FEMALE OFFENDERS: A STUDY OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF
SELF-ESTEEM, DEPENDENCY, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ANDROGYNY
AND HOW THESE CHARACTERISTICS DIFFER IN THREE
CORRECTIONAL SETTINGS

A Dissertation
Presented to
The School of Graduate Studies
Drake University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Gary R. Rosberg
May 1983
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FEMALE OFFENDERS: A STUDY OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF SELF-ESTEEM, DEPENDENCY, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ANDROGYNY AND HOW THESE CHARACTERISTICS DIFFER IN THREE CORRECTIONAL SETTINGS

An abstract of a Dissertation by
Gary R. Rosberg
May 1983
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The Problem. The intent of this study was to analyze three specific assumptions about female offenders that appear to be commonly held by professionals in corrections, that they: have low self-esteem, high dependency, and possess a masculine sex-role identity. The purpose of this study was to assess the relationships and differences between these three variables and to identify how they differ in female offenders in three correctional settings.

The Procedure. The data were obtained by administering the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (self-esteem), the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory (dependency), and the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (sex-role identity), and a demographic profile questionnaire to seventy-five volunteer adult female offenders in the Iowa criminal justice system. The sample consisted of twenty-five women in each of the following three subgroups: probation, a community correctional facility, and the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women. The statistical analyses utilized to measure relationships was the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test and to measure differences the Analysis of Variance test was used with a least squares difference test to identify specific differences.

The Findings. The results indicated that: there was a negative relationship between level of self-esteem and dependency, androgynous female offenders reported higher levels of self-esteem than both the feminine and undifferentiated female offenders, and masculine female offenders reported higher levels of self-esteem than women in the undifferentiated classification.

There was no significant negative relationship between level of self-esteem and level of the correctional setting. There was no significant difference in level of dependency among offenders in the three subgroups or among the four categories of sex-roles.

The Recommendations. Research should be conducted on a larger sample and on a random basis. A longitudinal study should be undertaken to identify changes in the aforementioned variables as the offender progresses through the system.
# Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of Tables</th>
<th>vi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

## Chapter

1. Introduction ........................................ 1
   Questions of the Study .......................... 7
   Hypotheses ......................................... 8
   Limitations of the Study ....................... 9
   Definitions ....................................... 10

2. Review of the Literature ........................ 13
   Self-Esteem ........................................ 13
   Changes in Self-Esteem During Incarceration .. 14
   Self-Esteem as an Insulator Against
      Delinquency .................................... 22
   Low Self-Esteem in Male Offenders ............ 24
   Self-Esteem of Male vs. Female Offenders .... 26
   Low Self-Esteem in Female Offenders .......... 27
   The Treatment of Self-Esteem ................... 32
   Dependency ....................................... 35
   Psychological Concepts of Dependency ........ 39
   Dependency and Its Correlates ................. 41
   The Transition of Dependency .................. 48
   Typologies of Dependency ....................... 50
   Dependency and Female Offenders ............. 52
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment of Dependency</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex Roles</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Androgyyny</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critics of Bem's Concept of Psychological Androgyyny</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Masculine Female Offender</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Myth of the Masculine Female Offender Challenged</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Esteem and Sex Roles</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgyyny as the Key to High Self-Esteem</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculinity as the Key to Self-Esteem</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Literature Review</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Research Design and Methodology</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Design</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Null Hypotheses</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of the Sample and the Three Correctional Settings</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Population</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure for Administration of the Research</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of the Instruments Used</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of the Data</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Presentation of the Data</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Data</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null Hypotheses</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Findings by Hypothesis</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter | Page
--- | ---
5. Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations | 142
  Introduction | 142
  Summary | 143
  Purpose | 143
  Procedure | 143
  Conclusions | 144
  Recommendations | 151

Bibliography | 153

Appendices

A. Consent to Act as a Research Participant | 163
B. Texas Social Behavior Inventory | 165
C. Interpersonal Dependency Inventory | 168
D. Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire | 172
E. Data Sheet/Research on Female Offenders | 176
# Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Education of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Race of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Age of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Classification of Most Serious Offense of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Nature of Most Serious Offense of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Length of Time (in Days) Served in Present Correctional Setting of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Frequency of Juvenile Probations of Participants in Female Offender Report</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Frequency of Juvenile Training School Commitments of Participants in Female Offender Report</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Frequency of Prior Adult Probations of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Frequency of Prior Adult Prison Sentences of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Marital Status of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Number of Children of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Employment Rates of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. County of Residency Upon Commitment to Present Correctional Setting for Participants of Female Offender Study</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Sex Role Category Classification of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Levels of Self-Esteem of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Levels of Interpersonal Dependency of Participants in Female Offender Study</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. ANOVA Summary Table: Self-Esteem Scores by Sex Role Attitude Category Scores</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Least Squares Difference Test of Pairs of Groups (Self-Esteem and Sex Role Attitude Categories) Different at the .05 Level</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Sex Role Attitude Category by Self-Esteem</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. ANOVA Summary Table: Dependency Scores by Correctional Setting</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. ANOVA Summary Table: Dependency Scores by Sex Role Attitude Categories</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Female offenders account for only a very small proportion of participants at all stages in the criminal justice system. In the past, criminological and correctional research has primarily concentrated on the male offender; his personality, characteristics, and background.

Widom has offered two general reasons for the neglect of the study of female criminality:

the first concerns the nature of female offenses, and the second, the number of female offenders involved. The typically victimless nature of many female crimes (e.g., prostitution) is often cited....The second explanation for this general neglect is based on the small number of women arrested and the consequently small proportion of females in prison populations. Recently, however, there has been increased concern over the rising rate of female criminality, increased notoriety of individual criminal women, and a general feeling that women are more violent today than they used to be.¹

However, there still remains somewhat of a dearth of research dealing with the female offender. Glick and Neto, wrote that although research on the female offender has been

¹Cathy S. Widom, "Toward an Understanding of Female Criminality," Progress in Experimental Personality Research, 8 (1978), 246.
extremely limited, numerous books and articles have appeared in the last few years that present virtually the same un-substantiated impressions of both the individual offender and the programs available to her in the correctional setting.¹

Widom wrote that:

Several assumptions about female offenders appear repeatedly in the psychological and sociological literature. Characteristics traditionally seen as associated with female criminality seem to be uniformly based on assumptions about the inherent nature of women. These assumptions not only color our understanding of the female offender but influence the type of rehabilitative and treatment facilities available and planned.²

However, there seems to be an increase in interest concerning the etiology of female criminality. Why?

Many of the changes that are occurring in our society are also occurring within prison walls. Perhaps much of this interest in female offenders is due to a growing public awareness of the changing role of women in American society.

Rans noted that:

The onset of the 1970's brought notable increase in commentary on causes of female criminality, both in literature and media coverage. Literature written in the last decade on female offenders,


²Cathy S. Widom, "Female Offenders: Three Assumptions About Self-Esteem, Sex-Role Identity, and Feminism," Criminal Justice and Behavior, 6 (December 1979), 365.
especially the work of feminist researchers and lawyers, suggests that there has been a shift in the conceptualization of female criminality—from the ahistorical, sexist view to the historical, socio-economic and political view....the most recent and popularized writings suggest women are more involved in crime in the 1970's than in previous decades and are committing different, more masculine and violent crimes. Attempts have been made to link changes in women's crime to the women's movement, to increased labor market participation and to the changing identity and role status of women.¹

Leventhal conducted a study to investigate if: "...the rise in female criminality in America was a function of recent changes in women's roles and attitudes as influenced by the women's liberation movement."² A sample of twenty-five female criminals and twenty-five non-criminals were administered three personality tests: The Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Open Subordination to Women Scale, and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory masculinity and femininity scale. The findings of the study indicated that the female criminals saw themselves as less than feminine in a society that expects women to conform to their defined feminine roles. The opposite was true for the non-criminal females.

Widom noted that:

Although arrests for males outnumber those for females by five to one, women are arrested and convicted for the same crimes as men. In the past, the concentration of types of crimes for


²Gloria Leventhal, "Female Criminality: Is 'Women's Lib' to Blame?" Psychological Reports, 41 (1977), 1179.
which women were arrested and prosecuted in significant numbers was somewhat different from that of men. Offenses for which women were convicted largely concentrated in a few categories, e.g., theft, prostitution, drunkenness, disorderly conduct, and violation of narcotic laws. These patterns, however, appear to be changing. In 1975, women accounted for twenty percent of arrests for Crime Index Offenses (murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny-theft and motor vehicle theft). In the same year, seven out of every one hundred persons arrested for robbery were female. Female arrests have been increasing at a more rapid rate than male arrests. From 1960 to 1975 arrests for women increased by over 100 percent compared to a 22.8 percent increase for men....One out of every thirty people incarcerated in State and Federal institutions (approximately 3 percent) is female and there were more than 7,300 women institutionalized at the end of 1974.\footnote{Widom, "Toward an Understanding of Female Criminality," p. 247.}

By the end of 1981, the number of women in state and federal institutions doubled to 14,227. While the number of male prisoners increased by 76.8 percent from 1971 to 1981, the female prison population increased by 124.8 percent.\footnote{U.S. Department of Justice, Prisoners 1925-1981, Bulletin of the Bureau of Justice Statistics (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1982), p. 2.}

Although females represent a small fraction of criminal statistics that are reported, their numbers are growing and they appear to be representing a greater proportion of total arrests and incarcerations. Consequently, in light of today's changing society, there appears to be the need to re-evaluate the literature dealing with the female offender and
to suggest directions for future research.

