CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION. . . . .	2
CHAPTER II. PREVIOUS STUDIES . . . . .	8
CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY . . . . .	14
CHAPTER IV. HYPOTHESES . . . . .	19
CHAPTER V. RESULTS . . . . .	23
CHAPTER VI. DISCUSSION . . . . .	44
CHAPTER VII. IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH. . . . .	50
APPENDIX. . . . .	53
BIBLIOGRAPHY. . . . .	59

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## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Means and Standard Deviations for Six Assertiveness Statements and their Intercorrelations. . . . .	17
2.	Assertiveness <sub>1</sub> Scale Scores by Academic Major and Classification. . . . .	25
3.	Means and Standard Deviations on the Galassi Scale . . . . .	26
4.	Mean Rankings for Influence, Importance and Affection for Reference Persons According to Assertiveness <sub>1</sub> Scores . . . . .	27
5.	Family Socio-Economic Status . . . . .	29
6.	Mean Rankings as Source of Influence, Importance and Affection for Reference Persons According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	32
7.	Analysis of Variance: Mean Rankings as Source of Influence of Mothers and Fathers According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	33
8.	Analysis of Variance: Mean Rankings as Source of Influence of Grandparents According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	34
9.	Analysis of Variance: Mean Rankings as Source of Importance of Mothers and Fathers According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	35
10.	Analysis of Variance: Mean Rankings as Source of Importance of Grandparents According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	36
11.	Analysis of Variance: Mean Rankings as Source of Affection for Mothers and Fathers According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	37

LIST OF TABLES continued

Table	Page
12. Analysis of Variance: Mean Rankings as Source of Affection for Grandparents According to Levels of Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> . . . . .	38
13. Educational Goals of Subjects. . . . .	39
14. Projected Goals Among Respondents for Ten Years from Present. . . . .	40
15. Correlations for the Relationships Between Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> and Projected Goals. . . . .	41

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to measure the level of black female assertiveness. Assertiveness is defined as behavior in which an individual exercises his/her own rights while not aggressing against others by violating their rights. A further purpose was to attempt to ascertain if there is a female role-model for black female assertiveness based on historical antecedents.

A fixed-response questionnaire was distributed to black female college students at a traditional black college. The Galassi scale (1974), a self-report measure of assertiveness comprised the first fifty items and was used as an exploratory measure of assertiveness. The remaining eleven items were designed to elicit specific occupational, marital and family goals.

The assertiveness level demonstrated was relatively high when compared with samples obtained by Galassi (1974). The multidimensionality of the original scale made it problematic for use in further analysis in this research. A six-item subscale with greater internal consistency was constructed. Variation in this measure was not explained by differential rank ordering of male and female parents and grandparents as sources of influence, importance or affection. The expectation that mothers and grandmothers would be perceived as more significant role sources in the lives of this sample of black college women students than fathers and grandfathers was consistently supported. As predicted, assertiveness was positively correlated with the projected occupational goals of the respondents and of their future spouses. Further research into the dynamics of interpersonal influence between black women of different generations is indicated. Other research methods may reveal that assertiveness is a critical component in these relationships.



A STUDY OF BLACK FEMALE ASSERTIVENESS

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Fromm (1941:32-33) offers a clarification of the relation between life style and the quality of life in his position that the mode of life for an individual or group is molded on the imperative need for self-preservation, and it is this need which forces the individual or group to accept the conditions under which they must live. It is only recently, and concomitantly with the Women's movement, that the unique position of the black female, the focus of this research, has gained interest (Cade, 1970). The uniqueness of the black female is that she is black, female and has had a different position in society than her black male counterpart and white female counterpart. As a slave, the black female played several roles concomitantly: she was a field hand along with the male slaves or else a house slave. Forbidden to marry (Fishel and Quarles, 1967:113), she was the black man's woman and the white man's mistress; she was a mother to her own children and often a wet-nurse and mammy to white children (she could never lay legal claim to either children); and she frequently nursed both blacks and whites when they were ill. When the importation of slaves was abolished in 1808, the black woman was expected to produce as many

children as possible to replenish the slave population (Broderick and Meier, 1965). Powdermaker (1969:144) relates that, although the black female commanded a higher price, it was the black male who was more frequently sold. This was because she not only could bear children for work or for sale but also was useful in rearing children even after passing her reproductive years. It is to her credit that when she bore a child of a white man, she acknowledged and raised the child as her own; whereas, the white father denied his paternity, accepting the child as a slave and even selling the child to other white slaveholders (Cott, 1972:205). With no legal rights and frequently with no male to depend upon during and after slavery, she had to care for herself and her children by being resourceful. Booker T. Washington wrote of his mother quietly awakening her children in the middle of the night to give them food she had secretly garnered for them (1965:17).

The black woman took advantage of her position in the white world. If she was pretty and light-skinned, she could often make a comfortable life for herself as an octoroon (Gossett, 1969). She had more opportunity to observe white society and through role-modeling by imitation (q.v. Tarde, 1890) was able to learn how to assert herself to gain advantages. As she became more the primary agent for black family structure and an intermediary with white society, she achieved more status. Rather than developing the low self-esteem postulated about blacks generally, she was the recipient of favorable reflected appraisals and experienced a positive self-image (Coser and Rosenberg, 1968: 351-357).

Her ascriptive positions as slave and female led to a behavior pattern similar to that defined as assertive and not aggressive (Alberti and Emmons, 1974). The assertive individual acts in his/her own best interest, without undue anxiety, to exercise his/her rights without denying the rights of others, while the aggressive individual seeks goals, even at the expense of violating the rights of others. An earlier, though similar, distinction between assertion and aggression is apparent in Fromm's (1973:189-190) position that aggression is due to aggression-producing conditions rather than to any innate potential aggression in humans, while assertiveness, a pseudoaggression, means to move toward a goal rather than to attack. It should be noted that the awareness of the positive value of assertiveness is relatively new, emerging in the present decade. The emphasis, however, has been more on the development of behavior modification modes to enhance assertive behavior rather than the investigation of the components of assertiveness (Eisler, Miller and Hersen, 1973). That the emphasis has been on treatment orientation rather than empirically grounded procedures is supported by McFall and Twentyman (1973). The black female, unable to depend on the black male or unwilling to depend on the white slaveholder for her survival and that of her children and aware of the risks of overt aggression, found assertiveness the one socially acceptable path open to her to express aggression. Since she was living in constant frustration as a powerless minority group member in an oppressive society, she was forced to channel the resultant aggression into self-assertion. This alternative to aggression is

a more viable tact than an alternative suggested by Fromm (1973:205), in which he describes defensive aggression, i.e., the repression of drives for fear of punishment or humiliation.