The study that is reported in this dissertation was designed to analyze certain characteristics of the female offender and three assumptions about them that are commonly held by professionals in the field: that female offenders have low self-esteem, exhibit high dependency needs, and that they possess masculine sex role identities (see for example Widom, 1978, 1979, 1981, and Payak, 1961; other examples will be noted in Chapter Two).

The emphasis of this study was to assess the relationships and differences between the three variables of: self-esteem, interpersonal dependency, and psychological masculinity and femininity and to identify the different levels of each of these variables in a sample of female offenders. The second component of this study was designed to identify whether further penetration into the criminal justice system by the female offender was reflected by different levels of the aforementioned variables. In other words, did a female offender who was on probation possess higher levels of psychological masculinity or femininity and higher self-esteem, and lower levels of dependency in comparison with female offenders who were in prison? Did the female offender that served her correctional sentence in a community correctional facility (for the purposes of this study the Fort Des Moines Residential Correctional Facility) fall somewhere in between the probationer and the prison inmate?
This researcher assessed three groups of female offenders who had been convicted of the violation of a crime(s) serious enough for the Court to sentence the offender to probation, a residential non-secure correctional facility, or the reformatory. The author will present information comparing their respective scores on measures designed to assess levels of self-esteem, interpersonal dependency, and psychological masculinity and femininity (known in the literature as psychological androgyny).

The author will present information indicating how women in each of the three "correctional settings" differed in the levels of the three variables. Although length of time in the correctional setting will be reported, residents were tested regardless of their length of time in their respective correctional setting.

The importance of the study lies in the amount of importance we place on the treatment modalities utilized by criminal justice professionals. Various treatment approaches have been implemented in the attempt to "correct" the female offender. Offenders under different levels of correctional supervision may be more responsive to one type of correctional treatment rather than an alternate approach. The findings will denote potential differences occurring in three different correctional settings, offering correctional personnel more insight into the needs of offenders in their respective arenas. This may offer correctional personnel
more empirical evidence upon which to base their perceptions of the female offender.

The findings will also indicate potential support or lack thereof for three commonly held assumptions about female offenders: that they have low self-esteem, high interpersonal dependency, and masculine personality characteristics. If support is not offered for these assumptions, then it could offer information for the public at large in addition to those working with female offenders. There has been little empirical research conducted upon female offenders dealing with the aforementioned variables. In order to offer female offenders quality treatment, assumptions and commonly held beliefs such as the three discussed in this study, should either be supported empirically or eradicated from the belief systems of criminal justice professionals and the community in general.

Questions of the Study

The following five questions are posed by the researcher for the present study.

1. What is the relationship between levels of self-esteem and dependency in female offenders?

2. What are the differences between levels of self-esteem and psychological androgyny, masculinity and femininity in female offenders?

3. How are the levels of dependency different in the three settings?

4. How are the levels of self-esteem correlated with the level of restriction of the correctional sentence in female offenders?
5. What are the differences between levels of dependency and psychological androgyny, masculinity, and femininity in female offenders?

**Hypotheses**

The following ten hypotheses have been adopted for this research. The first hypothesis addresses the two personality characteristics of self-esteem and dependency.

1. Among female offenders there is a negative relationship between levels of self-esteem and dependency.

Hypotheses two through seven address the differences between the levels of self-esteem and four categories (androgyny, masculinity, femininity, and undifferentiated) utilized in discussing the concept of sex role attitudes.

2. "Androgynous" female offenders have higher levels of self-esteem than "masculine" female offenders.

3. "Androgynous" female offenders have higher levels of self-esteem than "feminine" female offenders.

4. "Androgynous" female offenders have higher levels of self-esteem than "undifferentiated" female offenders.

5. "Masculine" female offenders have higher levels of self-esteem than "feminine" female offenders.

6. "Masculine" female offenders have higher levels of self-esteem than "undifferentiated" female offenders.

7. "Feminine" female offenders have higher levels of self-esteem than "undifferentiated" female offenders.

Hypothesis eight addresses the potential differences in levels of dependency in the three correctional settings.

8. The level of dependency differs among female offenders in the three correctional settings.
Hypothesis nine addresses the characteristic of self-esteem and how it may differ in members of the three sub-groups comprising the total sample of the study.

9. There is an inverse relationship between the level of self-esteem of the female offender and the level of restriction of the correctional setting.

The final hypothesis addresses differences in dependency levels among the different sex role categories.

10. The level of dependency of female offenders differs among the four levels of psychological sex role attitude stereotypes: androgyny, masculinity, femininity, and undifferentiated.

**Limitations of the Study**

The following three points are offered to the reader with the understanding that the present research is limited in scope.

1. This study did not address how levels of self-esteem, dependency, and psychological masculinity and femininity changed as the same offender progressed through the different stages of the criminal justice system. This research assessed levels of the three variables that exist while they were in their respective settings.

2. The findings of the study were somewhat limited in that they only dealt with female offenders in one probation department (Polk County, Iowa), one community correctional facility (The Fort Des Moines Residential Correctional Facility), and one women's reformatory (The Iowa Correctional Institution for Women). The reader should understand that
inferences to other correctional settings may be limited in that varying approaches to the "correction" of the female offender exist in different settings.

3. The study did not address the causality of female criminality. The information presented in this dissertation dealt with women after they had been identified by the criminal justice system and after they had been sentenced to a particular correctional setting. Because of this limitation one might want to argue that the findings could be affected by the level of criminal sentence instead of a causal factor in explaining a woman's criminality.

Definitions

The following definitions have been stated to offer the reader additional information in order to understand the material presented in this research project.

1. Female offender—an adult woman convicted of either an aggravated misdemeanor or a felony and sentenced by the Court.

2. Probation—an alternative to sentencing an offender to the reformatory, allowing the offender to stay within her own community to fulfill the sentence imposed by the Court.

3. Community Based Residential Correctional Facility—an alternative sentence used by the Court which is more severe than probation but less severe than prison. The offender's sentence allows her to work in the community and to reside
at the minimum security facility rather than in her home in the community.

4. Reformatory--an institution designed as the most restrictive and severe sanction available for the Court to sentencing of female offenders by the Court. It restricts the offender from staying within her own community as probation or a community correctional facility sentence would allow.

5. Self-esteem--

a person's characteristic evaluation of herself and what she thinks of herself as an individual; low self-esteem is characterized by a sense of personal inadequacy and an inability to achieve need satisfaction in the past; high self-esteem is defined by a sense of personal adequacy and a sense of having achieved need satisfaction in the past.¹

For the purpose of this study, this personality construct will be measured by the Texas Social Behavior Inventory.

6. Dependency--"refers to a complex of thoughts, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors revolving around needs to associate closely with valued other people."² For the purpose of this study, the personality construct of dependency will be measured by the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory.


7. Psychological masculinity—possession of personality traits judged to be more characteristic of males than females and socially desirable to some degree in both sexes. Masculinity will be referred to as instrumental or agentic for the purposes of this study as well. For the purpose of this study, psychological androgyny, masculinity, and femininity will be measured by the Extended-Personality Attributes Questionnaire.

8. Psychological femininity—possession of personality traits judged to be more characteristic of females and to some degree socially desirable for both sexes. Femininity will be referred to as expressive and communal for the purposes of this study as well.

9. Psychological androgyny—the possession of positive attributes of both the stereotypical masculine and feminine personality.
CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

A review of the literature related to female offenders and information about self-esteem, dependency, and sex roles will be presented in the following manner:

1. Self-esteem as a personality characteristic will be discussed. Psychological studies dealing with self-esteem in both offender and non-offender studies will be presented.

2. A review of the concept of dependency will be presented citing studies dealing with both non-offenders as well as offenders.

3. A review of the literature dealing with psychological masculinity, femininity, and androgyny will be presented citing relevant studies on offenders and also presenting general studies on non-offender samples.

4. Studies that have been conducted on self-esteem and its correlation to sex roles will also be presented.

**Self-Esteem**

There is a vast amount of literature dealing with the area of self-esteem, although there has been very little empirical research on the self-esteem of the female offender.

The first assumption to be discussed in the literature
review is that the female offender suffers from low self-esteem. This assumption appears to be widely held by professionals in the criminal justice system as well as by some theorists.

Changes in Self-Esteem During Incarceration

This subsection of the literature review will present studies that suggest there are changes in the self-esteem of offenders during incarceration. Different theorists suggest changes in different directions as the reader will see, with many suggesting that incarceration is damaging to the offender. Bennett, Sorensen and Forshay wrote that:

Most clinicians working in the correctional setting would agree that self-esteem is a crucial aspect of the personality of the offender, sometimes playing an important role in his being involved in unlawful behavior, often being markedly modified by incarceration and possibly related to failure on parole following institutionalization.\(^1\)

Self-esteem and its correlates have been studied by many writers and researchers but its relation to offenders, and specifically female offenders has not been studied extensively.