Historical examples of the resourcefulness and assertiveness of the black woman include Harriet Tubman and Susie King Taylor. Ms. Tubman is famous for her nineteen forays into the South to rescue slaves. What is additionally noteworthy is that if she was running low on funds for her forays, she would hire herself out as a maid in order to provide the needed funds (Franklin, 1969:257).

Susie King Taylor relates that in 1861 as a young child she secretly attended school. Black education of any nature was strictly forbidden by law. To avoid detection by police, she carried her books in a brown paper wrapper. Her schooling was augmented by a secret arrangement with a white child for lessons. These lessons were given every evening for four months. In addition, her grandmother made private arrangements with a white high school student to continue her granddaughter's education (Loewenberg and Bogin, 1976:90-94). Many of the black women who followed Harriet Tubman and Susie King Taylor were as resourceful, courageous and assertive. Mary Bethune, Pulitzer prize winner Gwendolyn Brooks, Ida B. Wells, Zora Hurston and Margaret Walker are only a few examples of the continuation of black female assertiveness and success in a repressive white world. More contemporary women would include Patricia Harris, Shirley Chisholm and Barbara Jordan. In addition, efforts were made by some white people to give black females an opportunity to develop

themselves. One such school was opened by Prudence Crandall in Canterbury, Connecticut. She faced a hostile community and even endured having the school burned before finally closing it (Franklin, 1969:248).

Interestingly, the historic path of the black woman has given her an advantage in the present. White society is accustomed to her working in white society, and white males do not see her as either seeking a husband as they would a white woman, or as competition since she is female (Huber, 1973:170). Butler (1976) states that women are not seen as competition by white males because cultural norms require women to exhibit appropriately feminine characteristics and impose negative sanctions against competitive non-feminine behavior. This proffered option between self-achievement and femininity causes dissonance and frustration for females (Horner, 1972). Professional black women have told this writer that the more their aspirations are realized, the slimmer their chances for finding an equal status marriage partner. Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) suggest that as more women enter the economic realm, attitudes toward acceptable sex-role behavior will change. This may also effect a change in attitude toward the black female co-worker.

The purpose of this study is to explore both the level and developmental causes of assertiveness of black females in an academic environment. This chapter has provided an introduction to the topic and introduced the reader to the uniqueness of the black female. The remainder of this study includes: Chapter II, a review of the relevant literature; Chapter III, the methods and procedures utilized

to explore the hypotheses; Chapter IV, the hypotheses generated by the historical antecedents for the development of assertiveness in the black female; Chapter V, the statistical results of the survey of black female college students; Chapter VI, a discussion of the findings; and Chapter VII states the implications for future research based on the results of this study.

## CHAPTER II

### PREVIOUS STUDIES

Assertiveness training is a popular current therapeutic mode of behavior modification, i.e., teaching individuals to act in their own interest and to exert their rights while not denying the rights of others (Alberti and Emmons, 1970). The method used is to teach non-assertive individuals appropriate assertive behavior through observation and participation in role-playing activities. The value of role-playing is that non-assertive individuals are taught assertiveness skills in a non-threatening simulated real-life situation (Jakubowski, 1973). The use of role modeling by imitation as an effective method is supported by Hollander and Hunt (1976) who state the more articulated a role becomes, the more it will be a determinant of behavior. The Assertive Woman (Phelps and Austin, 1975) is a self-study guide designed to raise the consciousness of women which advocates specific measures to increase female assertiveness. However, this guide does not address the issues of prejudice, racial discrimination or socio-economic status as they apply to the black woman. A review of other related literature reveals the same omission (Harris, 1967; Wolpe, 1969; Winship, 1976; Komarovsky, 1959; Gay et al., 1975; and Galassi et al., 1974). There is also a noteworthy



paucity of research into specific role-models used by individuals designated as highly assertive. Such data might reveal particular behavior imitative of specific models.

To establish the continuity of black female assertiveness from slavery to the present, it is necessary to examine the origins of its historical development and to coordinate the disparate literature written about the black female. Measurements and evaluations of the black subculture have, until very recently, been done by black and white males. Black male sociologist Robert Staples credits black males with the development of black culture stating it was developed in the ghetto street life and is reflected in the males' speech and clothing. A contradiction appears when Staples states that a significantly large number of black households are headed by single-parent females and is based on the socio-economic factor that black women are better able to provide for their families. Staples neglects to note that a female-headed black household is not economically more stable than when both parents are present. The black female has always earned less money than the white male, white female and black male (Gardner, 1971); this wage inequity is still in evidence. However, even when a male is present, it usually is necessary for the female to contribute to the family income. Staples may have implied that because she is more likely than the male to find work and can also resort to welfare, she is better able to maintain a single-parent household. This would seem to indicate the female is the primary socializing agent for the children, teaching them the appropriate sex, age and racial roles.

In her study, Powdermaker (1969) points out that middle-class black females own approximately as much property as black males and that if lower-class blacks were able to accrue property, the bulk of it would probably be owned by the female. It is noted by Van Dusen (1976) that there has been a one-third increase in black female-headed households with the black female heading up one-fourth of all single-parent families. Van Dusen further notes that the black female single-parent is generally about thirty-five years old, which is nine years younger than her white female counterpart. The female-headed household is usually disadvantaged because the female is less educated. She has an income below the poverty level, and in the case of the black family, thirty-eight percent of the children are under the age of eighteen.

The black woman has been described in a matriarchal role and been pitied for her low self-esteem by black psychiatrists Grier and Cobbs (1968) and others (Kardiner and Ovesey, 1951; Moynihan and Glazer, 1963). A noteworthy exception is found in the writings of Frederick Douglass. He championed the cause of women's suffrage and paid great deference to the black woman (Douglass, 1962). A guided tour of his home in Washington, D.C. reveals his wife's chair in the main parlor indicating to guests she was welcome to participate in what was socially defined then as male conversation.

A measure of self-concept of black and white children concluded that both sets of children held a lower concept of blacks (Clark and Clark, 1947). The study was replicated in the two following decades with the same results (Stevenson and Stewart, 1958; Moreland, 1966).

Controls were used for the variables of race, age and region. It was not until recently that the variables of sex and social class were included. The findings indicated an increase in white preference by both groups, particularly middle-class children (Asher and Allen, 1969; Williams and Moreland, 1976). What the analytical data revealed but was not noted as significant, was that black female children showed a lower percentage preference for the white puppets than did black male children. It is felt by this writer that this is indicative of a better self-concept for black female children than black male children.