Gianelli includes two closely related factors (internal inhibition and potential satisfaction) among the six seen as basic to his "criminosynthesis theory." Since his theory is unsupported by systematic data, his views can be used only to support the concept that self-regard is an important

\(^{1}\)Bennett, Sorensen and Forshay, p. 1.
element in the personality configuration of those involved in delinquent behavior.¹

In one study, self-esteem was measured just prior to the release of prison inmates and just after their release and found that significant changes had taken place. The author (Himelson) interpreted this finding by stating that inmates used other inmates as a comparison base during incarceration, resulting in moderate to high self-regard. Upon leaving the confines of prison, they found themselves in competition with free society which is quite a different reference group than inmates in prison.²

In 1971, a study was conducted in California on 337 newly admitted inmates. The Self-Esteem Inventory was administered to the inmates. The results indicated that there was a wide variety of scores suggesting that attitudes toward self varied considerably among the newly admitted inmates.³

Wheeler studied how self-esteem changed during the time of the inmates incarceration. He hypothesized that there would be an inverted "U"-shaped distribution of self-esteem over phases of incarceration. It was suggested that


²A. Himelson, "Inmates Attitudes and Their Relationship to Risk Groups," California Department of Corrections, 2 (April 1962), cited by Bennett, Sorensen, and Forshay, p. 6.

³Bennett, Sorensen, and Forshay, p. 6.
the individual entering the correctional system tended to internalize the rejection implicit in his status and to feel the brunt of his rejection by society. This process would lead to lower self-esteem and hence rejection of self. Wheeler further hypothesized that following the initial period of adjustment, the inmate would change his views away from rejection of self (social conformity) and toward the value system of fellow inmates.\(^1\) The inmate, as he adapted to incarceration would adapt to his new reference group and build his self-esteem through his relationship with his new peers. He no longer would be a member of free society and be exposed to the rejection of the community. This maneuver restores self-esteem because the inmate is participating in a system that allows him to reject his rejectors rather than himself.\(^2\)

As the time of release approaches, then the subjects shift from a comparison of himself with other inmates toward evaluating himself in terms of how he anticipates the competition he will be faced with in the free community. Consequently, his self-esteem declines over again leading to the conclusion of the inverted "U"-shaped distribution.


There has been rejection of Wheeler's hypothesis and findings in the literature. Atchley and McCabe hypothesized that the harmful impact of prison on post release adjustment was the result of lowered self-esteem, rather than of prison socialization. Their findings contradicted their hypothesis, however, indicating that there was no evidence found supporting Wheeler's hypothesis because there was no systematic pattern of alteration in self-esteem during various stages of incarceration. Atchley and McCabe attribute their findings of rejection of Wheeler's premises to the complexity of the variables involved. Using a longitudinal, multivariate design would be necessary in order to test adequately the theory of changes in self-esteem during incarceration.¹

A significant study by Bennett in 1974 also rejected Wheeler's findings. This study attempted to describe changes in measured self-esteem over various phases of incarceration. Bennett's sample included 124 inmates entering the Reception Guidance Center at the California Medical Facility (at Vacaville) during the period of November to December, 1968. Inmates were administered the Self-Attitudinal Inventory. In an attempt to study how self-esteem scores change over time in the institutional setting, intake testing was compared to scores obtained in later periods. When the scores

at six months and after twelve months were compared, the difference was so small that it was not found to be statistically significant. For those who left the institution by either parole or discharge, the differences between intake and exit test scores were significantly different, with the higher mean scores at the time of exit. While a segment of Bennett's sample displayed the inverted "U" distribution of self-esteem scores over the phases of incarceration, more inmates showed a fairly steady upward trend over the three segments of their prison stay.¹ Still others seemed to decrease in self-esteem over time or to drop during the midportion of their incarceration, thus supporting Atchley and McCabe's finding that there are no consistent patterns of change in self-esteem.²

This large increase of scores over time suggested that there were aspects of incarceration that may help support the self-esteem of inmates. However, Bennett did indicate that there were no general negative shifts in self-esteem scores during the later segments of incarceration.³

In a doctoral dissertation by Dyong, the impact of


²Atchley and McCabe, pp. 774-85.

³Bennett, p. 15.
criminal punishment upon the attitude of inmates was studied. He hypothesized that incarceration tended to damage the inmate's self-esteem. He further hypothesized that

an inmate's tendency to have a negative attitude toward legal institutions may be functional in protecting his self-esteem, and the goal of protecting self-esteem by rejecting the rejectors can most effectively be achieved by joining the inmate subsociety.¹

He collected data from 254 prisoners at the Indiana State Reformatory. Dyong's following hypotheses were supported: (1) the higher the degree of commitment to the inmate subculture, the more positive an inmate's self-esteem, and (2) the direction of change in an inmate's self-esteem will be opposite to that of his attitude toward legal institutions.

Clemmer wrote that

the effect of institutionalization was distinctly harmful to the rehabilitation of the inmate as the inmate assumed the customs and mores of the inmate/prison society. Clemmer noted that the result of this assimilation of criminal mores was the internalization of a criminal self-concept.²

In a classic study by Sykes it was contended that "the personality of the inmate and his sense of worth are eventually destroyed due to the effects of his being institutionalized


in a prison society."¹

Sarbin contended that "as a result of the desocialization process that occurs in prisons, the inmate essentially becomes defined as a non-person," thus leading to a low self-concept.²

Culbertson hypothesized that "the self-concept of the inmate would decrease with the increase of time incarcerated and that the decrease would be linear in direction."³ Culbertson utilized the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale in his study of 236 boys in the Indiana Boy's School. His results offered tentative support for his hypothesis that "incarceration in an institution has a negative impact on the self-concepts of those delinquents, at least for those who had not been incarcerated of previous sentences."⁴ He further found that there was an increase in self-esteem for those boys who had been incarcerated previously. He contended that this may have indicated that the boys had begun to internalize the value structure of the delinquent.


³Culbertson, p. 89.

⁴Culbertson, p. 92.
In an important study by Gendreau, Grant and Leipciger changes in self-esteem during incarceration were studied.\(^1\) Levels of self-esteem were measured shortly after entry into prison and measured again prior to release. Results of the research confirmed the assumption that the assessment and treatment of self-esteem in correctional settings is important because the variable is related to post-prison adjustment. The aforementioned authors found that self-esteem measurement prior to release was the best predictor of recidivism (the higher the self-esteem, the lower the recidivism).

In his doctoral dissertation, Dussich studied the relationship between inmate self-esteem and imputations from correctional counselors in eleven different work release centers.\(^2\) He reported that positive imputations by staff counselors had a positive influence on inmate self-esteem.

A relevant study by Bennett that dealt with self-esteem and parole adjustment offered considerable insight into this personality characteristic of self-esteem.\(^3\) His research

\(^1\)Paul Gendreau, Brian Grant, and Mary Leipciger, "Self-Esteem, Incarceration and Recidivism," Criminal Justice and Behavior, 6, No. 1 (March 1979), 67-75.


\(^3\)Lawrence A. Bennett, "Self-Esteem and Parole Adjustment," Criminology, 12 (November 1974), 346-60.
question dealt with the issue of the effect of positive self-esteem on successful post-release adjustment. He studied all inmates being released from a maximum security prison over a period of eleven months (N=114).

The range in time served was from two months to over fourteen years, with a median for the group of two years and nine months. Parole outcome at six months, one year, and two years was recorded for each of the subjects in the study sample. ¹

The correlation between self-esteem and parole outcome at six months was low but positive and statistically significant (r=.22, p<.05). However, the relationship between self-esteem and parole outcome did not hold for the one and two year follow up phases. Subsequently, the hypothesis was partially supported by his findings. ²

One possibility for this finding that was offered was inmates may have failed to shift their ideas of comparison from fellow inmates to citizens of the free society until after their release from prison.

**Self-Esteem as an Insulator Against Delinquency**

The articles in this subsection will address the thought that self-esteem may act as an insulator against delinquency. In a classic study by Reckless, Dinitz, and Murray, adolescent boys living in high delinquency areas of

¹Bennett, p. 351.

²Bennett, p. 353.
Columbus, Ohio, were studied.\footnote{Walter C. Reckless, Simon Dinitz and Ellen Murray, "Self-Concept as an Insulator Against Delinquency," \textit{American Sociological Review}, 21 (1956), 744-46.} It was found that presence of a socially acceptable concept of self may act as an insulator against delinquency. Reckless, Dinitz, and Kay further studied the concept of self-concept being an insulator against delinquency.

As a result of this research it was suggested that insulation against delinquency appears to be a function of the acquisition and maintenance of a socially acceptable or appropriate self-concept. The authors also contended that if appropriately good concepts of self and others, as manifested by young persons, might insulate against delinquency, adverse concepts of self and others might set the trend toward delinquency.\footnote{Walter C. Reckless, Simon Dinitz and Barbara Kay, "The Self-Component in Potential Delinquency and Potential Non-Delinquency," \textit{American Sociological Review}, 22 (1957), 566.}

Reckless suggested that there was support for the thesis that self-esteem may be an underlying component in delinquency and non-delinquency conduct. He also purported that one of the chief distinctions between persons who will and will not experience difficulty with the law in their formative and later years is the extent to which a socially acceptable self-image has been developed.\footnote{Reckless, Dinitz and Kay, p. 569.}

Reckless, however, is not without his critics. Tangri and Schwartz suggested that
while the studies by Reckless and his colleagues are of crucial importance to the delinquency literature, it also possesses problems of sampling, measurement, and interpretation as well as a lack of theoretical orientation which places very severe restrictions on the predictive utility of the self-concept variable. They further suggest that although there is a higher probability of the utility of the variable of self-concept, more refined and sophisticated studies of the concept are necessary.¹

Low Self-Esteem in Male Offenders

The following citations deal with the issue of whether or not self-esteem is lower in male offenders than in non-offender samples. A study that compared

two prison groups made up of newly admitted prisoners and maximum security prisoners, and two non-prison groups made up of psychology students from the University of Montana and rural church members dealing with the characteristic of self-concept was conducted by Fichtler, Zimmerman, and Moore.²