More recent studies have focused on the influence of the black female in encouraging her children, male and female, toward upward mobility through education and social skills. Coles (1978), a child psychiatrist, wrote Children of Crisis based on his observations of children during the social changes that occurred in the 1960s. He particularly observed Ruby Bridges, a six-year old black female who, alone, integrated a New Orleans school. This little girl was encouraged by an older black female who advised her to mask her fear in public. The continuance of this assertiveness needs also to be examined from an intergenerational model. Scanzoni (1976) found that, while both parents in black middle-class families contributed encouragement, the data indicated a slightly higher percentage by the mother. This would seem to imply that the mother is more likely to promote assertiveness in her children. In addition the mother was cited by both male and female offspring as providing the most expressive or person-oriented support. She was also named first as a role-model by males and females. The males did not indicate a female for

a second role-model as did the females, and Scanzoni offers this in refutation to the myth of the totally female-dominated black culture. A similar study (McCord et al., 1969) stated that the black mother is a major force in the occupational achievement of her children. A similar example is found in Black Women in Nineteenth-Century American Life (Loewenberg and Bogin, 1976). Annie Louise Burton was born into slavery. At great personal risk, her mother returned to the plantation after running away in order to raise her daughter. Annie was sent to a neighboring plantation to work and while there, learned to read and write. She did not marry until after the age of thirty because she was caring for a nephew who attended Hampton Institute in Virginia. At the age of forty-four, she went to evening classes at the Franklin Institute after moving to Boston.

It is further suggested that due to the economic pressures that frequently forced the black female into the role of single-parent-sole-provider, she even now frequently does not have the option of role-interchangeable co-provider. Her options are polarized into sole-provider or a role-reversal to a subordinate position to her husband. Patricia Harris, Secretary of Housing and Urban Development (H.U.D.), is one of the few black female examples of successful role-interchangeability (Scanzoni, 1972). Gwen Patton, a black female, states that the Victorian philosophy of male-success contributed to the black male's feelings of inadequacy and, further, that this cultural norm instills guilt feelings in the black female which could impede her desires for self-determination and self-development (Cade, 1970). Therefore, the purpose of the experiment will be to measure

how much young black females will resolve the ambiguity described by Freud (1920) as the conflict between self-expression and group survival, by contributing to black cultural, social and economic development through the established historical self-assertiveness that is her heritage.

### CHAPTER III

#### METHODOLOGY

A sixty-one item fixed-response questionnaire was distributed by cluster sample to 130 black female students in a traditionally black liberal arts college with a total response of 102 (N = 102). The student body of this college is predominantly middle-class. Arrangements were made with instructors at the college to distribute the questionnaire. The questionnaire is included in the Appendix.

The Galassi scale (Galassi et al., 1974) constituted the first fifty items. This scale, a self-report College Self Evaluation Scale (CSES), is designed to measure the three dimensions of assertiveness: positive assertiveness, negative assertiveness and self-denial in the variety of interpersonal contexts of family, strangers, business relations, authority figures and like and opposite sex peers. Using items from the Adjective Check List, the Galassi scale assigns expressions of love and agreement as positive assertiveness. Expressions of justifiable anger or disagreement are denoted as negative assertiveness, while excessive anxiety and exaggerated concern are reflective of characteristics of self-denial. The scale utilizes a five-point Likert format (0-4) with twenty-one positively worded and twenty-nine negatively worded items. Twenty-nine items (nos. 3, 6, 8, 9, 11, 13,

15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 35, 36, 40, 41, 42, 43, 45, 46, 48, 49) are scored in reverse. The total scores for the Galassi scale are obtained by summing all positively worded items and reverse scoring and summing all negatively worded items with low scores indicative of a non-assertive pattern.

Galassi et al. (1974) first established the validity of the assertiveness scale by discovering significant correlations between high assertiveness scores on the scale and self-ratings on the Adjective Check List which characterized highly assertive persons as expressive, spontaneous, well defended, confident and able to influence and lead others. In this study high assertiveness also correlated with observed assertiveness as judged by teaching supervisors. The correlation coefficients were modest, however. Further validity research by Galassi and Galassi (1974) found a correlation between high assertiveness scores and ratings of assertiveness by untrained judges (dormitory counselors). Galassi et al. (1976) showed that individuals who scored high on the scale showed objectively measured more assertive behavior, more eye contact and less anxiety in standardized role-playing situations than those who scored low on the scale.

A factor analysis of the fifty-item Galassi scale suggests that the assertiveness measure is actually multidimensional. Four factors were isolated which were orthogonal, that is, independent of one another (Galassi, in press). The first two factors contained items which appeared to conform most closely with the definition of assertiveness used in this research. Intercorrelations among these items showed six which were consistently, albeit modestly, clustered

together; these six items constitute a modified version of the total Galassi scale. The means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among these items are found in Table 1. The first three items (6, 9, 16) examine the interpersonal relationships with a roommate and the second three items (21, 43, 50) reveal expressions of opinions in the classroom setting. Interactions with a roommate are dynamic and intimate and are an index of a more sustained level of assertiveness than some of the one-time interactions probed in other items in the total Galassi scale. Expressions of one's viewpoint in the classroom setting indicate a measure of self-esteem because intellectual as well as personality factors are open to scrutiny.

Table 1 shows that apart from item number 9, the mean values reflect an assertive position on the part of the black women college students in this sample. Indeed, it will be shown later that relative to previous samples of college students, these students appear to be relatively highly assertive. The total scale results will be presented for comparative purposes but all of the correlational analysis in this study will employ the brief, modified scale discussed above. The questionnaire used in this study will be referred to as assertiveness<sub>1</sub>, and the modified six-item scale as assertiveness<sub>2</sub>.

The additional eleven items, employing an eight-point ranking format (1 highest to 8 lowest) are included to elicit specific information concerning educational and social goals and specifically to reveal the female adult role-model that is presumptively attributed to the black culture.



TABLE 1

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SIX ASSERTIVENESS  
STATEMENTS AND THEIR CORRELATIONS

ITEM NOS.	MEANS	STD. DEV.
6	1.05	1.04
9	2.02	1.43
16	1.25	1.23
21	.92	1.21
43	1.34	1.09
50*	2.46	1.00

	9	16	21	43	50*
9	.30	.32	.24	.21	-.18
16		.27	.25	.18	-.15
21			.17	.40	-.21
43				.18	-.19
50					-.18

\* Item 50 scored in reverse

The categories designated for three roles (influence, importance, and affection) were: mother, father, grandmother, grandfather, other-female, other-male, school teacher and minister and were used in questions 51, 52, and 53. In question 54 the respondents were asked to name the two Americans they most admired, and in question 60 to identify the individual who made the important decisions in their family. Personal data were elicited in question 56 and included the respondents' major, grade point average, age and marital status. It is noted here that only one respondent was married.

The items designed to elicit the respondents' socio-economic status were the mother's or substitute's educational and occupational levels, the father's or substitute's educational and occupational levels, and the estimated family income level (questions 58 and 59). The aspiration levels were obtained by asking the respondents in question 61 (a, b, c, d) to project to ten years from now as to their educational and occupational goals, marital status, occupational level of husband, if married, and the number of children desired, if any.

## CHAPTER IV

### HYPOTHESES

The total and the modified, brief Galassi scales are being used in this study as exploratory and explanatory measures of the assertiveness of black females; they use assertiveness as a dependent variable influenced by individuals in interpersonal contexts, i.e., with parents, strangers, authority figures and peers (Galassi et al., 1974). Furthermore, the more assertive the black female, the more likely she will be to place a high priority on career and aspirations. Being assertive does not foreclose marriage. The black female could assert herself by marrying a man of higher soci-economic status, deciding on few or no children in order to continue her career or by not opting for marriage. It is proposed that the contemporary black female will not adopt a subservient role to her marriage partner but will, in fact, continue to improve her status by continuing to assert herself, and this will be reflected in the responses to the assertiveness<sub>2</sub> scale. History has shown the black female to be resourceful and independently able to provide for and promote herself within the dominant culture which discourages assertiveness in both blacks and females. The contemporary black female is aware of her cultural

heritage and accomplishments: she is very conscious of the present-day social, educational and economic advantages so newly opened to her.

It is also proposed that the young black female will continue to emulate this role-model of self-assertiveness. Questions fifty-one through sixty-one were designed to specifically elicit the relationship between reference-person and educational and aspirational goals and assertiveness. The responses to these questions should reflect the continuation of the female-oriented model.

The following hypotheses are based on the assumed interrelationship among the role-models for assertiveness, the present level of assertiveness and the projected higher aspirations of the black female.

Hypotheses between reference-person (significant others) and assertiveness.

1. The more the female respondents indicate women are accorded influence, the higher the assertiveness score.
2. The more the female respondents indicate that women are rated higher in importance, the higher the assertiveness score.
3. The more the female respondents indicate more affection for women, the higher the assertiveness score.
4. The more the female respondents indicate a greater admiration for women, the higher the assertiveness score.
5. The more female respondents indicate occupations to be sex-atypical, the higher the assertiveness score.

Hypotheses between socio-economic status background and assertiveness.

6. The more the female respondents indicate a higher female

(mother or substitute) educational background, the higher the assertiveness score.

7. The more the female respondents indicate a higher female (mother or substitute) occupational background, the higher the assertiveness score.
8. The more the female respondents indicate a higher male (father or substitute) educational background, the higher the assertiveness score.
9. The more the female respondents indicate a higher male (father or substitute) occupational background, the higher the assertiveness score.
10. The more the female respondents indicate important family decisions are made by the mother, the higher the assertiveness score.

Hypotheses between assertiveness and current and future marital and career goals.

11. The more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the educational goals.
12. The more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the grade point average.
13. The more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the occupational goals projected for ten years from now.
14. The more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the occupational goals projected for husbands ten

years from now.

15. The more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the more likely to remain single.
16. The more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, if married, the more likely to have fewer children.

## CHAPTER V

### RESULTS

The average age of the 102 respondents was 19.56 with forty-two of them classified as freshmen, thirty-four as sophomores, nineteen as juniors and the remaining six as seniors. The sample included twenty departments with forty-six percent of the respondents representing the business, mass media and sociology departments (see Table 2).

The respondents' mean score on the Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> scale was 131.84 with a standard deviation of 21.07. The scores ranged from a low of sixty-one to a high of 191 on a possible scale of zero to 200. A comparison of the mean score with those obtained by Galassi in Table 3 indicates a relatively high level of assertiveness, particularly when compared to the female respondents in the Galassi samples. In addition, the levels of assertiveness are comparable to those obtained by Galassi for males.

The data for the first hypothesis that the more women are accorded influence for the respondents, the higher the assertiveness score reveal no significant relationship between the assertiveness and the influence of women on the respondents. The Spearman correlation coefficients between Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> and influence of mother was -.12, for grandmother -.06 and for other-female .08. Table 4 reveals the respondents named mother as the most influential person in their

lives with grandmother and other-female influence ranking third and fourth. Most of the respondents, regardless of their assertiveness levels, reported a high level of female influence.

Although Table 4 indicates that mother is rated the most important person to the respondents, the data do not support the second hypothesis that importance of mother is correlated with high assertiveness. The Spearman correlation coefficients between Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> and importance of mother, grandmother and other-females are  $-.12$ ,  $-.16$  and  $.14$ , none of which are significant at the  $.05$  level, although in the predicted direction.

Hypothesis three states that the more the female respondents indicate more affection for women, the higher the assertiveness score. The mean rankings for women shown in Table 4 did not demonstrate a relationship with the respondents' Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> measure. The modified Assertiveness<sub>2</sub> scale for influence, importance and affection will be discussed later. Other-males are ranked third in order of affection, and it is assumed that romantic attachments account for this change in the rank position of this group when compared to their ranking in the two other categories of influence and importance.

When asked in question fifty-four to name the two Americans they most admired, seventeen percent listed Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and fourteen percent named mother. The names of females other than mother constituted thirty-five percent, and other-males, including father, were an additional thirty-four percent. Fourteen percent of the respondents chose not to answer the question, and some respondents only named one individual. No particular significant-other



TABLE 2

ASSERTIVENESS<sub>1</sub> SCALE SCORES BY ACADEMIC MAJOR AND CLASSIFICATION

MAJOR	N	MEAN	FR.	SO.	JR.	SR.
Totals	102	131.84	42	34	19	6
Business	25	133	11	6	4	3
Mass Media	12	120	9	1	1	1
Sociology	10	133	5	1	3	1
Education	9	137	1	6	2	1
Nursing	6	132	4	0	2	0
Mathematics	5	124	1	3	1	0
Chemistry	5	134	1	4	0	0
Nutrition	4	116	1	2	1	0
Design	4	141	0	4	0	0
Drama	3	137	3	0	0	0
Biology	3	142	1	2	0	0
Music	3	138	1	0	2	0
English	3	121	1	2	0	0
Economics	2	151	1	1	0	0
Comm. Disorders	2	124	0	1	1	0
Physical Educ.	1	139	1	0	1	0
Commercial Art	1	140	0	0	1	0
Language	1	149	1	0	0	0
Pol. Science	1	149	0	0	1	0
Human Ecology	1	101	0	1	0	0
(1 not listed)	1	149	-----			