The concept of self-esteem, for the purpose of this study, was defined as the discrepancy between scores on the actual-self and ideal-self measures. The greater the discrepancy, the lower the self-esteem. The findings of the study indicated that the maximum security prisoners possessed the lowest self-esteem and the rural church members the highest. The other two groups fell somewhere in between. The study also reported a positive correlation between self-esteem and the length of time served in prison (the greater the time in prison, the lower the self-esteem).³


³Fichtler, Zimmerman, and Moore, p. 39.
Dietz conducted a study comparing levels of self-esteem of eighty-six delinquent and sixty-four non-delinquent males.¹ He predicted that the delinquent males would have lower self-concepts than the non-delinquent males. His hypothesis was rejected. His findings indicated the experimental group consisting of the delinquent boys did not have significantly lower levels of self-esteem than the control group of non-delinquent boys. Dietz suggested that "this could mean that in terms of self-esteem, the behavioral dichotomy of delinquency/non-delinquency is either unrealistic or possibly that other sources of explanation exist."²

In a study conducted in India by Sinha and Singh, 100 criminals (experimental group) in the Bhagalpur Central Jail and 100 non-criminals (control group) were administered a self-esteem test. The findings indicated that the criminals had lower self-esteem scores than the non-criminals. Sinha and Singh reported that the criminals tended to view themselves in a more unfavorable light. They also reported that

...lower self-esteem and social esteem are indicative of a lack of self-regard and a self-repudiative attitude on the part of the criminal....the criminals underevaluation of themselves, lower self-esteem, and poor self-imagery are revealed by their high scores on the undesirable traits of the test under


²Dietz, p. 291.
both private and social frames of reference.¹

A study conducted by Gendreau, Gibson, Surridge and Hug dealt with the variable of self-esteem in both male inmates and college students.² In this study the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) was administered to eighty-two male inmates in the Guelph Correctional Centre in Canada. The SEI was also administered to first-year college students at Trent University in Ontario. The college students produced an almost identical mean and distribution of scores on the SEI compared to the inmates in the present study.³

Self-Esteem of Male vs. Female Offenders

The article cited in this subsection addresses the issue of self-esteem levels in male and female offenders. A study by Singh compared the self-concepts of female and male criminals.⁴ The author developed tests to measure subjective self-concepts (what I think of myself), objective self-concept (what others think of me), and social conflict index (a


³Gendreau et al., pp. 423-25.

discrepancy between the subjective and objective self-concepts). He studied 100 male and eighty-two female offenders. His findings indicated that

the female offender had lower subjective and objective self-concepts as compared to the criminal male. The scores measured by the social conflict index indicated higher scores for the female offenders than the male offenders.¹

The author suggested that

females are usually expected to be less aggressive, destructive, delinquent and defiant and more cultured, responsible, tolerant, law-abiding, and having higher regard for the rights and welfare of others. Therefore when a female finds herself in the midst of socially disapproved roles (i.e., criminal) she not only begins to hold a low opinion of herself but also begins to believe that society perceives her in an unfavorable light.²

Low Self-Esteem in Female Offenders

The following citations deal with the assumption that female offenders suffer from low self-esteem. Studies supporting and not supporting this hypothesis are cited. The assumption that female offenders suffer from low self-esteem continues to be perpetuated in the correctional field, although there is little empirical evidence to support this notion. Bertha Payak stated that:

Despite whatever behavior may be displayed, be it a veneer of boldness or an "I don't give a damn" attitude, the female offender is well aware of society's reaction to her behavior and, consequently, the factor of guilt is almost universally

¹Singh, p. 101.

²Singh, p. 105.
present. They know they have failed in the past, and they are fearful of the future. Those of us who have studied her behavior confirm her hopelessness, her unhappiness, and her loneliness.¹

Payak goes on to state: "By the time the correctional workers come into contact with a female offender, she has developed a very poor self-concept."²

A study conducted by Cassell and VanVorst dealt with what inmate women and juvenile girls determined to be psychological needs of institutionalized females.³ They reported in their study that the most numerous and severe problems related to an offender's self-adjustment were concerns over issues including: self-acceptance, self-understanding, and self-realization.

Bertrand noted that female delinquents tended to perceive themselves as objects and that long-term incarceration may affect self-esteem in a negative manner.⁴

Arnold studied the socio-structural determinants of self-esteem and the relationship between self-esteem and


²Payak, p. 10.


criminal behavior patterns of incarcerated black women for the purpose of her dissertation research. She contended that respondents who perceived themselves as criminal and bad seemed to identify to a greater degree with the criminal subculture and scored high on self-esteem scales, whereas respondents who perceived themselves as non-criminal and good seemed to identify less with the criminal subculture and scored low on self-esteem.\textsuperscript{1} She further reported that respondents whose background experiences revealed more negative familial and school experiences, identification with peers and problems of drug addiction were the same subjects who experienced early and persistent confrontation with agencies of social control (police, the courts, etc.). They were also the subjects who received shorter sentences for less serious crimes, were imprisoned often, perceived themselves as criminals and bad, and scored high on self-esteem. The converse was also revealed. She concluded that there is an inverse relationship between family background experiences and self-esteem among black females which she accounted for via reference group theory. She concluded finally that there is a direct and positive relationship between self-esteem and the extent of identification with a criminal identity and engulfment in a criminal role.\textsuperscript{2}


\textsuperscript{2} Arnold, p. 5603.
Widom, in a paper presented to the 13th Cropwood Conference on Women and Crime at the Institute of Criminology, University of Cambridge, England, in December of 1980, stated that:

More recently, in "Women Inside," a generally excellent contemporary film, Bill Moyers interviewed inmates and staff at the very new Dade County (Miami, Florida) Correctional Facility. One of those interviewed was the warden, Pam Davis, who generally held "enlightened views regarding incarceration and rehabilitation." However, even Davis persists in the view that female offenders suffer from a poor self-concept and somehow this is thought to be fundamental in explaining female criminality.\(^1\)

As there were a number of studies indicating that female offenders suffer from low self-esteem, there were also studies identified indicating the opposite was true.

Epstein, in a relatively early study, compared the self-images of a sample of female delinquents and a sample of female non-delinquents. Her hypothesis was that there would be a lower mean score in self-esteem of delinquent girls than non-delinquent girls.\(^2\) She suggested that the delinquent girl would see herself as lonely and isolated and that her self descriptions would also reflect highly negative perceptions of self. She further suggested that the delinquent


female would express feelings of rejection unconsciously based upon unresolved oedipal feelings. Her findings, however, were contrary to her expectations. There were no significant differences found between the delinquent and control groups. She reported that there were impressive similarities between the groups.¹

Preliminary findings from a recent unpublished study by Brodsky suggested that female criminals may not have low self-esteem or see themselves in as negative a light as many have generally assumed.²

Perhaps the most important study in relation to the research that serves as a focus of this dissertation was conducted by Widom.³ In her research she studied seventy-three women awaiting trial in a Massachusetts jail. Her control group consisted of women who were mothers of children in a child care center in Boston. She found that despite age and educational differences there was a remarkable similarity between the offender and non-offender women. The results did not support her assumption regarding low self-esteem

¹Epstein, pp. 220-34.


³Widom, "Female Offenders," pp. 365-82.
in female offenders. She contended that her findings did not support the notion that low self-esteem is a major factor in female criminality.

In a subsequent paper, Widom contended that most studies, with the possible exception of her own, generally suffer from the limitation that they have studied self-esteem after the women have been involved in the criminal justice system, and usually after long periods of said involvement. She further contended that it could be argued that any findings regarding self-esteem may be the result of the offenders incarceration and being labeled rather than a cause of the criminality.

The Treatment of Self-Esteem

The citations in this final subsection of the literature review dealing with self-esteem and offenders addresses the issue of the treatment of self-esteem.

In his doctoral dissertation, Street studied the changes in self-esteem, dependency, and depression as a result of participation in a self-esteem building workshop. He did not study an offender population but his research is worthy

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1 Widom, "Female Offenders," pp. 365-82.

2 Widom, "Perspectives on Female Criminality," p. 3.

of report in this paper due to the relevance of the treatment of self-esteem and dependency in women. He suggested that

self-esteem is a relatively enduring feeling that one has about himself that has developed over a lifetime of experiences and that although it is subject to interim fluctuations, self-esteem is probably not significantly changed in a short period of time.¹

He found a positive correlation between high dependency and low self-esteem which offers support for subsequent hypotheses of this researcher, however his lack of quantifiable evidence that treatment of self-esteem is not successful is worthy of taking note.

A study by Loeffler and Fiedler reported a different finding. They designed, implemented and evaluated an intervention focusing on increased self-esteem and decreased dependency in non-offender women.² They reported success in elevating levels of self-esteem and decreasing levels of dependency through their intervention program.

In a non-empirical report, Seiber reported on a course in self-esteem implemented in a male correctional institution. He contended that

in prison, the problem of low self-esteem is most acute and that inmates enter prison with little self-esteem or individual pride and what

¹Street, p. 1419.

they might retain from the street is stripped away from them by the regimentation of incarceration and the daily psychological degradations that are a way of life in prison.¹

He further suggested that inmates were faced with a completely negative system with few inducements for self-improvement. The remainder of his paper outlined a program that he designed (teaching a course on electricity to a number of inmates) which led to higher levels of self-reported self-esteem.

The possibility that levels of self-esteem can be elevated through therapeutic intervention was studied by Sandhu.² He found that reformatory inmates in India made statistically significant shifts on a self-image questionnaire, after a series of specially designed therapy sessions.