TABLE 3

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON THE GALASSI SCALE

SAMPLE	SEX	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.
W. V. U. Psych. I*	male	58	121.97	14.12
Pre-test	female	33	117.91	16.01
W. V. U. Psych. I*	male	58	124.16	19.58
Post-test	female	33	120.82	20.11
W. V. U. Upper Div.*	male	19	133.00	11.96
and Graduate Stud.	female	28	124.75	17.55
Pre-test		47	128.09	15.46
W. V. U. Upper Div.*	male	19	132.74	14.11
and Graduate Stud.	female	28	123.39	20.62
Post-test		47	127.17	18.68
Fairmont State*	male	7	123.14	27.73
Elem. Stu. Teachers	female	34	122.44	17.17
Fairmont State*	male	36	128.75	18.27
Second. Student	female	46	118.46	17.77
Teachers		82	122.98	18.61
Hampton Institute**	female	102	131.84	21.07

\*Galassi et al., West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV, 1974.

\*\*Present study

TABLE 4

MEAN RANKINGS FOR INFLUENCE, IMPORTANCE AND AFFECTION FOR  
REFERENCE PERSONS ACCORDING TO ASSERTIVENESS<sub>1</sub> SCORES

PERSONS	INFLUENCE	IMPORTANCE	AFFECTION
Minister	5.94	6.29	6.82
Mother	1.50	1.35	1.47
Schoolteacher	5.23	6.34	6.56
Grandfather	5.58	5.25	5.17
Other-male	4.69	4.44	4.31
Grandmother	4.68	4.10	4.02
Father	3.25	3.13	3.14
Other-female	4.26	4.55	4.00

was named frequently enough to be specifically included. It is assumed that Dr. King was most frequently chosen because of the racial identity the female respondents make with Dr. King's civil rights efforts. It is noteworthy that mother was named almost as frequently as Dr. King and more frequently than any other nationally known black male or female.

Hypothesis five, the more the female respondents judged traditionally male-oriented occupations to be sex-atypical, the higher the assertiveness level could not be statistically analyzed because of the ambiguity of the question addressing the hypothesis. Many respondents chose not to rank these occupations as appropriate for females, others ranked several occupations equally, while leaving other occupations unranked and several respondents ranked all occupations as being appropriate for women and sex-atypical.

The hypotheses between socio-economic status background and assertiveness, six, seven, eight and nine, from data not presented here, did not correlate with Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> scores. As shown in Table 5, the family socio-economic status is relatively high with approximately twenty-four percent of the fathers and forty-three percent of the mothers employed in professional occupations. Table 5 also indicates that over forty percent of the respondents' fathers possessed at least the bachelor's degree and that the majority of their mothers were at this level. It is noted that, although more fathers than mothers have a doctoral degree, a larger proportion of the mothers are college educated. Family income was

TABLE 5

## FAMILY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

<u>Father's Occupation</u> %		<u>Father's Education</u> %	
Unskilled	4.9	B.A.	26.5
Skilled	30.4	M.A.	8.8
Managerial	9.8	Ph.D.	8.8
Professional	24.5		
<u>Mother's Occupation</u> %		<u>Mother's Education</u> %	
Unskilled	13.7	B.A.	35.3
Skilled	15.7	M.A.	16.7
Managerial	3.9	Ph.D.	1.0
<u>Family Income</u> %			
Under \$8,000	10.8		
\$ 8,000 to 11,999	12.7		
\$12,000 to 15,999	6.9		
\$16,000 to 19,999	8.8		
\$20,000 to 23,999	18.6		
\$24,000 and over	26.5		

given as being above twenty thousand dollars with 26.5 percent of the respondents indicating the family income level to exceed twenty-four thousand dollars. With little exception, both parents were present in the home. It was assumed in these four hypotheses that if the parents of the respondents were highly educated and enjoyed a high income level, it would probably influence the respondents' assertiveness level. This was not statistically demonstrated. The hypothesis stating the more the female respondents indicated important family decisions are made by the mother, the higher the assertiveness score was not statistically corroborated even though it was shown that slightly more mothers than fathers made important family decisions.

Tables 6 through 12, for the mean rankings as the source of influence, importance and affection for parents and grandparents according to levels of assertiveness ( $\text{Assertiveness}_2$ ) demonstrate that mother is ranked higher in influence, importance and affection than father. This finding is consistent at all three levels of assertiveness. The high  $\text{Assertiveness}_2$  subjects ranked the influence (1.68 vs. 3.79), importance (2.00 vs. 3.85) and affection (2.15 vs. 3.68) of mother greater than that of father. This finding is consistent for those with medium  $\text{Assertiveness}_2$  (1.94 vs. 3.85, 2.15 vs. 3.56, and 2.18 vs. 3.76, respectively) as well as for those with low  $\text{Assertiveness}_2$  (1.94 vs. 3.41, 2.06 vs. 3.50, and 2.21 vs. 3.53, respectively). The Analysis of Variance demonstrated statistical significance for importance ( $p = .04$ ) and affection at ( $p \pm .02$ ) between mother and father.

Parents are consistently rated higher in influence, importance

and affection than grandparents at each of the Assertiveness<sub>2</sub> levels. The same consistent levels demonstrated for mother and father are not maintained when grandmother and grandfather are ranked for influence, importance and affection. Table 6 indicates that, although grandmother is ranked first as the source of influence, importance and affection at the highest levels of assertiveness, less consistency is maintained at the medium and low levels of the respondents' assertiveness. At these assertiveness levels grandfather gains as the source for importance, and at the lowest level of assertiveness, an increase in influence.

The mean age of the respondents is 19.56, with the majority of them classified as freshmen and sophomores. Table 13 indicates the majority of the respondents, 62.8 percent, plan to continue their education to the master's level with an additional 26.5 percent of them planning to continue to the doctoral level. Although these aspirations would seem to support hypothesis eleven, that the more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the educational goals, a nonsignificant correlation of .37 between Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> scores and educational goals was evidenced. The respondents' mean grade point average of 2.96 would indicate their educational goals are realistic; however, a negative correlation of .28 between their grade point average and Assertiveness<sub>1</sub> scores, according to data not included here, refutes the hypothesis that the more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the grade point average.