The discussion of the role of self-esteem with offenders may shed some light on the wide variety of approaches that have been taken in dealing with this personality characteristic. The writer reported research dealing with: changes of levels of self-esteem in inmates, studies reflecting low self-esteem in male offenders, comparison studies of self-esteem in female and male offenders, low self-esteem in female offenders, lack of evidence for the assumption of low


²H. S. Sandhu, "Group Sessions in a Reformatory School in the Punjab (India)," Corrective Psychiatry and Journal of Social Therapy, 12 (1966), 393-403.

The assumption of low self-esteem of female offenders needs to be scrutinized and either empirically supported or rejected. As this report of the literature indicated, there were no absolute findings on this issue, it was simply open to debate.

Dependency

The personality characteristic of dependency has received little attention in the study of female offenders, however, the assumption that female offenders exhibited high dependency needs appeared to be held by many professionals in the criminal justice system.

The variable of dependency has been studied from many different perspectives. Judith Bardwick wrote:

What is dependency? In the beginning it is the normal infant's way of relating to people. Later, in children and in adults, it seems to be a way of coping with stress, a reaction to frustration, or a protection against future frustration. It can be affectional—the grasping and forcing of affectionate or protective behavior from someone else, especially from an adult. Dependency behavior can also be a coping behavior—one gets help in order to solve a problem that he cannot solve himself. It can also be aggressive by grabbing attention or affection for oneself so that someone else is prevented from receiving it. In all cases, dependency means a lack of independence. Dependency is leaning on someone else to supply support.1

Levinson stated:

the dependent person is overwhelmed by feelings of resignation, helplessness, hostile pessimism, physical sickness for which doctors can find no organic base, passivity, and inability to mobilize the self to take necessary action or responsibility. These feelings come to dominate the quality of the dependent person's relationships.¹

The characteristic of dependency has become the topic of many authors as the issue of sex roles was confronted.

Colette Dowling wrote:

It has to do with dependency: the need to lean on someone, the need, going back to infancy, to be nurtured and cared for and kept from harm's way. Those needs stay with us into adulthood, clamoring for fulfillment right alongside our need to be self-sufficient. Up to a point, dependency needs are quite normal, for men as well as for women. But women, as we shall see, have been encouraged since they were children to be dependent to an unhealthy degree. Any woman who looks within knows that she was never trained to feel comfortable with the idea of taking care of herself, standing up for herself, asserting herself.²

Dowling continued by stating "It is not nature that bestows this self-sufficiency on man; it's training. Men are educated for independence from the day they are born."³

In a study conducted at the University of Michigan, Lois Wladis Hoffman found dependency training begins very early in the life of the girl. Female babies are handled


²Dowling, p. 15.

³Dowling, p. 16.
less frequently and less vigorously than boys.¹

Studying adolescents at the University of Michigan, psychologist Elizabeth Douvan found that up until the age of eighteen (and sometimes past that) girls show virtually no thrust toward independence. She also wrote that girls aren't interested in confronting authority with rebellion and that they don't insist on their rights to form and hold independent beliefs and controls.²

Franks and Burtle contended: "Woman's biggest problem is overcoming dependency...Women and men both must be able to integrate the dependent and independent sides of themselves."³

Hoffman discussed the issue of dependency by stating:

Since the little girl has less encouragement for independence, more parental protectiveness, cognitive and social pressure for establishing an identity separate from the mother and less mother-child conflict which highlights this separation, she engages in less independent exploration of her environment. She continues to be dependent upon adults for solving her problems and needs her affectionate ties with adults.⁴


⁴Hoffman, p. 142.
Sears spoke of dependency as one of the most significant, enduring, and pervasive qualities of human behavior. From birth to old age it influences the form of all dyadic relationships.¹

Scarf stated that:

the greater dependency shown by girls and women is not merely due to the powerful acculturating forces that move them in this direction. These may be inborn biological tendencies that come into play, as well. But in any event, the lack of an inner impulsion to break away from the dependent relations of early childhood--and the manifest assumption on everyone's part that she will not do so--fosters a situation in which the girl (and later, woman) gives her highest priorities to pleasing others, to being attractive to others, to being cared for and caring for others.²

As the aforementioned literature reveals, there has been an emphasis on the origin of dependency. Salwen discussed the consequences of non-dependency in women. She related that "a consequence of the new emphasis on non-dependency within a love relationship is that some decisions which were once easy to make are now laborious and conflicted."³ Women are bringing to relationships a new ethic of non-dependency

¹Robert Sears, "Relation of Early Socialization Experiences to Self-Concepts and Gender Role in Middle Childhood," Child Development, 1963, 266-89.


upon a male and a determination for each individual to maintain his or her own separate spheres.

Psychological Concepts of Dependency

The following subsection offers the reader various psychological perspectives of dependency. Prior to the new wave of literature on changing sex roles and the issue of dependency in women as has been presented earlier, there were more traditional discussions and studies on the issue of dependency.

Freud, in his psychoanalytic studies, emphasized the attainment of instinctual aims through interaction with social objects such as the mother.¹

Erickson made an important contribution toward the understanding of the development of dependency by placing Freud's psychosexual developmental stages in a social context. His research indicated that

if parents do not allow autonomy to develop through the child's mastery of his sphincter and other muscular movements, the ensuing shame can cause doubt, feelings of inadequacy, and subsequent reluctance to undertake new and independent behavior.²


Social learning theorists have also contributed to the study of dependency. Dollard and Miller considered "dependency to be a learned drive, that is, one acquired in experience rather than being instinctual in the organism." 

Attachment theory, such as Bowlby's, spoke of affectional bonds between one and another manifesting itself in dependent behavior. 

Scott studied dependency behavior in animals. His experiment consisted of separating infant dogs from their mothers and studying the motivational and emotional aspects of the separation. 

Harlow's classic studies with primates dealt with infant monkeys. In the Harlow experiments, artificial and inanimate mother substitutes were placed in cages with infant monkeys. One substitute was made out of a block of wood padded with a layer of sponge rubber covered by terry cloth. A second, made of wire mesh, was designed to provide as little comfort as possible. Both were warmed by radiant heating, and each provided the same postural support for feeding. The

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experiment was conducted to see which of these two substitute mothers the infants built their dependency needs on for cuddling and warmth. The findings indicated the infants were more attracted to the soft and cuddly mother.¹

Mower attempted to:

explain dependency in terms of the combination of the individual's reactions to the dependency drive. Since people experience both positive and negative reinforcements to the dependency drive, they are likely to experience two different feelings: both hope for a favorable response to his drive and fear of an unfavorable response. The conflict between these two expectations tends to mediate the intensity of the drive and influences the occurrence of the response. As a result, dependency responses are less likely to occur.²

Dependency and Its Correlates

There has been a significant amount of study on dependency and other variables. Spolter studied dependency and alcoholic recidivism. He administered the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS), which contains a number of need scales, to 104 male alcoholics in Veteran's Administration program. At six months after discharge, seventy-three of these patients had not returned for treatment and thirty-one had. Those that returned within six months had significantly


higher dependency factor scores on the EPPS.\textsuperscript{1} Booth also studied alcoholism and the dependent person. The purpose of his study was to investigate the proposal that alcoholics are motivated to seek and maintain a dependency status and to avoid or negate success at self-reliance. It was predicted that when alcoholic males were presented with an experimental task defined so that it reflected explicitly upon their ability to be self-reliant, they would demonstrate an enduring motivation to fail.\textsuperscript{2}

The subjects in this study were twenty alcoholic and twenty non-alcoholic persons who voluntarily applied for outpatient treatment at a community mental health center. All subjects were adult white males. Booth found that the alcoholic patients consistently sought failure and avoided success with regard to self-reliance. The non-alcoholic subjects consistently sought success.

Bandura and Walters studied the association between dependency and anxiety. They reported that:

dependency becomes a secondary drive: the presence of parents at times of reinforcement of primary drives makes parental attention a secondary reinforcement. When this secondary drive becomes frustrated due to punishment, the dependency drive becomes more intense and an


aggressive drive will result. As the child learns to anticipate non-reinforcement of the dependency drive, dependent behavior becomes associated with anxiety.  

Sullivan also studied anxiety and dependency. Sullivan wrote:

dependency is a learned neurotic response to fear of the prospect of lessening the need for dependency and increasing independence. Fear of punishment for becoming independent makes a person quite reticent to exhibit independent behavior, consequently anxiety sets in.  

Another study that dealt with dependency and anxiety was conducted by Bordin who wrote that the significance of dependency as an issue in psychotherapeutic relationships require theoretical clarification. He dealt with two forms of expression of anxiety: "overt dependence and counter dependence."  

The overtly dependent response is fostered by parental patterns of initial withholding of commitment followed by over-commitment, whereas the counter-dependent response is fostered by a continually limited commitment...that in the initial phases of therapy, high therapeutic commitment facilitates therapeutic work of overtly dependent patients and interferes with the work of counter-dependent patients.  

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1A. Bandura and R. Walters, Adolescent Aggression (New York: Ronald Press, 1959), cited in Goldin et al., p. 4.


4Bordin, p. 339.
Depression and dependency have also been studied. Blatt studied dependency and self-criticism, which according to the author are both psychological dimensions of depression. His study attempted to establish differentiations among types of depression, not through the signs or symptoms of depression, but through the subjective experiences of depression. Two independent types of experiences of depression have been identified among normals—dependency and self-criticism.

The study utilized the Depressive Experiences Questionnaire. The findings indicated that there were consistent and statistically significant differences among patients as a function of whether their experiences of depression focused primarily on issues of dependency and/or self-criticism or an absence of these issues. Judges using independently written clinical case records were able to differentiate patients who were high on dependency or self-criticism, on both, or on neither of these dimensions.

Bonime also discussed the issue of dependency and depression. He suggested that instead of using the term "dependency" the term "pathological demand" be used. He

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suggested that although dependent behavior appears to be passive it is to the contrary quite active. The dependent personality is not looking for affection but instead for attention. When the depressive is given attention and gratification is met, then he succeeds in getting a response. Thus the depressive must force others to act with affection or help toward him rather than allow them to help. When these demands or expectations are not met, then the dependent and depressive personality may experience depressive episodes.

The issue of conformity and dependency has also been studied. Spiegel and Litrownik proposed that:

conformity behavior cannot be predicted upon the basis of broad personality groupings (e.g., normals, schizophrenics, etc.) but rather that conformity will vary as a function of the dependency and self-assertiveness of the individual group members. The Spiegel Personality Inventory was administered to seventy-six hospitalized male schizophrenics from which two groups of eight subjects were selected for comparison in modified ASCH-type conformity situations. Low dependent-high assertive patients were found to be significantly less conforming; thus, the importance of these factors relative to diagnostic classification was demonstrated.1

Levy administered the EPPS, the Social Anxiety Scale, and the Social Desirability Scale. Subjects were then placed in individual booths and given multiple-choice problems to solve as in the standard Crutchfield conformity situation.

Results indicated that those scoring higher on the nurturance and affiliation scales on the EPPS conformed significantly more to social pressure than subjects scoring lower.\textsuperscript{1}

Hirsh and Singer:

administered to a group of chronic rebellious and to a group of non-rebellious adolescent females a series of situations involving conflict between teenagers and authority figures. The participants in the study were instructed to indicate who was in the right and who was in the wrong or to withhold judgment. The findings reflected that the non-rebellious group tended to side with authorities while the rebellious group tended to side with the adolescents.\textsuperscript{2}

Kagan and Mussen studied dependency themes using the TAT and group conformity scales. This research was designed to test the hypothesis that there is a positive association between TAT dependency themes and the tendency to adopt objectively inaccurate group judgments in a situation where there is a strong social pressure favoring conformity. Twenty-seven male undergraduate students wrote stories to eight TAT cards and then were individually observed in the ASCH conformity situation. The subjects who produced TAT themes in which the hero sought help in a problem situation or was portrayed as disturbed over loss of sources of love and support yielded to the incorrect majority more frequently


than those subjects not writing those types of stories.\footnote{1}

Zuckerman studied dependency from a different perspective by utilizing peer ratings. The subjects consisted of sixty-three student nurses who were classified as rebellious, submissive, conforming or dependent (the latter three groups comprised the general class of dependents). Zuckerman combined the scores on three scales of the EPPS (deference, succorance, and abasement) and found that rebellious nurses scored significantly lower than did the dependent nurses.\footnote{2}

The issue of the transference of dependency from one object or subject to another has also been studied. Eisenberg wrote that as the child attempts to gain independence from the family, the adolescent tends to identify strongly with and obtain need satisfaction through his peer group. As he makes this transition, conflict ensues as the family may exhibit inadequate behavior of letting go of the child.\footnote{3}

Schellenberg studied dependence and cooperation. He predicted that increases in dependence by either or both parties would be associated with increased collaboration and


decreased exploitation and disengagement."¹ His findings indicated that there was a strong inverse relationship, as predicted, between dependency and disengagement. He also found that the collaboration and exploitation ratio did not appear to show collaboration increasing with dependence.

In a study dealing with power and dependency, Schopler and Bateson conducted a series of experiments that tested the conditions that affected the yielding of a powerful person to the dependence of his powerless partner. In accordance with the prediction of Schopler and Bateson, they found that:

a powerful person yielded more when the cost of yielding was low rather than when the cost was high. Contrary to their initial expectations, in three separate studies, an interaction effect between sex of the subject and extent of partners dependence or yielding was found. Females yielded more when their partner was highly dependent than when he was less dependent, while the reverse was true for males. The authors interpreted the interaction effect as representing a difference between men and women in the kind of cues instigating conformity to the women of social responsibility.²

The Transition of Dependency

The following two authors are concerned with changes in dependency. Jones discussed the transition from dependency in childhood to independence in adulthood. He wrote that:

¹James A. Schellenberg, "Dependence and Cooperation," Sociometry, 28 (1965), 158.

the transition depends primarily upon the redirecting of one infantile attachment of libidinal energy invested in the parent to that of a love object other than the parent. Thus, when the adult stage is fully realized, the adolescent is able to relinquish the incestuous attachment to the parent and obtain need satisfaction from the non-incestuous love object. In other words, [Jones is suggesting that] independence is achieved when the need to be loved becomes subordinate to the need to love.¹

Alexander studied dependency in the psychotherapy process. Each dependency statement of twenty clients in therapy was classified into one of several relationship categories which included: the relationship between the therapist and client, the client and his family, and the client in other social relationships. There were significant changes in dependency found in the different relationships including: dependency of the client upon the therapist increased through therapy then stabilized, dependency of the client upon the family decreased initially then stabilized, late adolescent clients refocused their dependency needs from the family to the therapist, and dependency involving social relationships initially increased then decreased by the end of the therapy.²

Alexander also found that short-term clients, those frequently rated as unsuccessful, expressed significantly more dependency in the client/therapist relationship early

¹E. Jones, Papers on Psychoanalysis (Boston: Beacon Press, 1961), as cited in Goldin et al., p. 7.

in therapy (three to five sessions).

**Typologies of Dependency**

Are there different types of dependency? Heathers suggested that there were two different types of dependency: "instrumental dependency which is characterized by need for help, and emotional dependency characterized by needs for reassurance, affection or approval."\(^1\)

Goldin proposed a typology of dependent behavior which allows us to classify five different types of dependent behavior including: social, emotional, financial, institutional, and psychomedical.\(^2\) The socially dependent client required help from people around him to negotiate in interpersonal relationships. Emotional dependency was characterized by a constant and perhaps inappropriate need for emotional support by one family or group member or another. Emotional dependency was found to be of a neurotic origin. Financial dependency was characterized by the dependency of one person on another for sustenance. Institutional dependency was characterized by the patient being always aware that his essential needs for food, shelter, clothing, and medical attention will always be met, regardless of what he does or

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\(^2\)Goldin et al., p. 15.
does not do. This situation created a fertile environment for the development of a dependent personality. Lastly, psychomedical dependency referred to those dependent responses evoked by physical illness or handicap. It was characterized by the patient or client being placed in a position of almost childlike dependence.\(^1\)

The basic premise of this researcher's study deals with the issue of interpersonal dependency and stems from a study conducted by Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barrett, Korchin, and Chodoff. In their study they dealt with the characteristic of interpersonal dependency which refers to:

A complex of thoughts, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors revolving around needs to associate closely with valued other people. Its conceptual sources include the psychoanalytic theory of object relations, social learning theories of dependency, and the ethological theory of attachment.\(^2\)

Hirschfeld et al. administered the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory to 220 normals and 180 psychiatric patients and cross validated the test on two additional samples. Three components of interpersonal dependency emerged: emotional reliance on another person, lack of social self-confidence, and assertion of autonomy.

\(^1\)Goldin et al., pp. 15-27.

\(^2\)Hirschfeld et al., p. 610.
Dependency and Female Offenders

There is little empirical research dealing with the area of dependency and female offenders. A study dealing with institutional dependency, which is somewhat related, was conducted by Robertson and Cohen and used a sample of veterans. Their hypothesis was that institutionalized veterans who tested more feminine on sex role measures would tend to stay longer in the hospital and show other signs of dependency in social rehabilitation treatment. The study included two samples (N1=eighty-four, N2=sixty-nine). The findings indicated that institutionalized veterans with feminine sex role characteristics did stay longer in the hospital. This finding was independent of age, length of prior hospitalization, and type of disability.¹

Payak stated that:

Attention should also be called to the natural dependency of women. By custom, cultural training, and in some cases because of biological differences, most women are highly dependent. Society has delegated to the women the role of the protected person in family, marital, and social situations, and we females act accordingly.²

Payak continued:

Severance of a dependent relationship whether it be due to the disruption of the family unit or termination of a marital status by death,


²Payak, p. 10.
desertion, or infidelity, will present psychological problems which may bring forth an anti-social or criminalistic solution. The dependent woman who is suddenly faced with the lack of economic security may be forced to assume the masculine role of "provider," again perhaps choosing an illegal method to solve her problems. The factor of dependence is particularly pertinent in understanding the female parolee. She has had the protection and security of an institutional setting, so the problems of returning home are intensified.  

Kruttschnitt wrote about female offenders and economic dependency. Her study found that "the more economically dependent upon someone else for her day-to-day existence: the more dependent she is, the less severe her disposition in Court."  

Renear studied the concept of field dependence and parole success. Her study "tested Witkin's hypothesis that an intermediate level of field dependence rather than either high or low field dependence is associated with personal adequacy." Her study consisted of ninety volunteer female subjects who were in prison. Their mean IQ was 106, with a mean age of thirty-three. She identified three measures to predict parole success: number of disciplinary reports received by each inmate, number of visits and letters for

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1 Payak, p. 10.

2 Candace Kruttschnitt, "Women, Crime, and Dependency," Criminology, 19 (February 1982), 495.

each inmate, and a base expectancy score. Her findings indicated that none of the three predictors of parole success showed a relationship to field dependence. She further reported that her results partially confirmed Witkin's hypothesis that an intermediate level of field dependence is associated with personal adequacy.