TABLE 6

MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF INFLUENCE, IMPORTANCE AND AFFECTION  
FOR REFERENCE PERSONS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

PERSONS	ASSERTIVENESS <sub>2</sub>	INFLUENCE	IMPORTANCE	AFFECTION
Mother	high	1.68	2.00	2.15
	med.	1.94	2.15	2.18
	low	1.94	2.06	2.21
Father	high	3.79	3.85	3.68
	med.	3.85	3.56	3.76
	low	3.41	3.50	3.53
Grandmother	high	4.65	4.71	4.59
	med.	5.03	5.71	4.44
	low	6.44	6.00	4.62
Grandfather	high	5.38	5.29	5.32
	med.	6.32	4.62	5.88
	low	5.68	4.56	5.79



TABLE 7

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF INFLUENCE OF  
MOTHERS AND FATHERS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	df	MS	F
Total	1166.17	203		
Between subjects	668.67	101		
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub>	1.77	2	.89	.13
Mother-Father	171.42	1	171.42	52.58*
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X Mother-Father	3.72	2	1.86	.57
Within subjects	497.50	102		

\*p is less than .05

TABLE 8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF INFLUENCE OF  
GRANDPARENTS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	df	MS	F
Total	855.58	203		
Between subjects	642.08	101		
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub>	37.95	2	18.98	3.11*
Grandparents	44.24	1	44.24	26.33*
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X Grandparents	3.36	2	1.68	1.00
Within subjects	213.50	102		

\*p is less than .05

TABLE 9

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF IMPORTANCE OF  
MOTHERS AND FATHERS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	df	MS	F
Total	1299.59	203		
Between subjects	866.59	101		
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub>	.74	2	.37	.04
Mother-Father	125.49	1	125.49	40.61*
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X Mother-Father <sup>2</sup>	2.07	2	1.04	.34
Within subjects	433.00	102		

\*p is less than .05

TABLE 10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF IMPORTANCE OF  
GRANDPARENTS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	df	MS	F
Total	863.59	203		
Between subjects	614.59	101		
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub>	2.68	2	1.34	.22
Grandparents	55.08	1	55.08	28.99*
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X Grandparents	6.24	2	3.12	1.64
Within subjects	249.00	102		

\*p is less than .05

TABLE 11

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF AFFECTION FOR  
MOTHERS AND FATHERS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	df	MS	F
Total	1229.58	203		
Between subjects	841.08	101		
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub>	.36	2	.18	.02
Mother-Father	111.77	1	111.17	40.06*
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X Mother-Father <sup>2</sup>	.66	2	.33	.12
Within subjects	388.50	102		

\*p is less than .05

TABLE 12

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MEAN RANKINGS AS SOURCE OF AFFECTION FOR  
GRANDPARENTS ACCORDING TO LEVELS OF ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub>

SOURCE OF VARIATION	SS	df	MS	F
Total	889.63	203		
Between subjects	651.63	101		
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub>	2.42	2	1.21	.18
Grandparents	63.71	1	63.71	37.04*
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X Grandparents	4.32	2	2.16	1.26
Within subjects	238.00	102		

\*p is less than .05

TABLE 13

## EDUCATIONAL GOALS OF SUBJECTS

DEGREE	%
B.A.	6.9
M.A.	46.1
Professional	16.7
Ph.D.	26.5
(no answer)	3.8
	<hr/> 100.0
Mean age of subjects	19.56
Mean grade point average of subjects	2.96

TABLE 14

## PROJECTED GOALS AMONG RESPONDENTS FOR TEN YEARS FROM PRESENT

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<u>Occupation of subjects</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Occupation of husband</u>	<u>%</u>
Skilled	4.9	Skilled	10.8
Clerical	2.0		
Managerial	6.9	Managerial	2.0
Professional	71.6	Professional	52.9
<u>Marital status</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number of children</u>	
Single	28.4	Mean	2.3
Married	60.8		
Living together	3.9		

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\*Number of children in black family (U.S. Census, 1972): 3.2



TABLE 15

CORRELATIONS FOR THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN  
 ASSERTIVENESS<sub>2</sub> AND PROJECTED GOALS

	$\tau_b$	P
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X occupation	.12	.05
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X husband's occupation	.21	.01
Assertiveness <sub>2</sub> X children	.03	.34

The remaining four hypotheses, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen and sixteen, address the projected future marital and career goals of the respondents. Hypothesis thirteen was that the more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the occupational goals projected for ten years from now. Table 14 indicates the respondents' occupational goals are at the professional level. A Kendall's  $Tau_b$  analysis, as indicated in Table 15, demonstrates a significant relationship of .12 between Assertiveness<sub>2</sub> and the projected occupational goals of the respondents. This analysis further demonstrates a significant correlation of .21 between Assertiveness<sub>2</sub> and the projected occupational goals for husbands suggested in hypothesis fourteen.

Hypothesis fifteen, that the more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the more likely they were to expect to remain single, was not supported. Table 3 indicates the majority of the respondents intend to marry. Less than one-third plan to remain single, and a negligible number anticipate living together as a conjugal alternative.

The hypothesis that the more assertiveness indicated by the female respondents, the higher the occupational goal projected to ten years from now for husbands, if respondents are married, is supported by a significant Kendall's  $Tau_b$  correlation of .21 between the projected husband's occupation and Assertiveness<sub>2</sub>. Table 14 reveals that the majority of the respondents anticipate being married and apparently intend to seek marriage partners that will match their social and economic aspiration levels.

Hypothesis sixteen, that the more assertiveness indicated by

the female respondents, if married, the more likely to have fewer children, does not correlate with the reported Assertiveness<sub>2</sub> scores. Table 14 indicates the respondents desire a mean of 2.3 children which is less than the 1972 census data indicate for black families as shown in Table 14.

These results clearly suggest that marriage and the having of two children do not necessarily mean a sacrifice of career goals among these women. It is noteworthy that assertiveness was more highly correlated with the projected occupational status of the husbands than of themselves. The absence of a significant correlation with number of children expected may, in part, be a result of the relatively small number of children desired by these women.

## CHAPTER VI

### DISCUSSION

The Galassi scale results demonstrated that the female respondents show as high a level of assertiveness as male college students in other studies (Galassi et al., 1974). Using a six-item modified version of the total Galassi scale, the hypothesis that black female assertiveness is correlated with levels of aspiration was supported; however, assertiveness was not significantly related to the extent to which black females served as reference persons for influence, importance, or affection. It is suggested that the abstract level of the Galassi scale accounts for it not discriminating when interpersonal relations are considered. Other analysis did substantiate the predicted findings that the mother and grandmother are more affectionately regarded, more important and influential in the lives of the most assertive respondents than the male counterparts. This would concur with the historical antecedents described earlier.

It is possible that the mother is used as a multiple model for more than just identity or assertiveness. The majority of respondents cited mother as the most important and influential person in their lives and also accorded her the most affection. This would

seem to establish the mother as a model for much imitative behavior. It was noted earlier that she has historically been the primary socializing agent for her children, teaching them appropriate sex and racial roles. The multiple role-model, not investigated in this study, might not be as limited in scope or direction. That the concomitant assertiveness levels of the respondents' mothers was not known placed a serious restriction on the evaluation of them as models for assertiveness: not every black mother is assertive. The mother's influence as a role-model might be strongest in intra-family relationships which might tend to minimize her effect on behavior beyond this setting. The mother may be seen as important and influential because the respondents are college students and therefore, still more dependent than their self-supporting counterparts.

The respondents might also feel that the mother's aspirations for them are unrealistic, inappropriate or lower than the respondents'. A discrepancy between the aspiration levels of the respondents and their mothers would likely be due in part to the age difference as well as differences in the social milieu in which each was reared. The respondents' mothers at a comparable age were more restricted in their range of potential achievement. This was due primarily to racial segregation and prejudice. That is not to say that the respondents are totally free of these impediments or that segregation and prejudice are responsible for limitations in assertiveness and achievement. The respondents are reaching young adulthood in a decade that provides a wider range of social, economic and educational opportunity. Because of these changes,

the respondents may partly reject the model of heritage.

Although mothers were accorded the most affection, followed by fathers, there was evidence in the data that significant-other males were ranked first after parents in affectional ties. This was the only category in which significant-other males displayed any degree of higher ranking than other persons. These new affectional ties are probably due to romantic attachments generally evident in this age group. They may also be one of the vestiges of changes in the respondents' orientations. Scanzoni (1977) states that it is not uncommon for the children in black families to reject their parents' aspirations for them because the children do not see them as providing realistic hope for attainment and because the parents do not possess the means, whether social or financial, for the realization of all aspirations. Although the respondents indicated a relatively high socio-economic status background, they are probably aware of the limited achievements of many blacks due to some of these social and financial factors.

It is suggested that the respondents may have more than one female role-model. Scanzoni (1977) states that the black female may be dissatisfied with her life-style when she compares it with her white female counterpart. In literature cited earlier there was evidence that the black female acquired many of her social skills by observing white society. This observation was possible because of her job opportunities as a domestic worker in the white home, both during slavery and after emancipation. The acquiring of social skills and possibly concomitant values is described by Tarde

(Timasheff, 1967) at the social level as a process of imitation in which an individual models himself or herself after another in accordance with the values placed on such behavior. Furthermore, there is a selection of imitative behavior from a larger repertory of possible choices. The use of the white female role-model might also stem from the reinforcement given by the black male who views the white female as the ideal female type as suggested by Cade (1970). The prestige and inaccessibility of the white female to the black male, who was being forced to share the black female with the white male, may account for the idealization of the white female by him (Dollard, 1949:382-383).

It is also suggested that the changes effected by the civil rights movement and women's movement have also altered the role-model of the respondents. One possible change mentioned earlier that might account for a limited role-model provided by the mother is the new opportunities now available to the respondents. The data revealed that Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. was named most frequently as the American most admired by the respondents. The choice of Dr. King might be reflective of the respondents crediting him with the new opportunities they now enjoy. The women's movement may also have altered any role-model provided by white females. Some white females are rejecting or at least seriously questioning their societally-defined role and are seeking a more independent status as described by Phelps and Austin (1975). These two events could be causing the respondents to establish new role-models. The new role-models may only be emerging, and it is suggested that

respondents may be exhibiting a higher level of assertiveness because they are developing their own role-model. It is not suggested that the respondents are totally rejecting the two previous role-models, mother and white female, because the data demonstrated that the respondents anticipate marrying and having children. This would suggest they still plan to emulate the female roles particularly, since a positive correlation in this study was found between respondents' assertiveness and projected occupational level for themselves and their future husbands. From this finding, it would appear that some of the respondents' assertiveness is expressed vicariously; they still want to retain the option of traditional female role behavior within the family without sacrificing their own assertiveness. This retention of options may be due to the fact that the respondents may have internalized middle-class values. They plan to have fewer children than their parents as indicated in Table 14 which may indicate their ambivalence between the appropriateness of assertive versus dependent behavior.

Another possible factor which may contribute to the respondents' not identifying with a single role-model is racial identity. While there is pressure to identify with blacks because their families and peers in school are black and because they are expected to be deferential to the black male, the respondents may be impelled to identify with the now upwardly mobile white female to satisfy their need for achievement. The new role-model the black female may be developing for herself is as an American female rather than retaining models rooted in racial factors.



This double bind situation is probably a major factor in the respondents mixed role-model and situational variability of assertiveness. In order to retain a holistic positive self-image, it is predicted that the black female will develop a modified inter-cultural role for herself which will allow for selective assertiveness and provide still another role-model for future generations of black females.

## CHAPTER VII

### IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following are implications for future research suggested from the findings of this study. A replication of this study would need to include changes to compensate for the weaknesses evidenced in the design of the questionnaire. One weakness was the failure to establish assertiveness levels for mother. Identification with mother might be elicited by having respondents evaluate the assertiveness of their mothers and comparing the results with the respondents' assertiveness. Another weakness was found in the question addressing the sex-atypicality and appropriateness of occupations for women. It is suggested that the subjects list the occupations they deem appropriate for women rather than having them rank prescribed occupations which may not conform to their preferences. It is further suggested that the addition of questions to tap attitudes toward the white female might reveal the possibility of a white female role-model.

Additional research could be directed at ascertaining the black female attitudes toward their black male peers. This might indicate whether the black female plans to assume the more

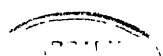
nurturant role of wife and mother or to continue to assert herself through extra-familial achievement. Attitudes toward the black male might further indicate whether or not socio-economic levels are critical to the direction of assertiveness.

Longitudinal studies would possibly indicate changes in levels of assertiveness. This might be particularly revealing if black females were tested at specific life-stages, i.e., upon entering college, post-college and after marriage or entry into careers. Longitudinal studies would perhaps be a better means of determining whether a specific role-model or multiple role-models are used by the black female.

An additional focus for research might include a measurement of black female ego-strength and whether this correlates positively with the level of assertiveness. It is possible there are different types of assertiveness.