Mattocks and Spencer conducted a correlational study of the dependency-proneness of prison inmates and membership in social clubs. They reported that in recent years there had been an upsurge in the number of requests by prisoners in the California prison system to form and conduct clubs of different kinds. The subjects in the study consisted of 100 members and 100 non-members of five inmate clubs in a California prison. The Navran Dependency Scale was administered to each of the subjects. There were no significant differences between the two groups in regard to age, years completed in school, number of arrests, convictions, time in prison, or race. The findings of the study indicated that the difference between the means of the dependency scores was significant at the .01 level indicating that club members tended to have a greater degree of dependency proneness than non-club members.¹

Perhaps Konopka in her study of delinquent girls said

it best:

What I found in the girl in conflict was...loneliness accompanied by despair. Adolescent boys too often felt lonely and search for understanding and friends. Yet in general this does not seem to be the central core of their problems, not their most outspoken ache. While the girls also strive for independence, their need for dependence is unusually great.¹

The Treatment of Dependency

The treatment of dependency is a difficult undertaking. Street designed an intervention program to work with women experiencing low self-esteem, high dependency and depression. His study consisted of forty-eight subjects in the experimental group who attended his workshop and fifty-two subjects who did not attend. All the subjects were given a pre-test and a post-test after two months. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was used to measure self-esteem and the Navran Dependency Scale was used to measure dependency. The depression subscale of the MMPI was used to measure depression. He found that dependency and depression were directly linked to self-esteem and that the treatment of self-esteem lessened the subject's dependency and depression. He also reported that "self-esteem is a relatively enduring feeling that has developed over a lifetime of experiences and that although it is subject to fluctuations, it is probably not significantly

changed in a two-month period."  

Loeffler and Fiedler developed an intervention strategy to help develop the psychological growth of women. The results of their study indicated that participation in the treatment program accounted for significant increases in self-esteem and decreases in dependency.  

Sex Roles

An assumption that is also being tested in this study is that the female offender generally possesses a masculine sex role identity. This section of the review of literature will include the presentation of both research on sex roles in general and sex roles and female offenders. Traditionally, sex role research has been conducted in terms of the study of two components: masculinity and femininity. Different theorists have offered different labels for the traits possessed by the two sex role identities. Parsons and Bales developed the concept of instrumentality to represent the masculine person and expressiveness to represent the feminine person.  

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1 Street, pp. 1418-19.

2 Loeffler and Fiedler, pp. 54-57.

be described as "agentic" (a concern for oneself as an individual), whereas femininity be associated with a "communal" orientation (a concern for the relationship between self and others).¹ Both in psychology and in society in general, masculinity and femininity have long been perceived as two independent labels at bipolar ends of a continuum. A person was either masculine or feminine but not both.

Constantinople reviewed a number of different general tests that have been designed to assess levels of masculinity and femininity within individuals. She indicated that:

...one recurring question that is reflected in varying terminology throughout the paper is whether masculinity-femininity is a single bipolar dimension or whether there may not also exist two separable dimensions of masculinity and femininity, either in addition to or, instead of the masculinity-femininity dimension.²

The possibility that a single person can possess positive characteristics or traits of both the masculine and feminine personality has been expressed in recent literature. Jung discussed the "anima" and "animus" which he believed to


²Anne Constantinople, "Masculinity-Femininity: An Exception to a Famous Dictum?" Psychological Bulletin, 80 (1973), 389.
be present in all of us.\(^1\) Bakan suggested that each of us needs to possess agenic and communal traits.\(^2\)

**Psychological Androgyne**

The following subsection addresses the concept of psychological androgyne. Perhaps the most well known recent researcher in the area of sex role research is Sandra Lipsitz Bem. Bem introduced the development of a new sex role inventory that treated masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions, thereby making it possible to characterize a person as masculine, feminine, or androgynous. This inventory was entitled the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).\(^3\) This research tool was based upon the belief that many individuals might be both masculine and feminine or that they might possess positive characteristics that are normally ascribed to either personality, that they might be psychologically androgynous. Bem's major hypothesis was that: feminine and masculine qualities can exist in the same individual, promoting flexible behavior adaptive to situations rather than stereotypical expectations.

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Bem noted that "in American society, men are supposed to be masculine, women are to be feminine and neither sex is to be like the other."¹ Men are to be independent, tough and assertive, women are to be tender and nurturant. She further noted that traditional sex typing is unhealthy. High femininity in females correlates with high anxiety, low self-esteem and low self-acceptance. High masculinity in men correlates during childhood with good psychological adjustment but in adulthood with high anxiety, high neuroticism and low self-acceptance.

When taking the BSRI, a person was asked to respond to sixty questions (twenty masculine, twenty feminine, and twenty neutral personality characteristics). The questions were responded to by indicating on a scale from one (never or almost never true) to seven (always or almost always true). The degree of sex role stereotyping in the person's self-perception was then defined as a t-ratio for the difference between the total points assigned to the feminine and masculine attributes, respectively. Consequently, if the respondent's masculinity score was significantly higher than his femininity score he was said to have a masculine sex role and visa versa. If a person's masculinity and femininity scores were similar, the person was said to have an

androgynous sex role which was made up of approximately equal scores of both masculinity and femininity personality characteristics.

The BSRI was initially administered during the winter and spring of 1973 to 444 male and 279 female students at Stanford University. It was also administered to an additional 117 male and seventy-seven female paid volunteers at a junior college. The data that these students produced represents the normative data for the BSRI.

Bem conducted an experiment with college students to test the hypothesis that:

psychologically androgynous individuals might be more likely than either masculine or feminine individuals to display sex role adaptability across situations, engaging in situationally effective behavior without regard for its stereotype, as more appropriate for one sex or the other.\(^1\)

In the experiment, twenty-three male and nineteen female students were asked to judge a series of behaviors for their sex role connotations. They were asked to indicate on a seven-point scale how masculine or feminine each of twelve activities would be considered by the American society in general. Embedded in the list of activities were the following two behaviors of interest: playing with a six-week-old kitten and saying what you believe when you know that those around you disagree. Both males and females rated

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independence as masculine and kitten playing as feminine. In addition, only one out of forty-two judges rated independence as ever "slightly feminine," and no judge rated kitten playing as at all masculine. In subsequent experiments, Bem found that androgynous subjects of both sexes displayed a high level of masculine independence when under pressure to conform, and they displayed a high level of feminine playfulness when given the opportunity to interact with a playful kitten.

The results for non-androgynous subjects showed a complementary pattern:

the non-androgynous males, as predicted, did well only when the behavior was congruent with a particular self-ascribed sex role as measured by the BSRI. Thus masculine males displayed masculine independence, but not female playfulness, and feminine males displayed feminine playfulness but not masculine independence. The females displayed a very different pattern of results. Masculine females did display greater independence than feminine females, but they also displayed a moderate amount of playfulness, falling between androgynous and feminine females.

Bem and Lemy hypothesized that:

cross-sex behavior is motivationally problematic for sex-typed individuals and that they actively avoid it as a result. In this experiment, subjects were asked to indicate which of a series of paired activities they would prefer to

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perform for pay while being photographed. Sex-typed subjects were more likely than either androgy- nous or sex reversed subjects to prefer sex-appropriate activity and to resist sex-inappropriate activity, even though such choices cost them money. Actually engaging in cross-sexed behavior caused sex-typed subjects to report greater psychological discomfort and more negative feelings about them- selves.¹

Bem, Martyna, and Watson conducted two experiments. In experiment one, the BSRI was administered to forty-one male and forty-two female students at Stanford University.

One third of the subjects had been preselected as masculine, one third as feminine, and one third as androgynous on the basis of the androgy nous t-ratio. Also participating in this experiment were fourteen babies (ten males and four females). During the experiment, each baby was dressed in sex neutral clothing and was randomly assigned to be introduced to the subjects as "David" or "Lisa." Subjects were solicited for a study of social responsiveness to infants and were then left alone with a baby for ten minutes while the researchers observed the interaction from behind a one-way mirror. The results of the overall analysis of variance indicated a signifi- cant main effect only for the baby's assigned sex, with David receiving more behavioral nurturance than Lisa. Thus, the predicted effect of the subjects sex role did not reach significance. Therefore, the hypothesis with respect to sex role failed to receive confirmation. Further analysis indicated that feminine and androgynous subjects of both sexes were more nurturant than masculine subjects.²

The second experiment was designed to evoke sympathetic


and supportive listening on the part of the subject but, at the same time, did not require the subject to play an active or initiating role in the interaction. The findings of this experiment indicated that feminine and androgynous subjects were more nurturant to the talker than masculine subjects.\footnote{Bem, Martyna and Watson, "Sex Typing and Androgyny," pp. 1016-23.}

The authors also presented information in this article on the research that has been conducted by Spence et al. They reported that Spence had designed a similar test (the Personal Attributes Questionnaire) to the BSRI although they added a fourth category, undifferentiated.\footnote{Spence, Helmreich and Stapp, pp. 29-39.}

\textbf{Critics of Bem's Concept of Psychological Androgyny}

Bem is not without her critics. Pedhazur and Tetenbaum criticized the BSRI by having 2,571 graduate students using the BSRI for self-ratings. It was found that, "regardless of the referants used, the masculine traits were relatively high in desirability but some of the feminine traits were low in desirability."\footnote{Elazur J. Pedhazur and Toby J. Tetenbaum, "Bem Sex Role Inventory: A Theoretical and Methodological Critique," \textit{Journal of Personality and Social Psychology}, 37 (1979), 996.} They further reported that Bem's classification of the BSRI traits into masculine, feminine, and androgynous categories was not tenable and that the
dimensions that underlie desirability ratings differ from those that underlie self-ratings.