A final implication for research suggested by this study would be to employ a different or additional research methodology. The Galassi scale (Galassi et al., 1974) is a measurement of assertiveness and is not predictive of a role-model, and the remainder of the questionnaire failed to elicit information that might establish the role-model(s) for assertiveness. The fixed-response approach used in this study facilitated tabulation of responses, but imposed restrictions that limited any additional information that might otherwise have been obtained. Open-ended questions or direct interviews with subjects might prove more advantageous in socio-emotional research.

## APPENDIX



## APPENDIX

Your cooperation is requested in completing this questionnaire for a master's thesis in sociology. All information will be confidential and respondents will remain anonymous. The following inventory is designed to provide information about the way in which you express yourself. Your answer should reflect how you generally express yourself. Your answer should reflect how you generally express yourself in the situation. Please answer the questions by checking the appropriate line from 0 to 4.

Almost Always or Always	0
Usually	1
Sometimes	2
Seldom	3
Never or Rarely	4

1. Do you ignore it when someone pushes in front of you in line?
2. When you decide that you no longer wish to date someone, do you have marked difficulty telling the person of your decision?
3. Would you exchange a purchase you discover to be faulty?
4. If you decided to change your major to a field which your parents will not approve, would you have difficulty telling them?
5. Are you inclined to be over-apologetic?
6. If you were studying and if your roommate was making too much noise, would you ask her to stop?
7. Is it difficult for you to compliment and praise others?
8. If you are angry at your parents, can you tell them?
9. Do you insist that your roommate does her fair share of the cleaning?
10. If you find yourself becoming fond of someone you are dating, would you have difficulty expressing these feelings to that person?
11. If a friend who has borrowed \$5.00 from you seems to have forgotten about it, would you remind this person?

12. Are you overly careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings?
13. If you have a close friend whom your parents dislike and constantly criticize, would you inform your parents that you disagree with them and tell them of your friend's assets?
14. Do you find it difficult to ask a friend to do a favor for you?
15. If food which is not to your satisfaction is served in a restaurant, would you complain about it?
16. If your roommate without your permission eats food that she knows you have been saving, can you express your displeasure to her?
17. If a sales clerk has gone to considerable trouble to show you some merchandise which is not quite suitable, do you have difficulty in saying no?
18. Do you keep your opinions to yourself?
19. If friends visit when you want to study, do you ask them to return at a more convenient time?
20. Are you able to express love and affection to people for whom you care?
21. If you were in a small seminar and the professor made a statement that you considered untrue, would you question it?
22. If a person of the opposite sex whom you have been wanting to meet smiles or directs attention to you at a party, would you take the initiative in beginning a conversation?
23. If someone you respect expresses opinions with which you strongly disagree, would you venture to state your own point of view?
24. Do you go out of your way to avoid trouble with other people?
25. If a friend is wearing a new outfit which you like, do you tell that person so?
26. If after leaving a store you realize that you have been "short-changed," do you go back and request the correct amount?
27. If a friend makes what you consider to be an unreasonable request, are you able to refuse?
28. If a close and respected relative were annoying you, would you hide your feelings rather than express annoyance?

29. If your parents want you to come home for a weekend but you have made important plans, would you tell them of your preference?
30. Do you express anger or annoyance toward the opposite sex when it is justified?
31. If a friend does an errand for you, do you tell that person how much you appreciate it?
32. When a person is blatantly unfair, do you fail to say something about it?
33. Do you avoid social contacts for fear of doing or saying the wrong thing?
34. If a friend betrays your confidence, would you hesitate to express annoyance to that person?
35. When a clerk in a store waits on someone who has come in after you, do you call attention to the matter?
36. If you are particularly happy about someone's good fortune, can you express this to that person?
37. Would you be hesitant about asking a good friend to lend you a few dollars?
38. If a person teases you to the point that it is no longer fun, do you have difficulty expressing your displeasure?
39. If you arrive late for a meeting, would you rather stand than go to a front seat which could only be secured with a fair degree of conspicuousness?
40. If your date calls on Saturday night 15 minutes before you are supposed to meet and says that he has to study for an important exam and cannot make it, would you express your annoyance?
41. If someone keeps kicking the back of your chair in a movie, would you ask the person to stop?
42. If someone interrupts you in the middle of an important conversation, do you request that the person wait until you have finished?
43. Do you freely volunteer information or opinions in class discussions?
44. Are you reluctant to speak to an attractive acquaintance of the opposite sex?

45. If you lived in an apartment and the management failed to make certain necessary repairs after promising to do so, would you insist on it?
46. If your parents want you home at a certain time which you feel is much too early and unreasonable, do you attempt to discuss or negotiate this with them?
47. Do you find it difficult to stand up for your rights?
48. If a friend unjustifiably criticizes you, do you express your resentment there and then?
49. Do you express your feelings to others?
50. Do you avoid asking questions in class for fear of feeling self-conscious?

Rank the following individuals: 1 (highest) to 8 (lowest).

Minister	Other female kin or friend
Mother	Grandmother
Schoolteacher	Father
Grandfather	Other male kin or friend

51. According to influence in your life.
52. According to importance in your life.
53. In the order you feel the most affection.
54. Which two Americans do you most admire?
55. Rank the following professions from 1 (most) to 8 (least) appropriate for women.

Commercial pilot	President of a prestigious university
Police chief	Automobile designer
President of a steel company	Commanding officer of an infantry unit
Neurosurgeon	
Labor union leader	

56. Personal data:

Age	Grade point average
Major or anticipated major	Classification level
Marital status	



57. What are your ultimate educational goals?

Bachelor's degree

Master's degree

Professional degree such as master's in social work, law or  
medicine

Doctoral degree

58. Fill in the following items listing specific titles or descriptions, not place of work.

Father's (or substitute's) occupation

Father's (or substitute's) educational level

Mother's (or substitute's) occupation

Mother's (or substitute's) educational level

59. Family income: under \$8,000  
\$ 8,000 to 11,999  
\$12,000 to 15,999  
\$16,000 to 19,999  
\$20,000 to 23,999  
\$24,000 or over

60. Who makes the most important decisions in your family?

Mother

Father

Other

61. Project to ten years from now:

a. Your occupation: if you have a specific job in mind, what  
is it?

Unskilled

Skilled

Clerical

Managerial

Professional

Not working

b. Marital status: Single  
Married  
Living together

c. If married, husband's occupation: Unskilled  
Skilled  
Clerical  
Managerial  
Professional

d. How many children do you want to have? None  
Give a number

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