Spence and Helmreich wrote that their measurement of psychological androgyny, the PAQ,

is a specialized measure of socially desirable instrumental and expressive characteristics, objectively defined trait dimensions that distinguish between the sexes to some degree and thus may be labeled masculine and feminine.¹

Traits that were stereotypically more characteristic of males, but socially desirable to some degree in both sexes were assigned to a masculine scale, while traits that were more stereotypically characteristic of females were assigned to the femininity scale. A third scale was also developed. This scale, labeled masculine-feminine, contains items for which ratings fell toward opposite poles for the ideal man and ideal woman. The authors reported that the PAQ can be described as "...a quite conventional personality test in the self-report mode, consisting of clusters of socially desirable instrumental (masculine) and expressive (feminine) traits."²

Spence et al. constructed a four-cell description of their sex role identity typology: androgyny (above the


median on both masculinity and femininity), masculinity (above the median on masculinity, below the median on femininity), femininity (below the median on masculinity, above the median on femininity), and undifferentiated (below the median on both masculinity and femininity). Androgyny, as a term, was introduced as a convenient label to identify individuals who scored high on both the masculinity and femininity scales. Spence and Helmreich emphasized that the PAQ was an instrument of restricted content, containing items describing personality traits of an expressive or instrumental nature, whereas Bem's research specifically dealt with sex role identity in a more global manner.

Spence and Helmreich reported that:

although the PAQ and BSRI cannot be generalized to sex role behaviors in general, the literature suggests that instrumentality and expressiveness per se have important implications. They also report that their belief is that appreciation of their contributions may be advanced more rapidly if their trait dimensions are disentangled from global concepts of sex-roles or masculinity, femininity, and androgyny.¹

The Masculine Female Offender

In addition to the aforementioned reporting of existing literature and research on sex roles in general, there has also been research on sex roles and female offenders.

An assumption to be tested in this research is the sex role identities of female offenders. Are they masculine? Feminine? Androgynous? Undifferentiated? The "myth" that female offenders possess masculine sex role identities has been perpetuated for years. Writers have traditionally focused on three aspects of this confused or masculine sex-role identity to explain female criminality: physical traits, sexual preference for partners, and sex-role self-concepts.¹

Lombroso described female criminality as:

an inherent tendency produced in individuals that could be regarded as biological atavisms, similar to cranial and facial features, and one could expect a withering away of crime if the atavistic people were prohibited from breeding.²

Lombroso indicated that female offenders are masculine in their physical appearance having a virile cranium and considerable body hair.³

Cowie, Cowie and Slater wrote that "the female criminal is much different both psychologically and physiologically than the normal girl and concluded that female delinquents are more masculine." They identified physical traits in

¹Widom, "Perspectives on Female Criminality," p. 1.


³Lombroso, cited in Klein, p. 7.
girls who have been classified as delinquent, and have concluded that certain traits, such as bigness, may lead to aggressiveness.¹

Freud perceived female offenders as being "sexual misfits" and saw their aggressive and rebellious behavior as a result of the failure of developing healthy feminine attitudes. Freud saw women as anatomically inferior; they are destined to be wives and mothers, and this is admittedly an inferior destiny (per Freud) as befits the inferior sex. In this framework, the deviant woman is one who is attempting to be a man. She is aggressively rebellious; and her drive to accomplishment is the expression of her longing for a penis; this hopeless pursuit, consequently she will only end up neurotic. Thus, the deviant woman should be treated and helped to adjust to her sex role.²

Pollack advanced the theory of hidden female crime to account for what he considers unreasonably low official rates for female crime.

A major reason for the existence of hidden crime, lies in the nature of women themselves. They are instigators rather than perpetrators


²S. Freud, New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis (New York: W. W. Norton, 1933), cited in Klein, p. 16.
of criminal activity. He insists that women are inherently deceitful for physiological reasons.\(^1\)

Feinman wrote that "the treatment of incarcerated women reflects the sex role stereotypes which society has relegated to women."\(^2\) Her position was contrary to the assumption that female offenders have masculine sex roles. She noted that in the 1790's two events were taking place in America: the advent of the modern American prison system and the development of the cult of true womanhood, whereas the ideal woman was defined as the wife and mother in the home. She continued by reporting that in 1830 despite public hostility toward the project, a group of middle and upper class women, motivated by religious beliefs and aiming to reform their fallen sisters, established a home for delinquent women (Magdalen Home in New York City). Female offenders were no longer perceived as generically depraved but were seen as the victims of male lust and imposed sex roles which afforded women few opportunities to work and earn an adequate salary. Her article continued by criticizing reformers of female institutions because they tend to propagate the traditional female sex roles which seem to inhibit equal treatment of female offenders.


Gibbens conducted research on female offenders and reported that 16 percent of his sample were lesbian or homosexual, thus adding minimal support to the notion that the sexual preference of female offenders are other women.¹

Cochrane studied the structure of value systems in male and female prisoners in England. His research supported the notion that female offenders had a much more masculine value system than non-offending women.²

In a study conducted by Sutker, Allain, and Geyer, female criminal violence and differentiated MMPI characteristics were studied. A cross-validated approach was used to compare MMPI scale elevations and profile patterns produced by female murderers and non-violent offenders.

The findings indicated that there were significant and reliable relationships between extreme criminal violence and aspects of MMPI performance. Women convicted of criminal homicide tended to respond to MMPI items in a manner reflective of minimal involvement in a socially deviant lifestyle....women who murdered could be said to be more defensive, less in touch with impulses to action, more socially conforming and more removed from a stereotyped definition of femininity than non-violent female offenders.³

¹C. T. N. Gibbens, "Female Offenders," British Journal of Hospital Medicine, September, 1971, pp. 279-86.


The Myth of the Masculine Female Offender Challenged

Widom studied seventy-three female offenders awaiting trial in a Massachusetts jail (experimental group) and twenty women who were recruited from a child care center in Boston where most of the mothers were receiving welfare assistance (control group). The BSRI was administered to the women. Widom hypothesized that there would be higher masculinity scores on behalf of the female offenders than the non-offending women. This hypothesis was not supported in her research. Widom also noted in her findings that her study did not assess global role behaviors (masculinity and femininity) but more specific personality traits (instrumentality and expressiveness).¹

Widom concluded that:

Although deviant sex role orientation in the form of increased masculinity has been thought to be important in explaining female criminality, the present results discredit such an assumption and support that it may be level of femininity (or expressiveness) that is important in understanding certain aspects of criminal behavior. In the present investigation, masculinity was correlated to criminality, whereas femininity was found to be negatively associated with it.²

Widom wrote that although explanations involving deviant sex role orientations in the form of increased masculinity

¹Widom, "Female Offenders: Three Assumptions About Self-Esteem, Sex-Role Identity, and Feminism," pp. 365-82.

²Widom, "Female Offenders," p. 378.
have been offered as important in explaining female criminality, the results of her work did not support this assumption.\(^1\)

In the Widom and Barack study:

female offenders awaiting trial were given the PAQ in addition to several other personality measures and were found to be no different from members of the control group on psychological masculinity and femininity. White and non-white women in the sample were found to differ significantly on the masculinity scale, with non-white women scoring significantly higher than white women.\(^2\)

Craig administered the PAQ to sixty-four female prisoners (women sentenced to prison). These women had higher masculinity scores than the women awaiting trial in the Widom study and the women awaiting trial in the Widom and Barack study, although they did not differ significantly from scores reported by Spence and Helmreich in their study of a group of midwest college students. It should be noted that the sixty-four (Craig study) women in prison had higher scores on the femininity scale than any of the other studies mentioned, including the college students (Widom and Barack, Widom, Spence).\(^3\)

\(^1\)Widom, "Perspectives on Female Criminality," p. 5.


Hilliard, in an unpublished paper which assessed the self-perception of delinquent girls and their mothers, administered the PAQ to twenty-one delinquent girls and twenty-two non-delinquent girls. Hilliard reported that there was little significant difference between the scores on the masculinity scale, although the non-delinquent girls scored slightly higher on the masculinity scale. On the femininity scale, the non-delinquent girls also scored slightly higher than the delinquent group. The BSRI (Bem) was also administered to the twenty-one delinquent girls. The finding on this test indicated that the delinquent girls scored slightly higher on the masculinity scale than the females awaiting trial in the Widom study, although not significantly higher. The delinquent girls scored lower on the femininity scale than the females awaiting trial in the Widom study.\(^1\)

Widom stated that:

Based on these and previous studies, the importance of a masculine or confused sex-role identity as an explanatory concept of female criminality is rather questionable, although it should be stressed that the personality attributes assessed here represent only one aspect of sex-role identity, not global behavior. As Spence noted, tests of masculinity and femininity sex-role preferences, behaviors, or attitudes do not necessarily correlate with tests of desirable masculinity and femininity personality characteristics.\(^2\)

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\(^2\) Widom, "Perspectives on Female Criminality," p. 6.
Self-Esteem and Sex Roles

Studies of the relationship between self-esteem and sex role stereotypes have been studied extensively, although there has been little research on these two characteristics with female offenders.

In the 1973 dissertation written by Recely, the prediction was made that the level of self-esteem would be directly related to the degree of conformity to one's sex role. The subjects in the project were ninety-three male and ninety-eight female college students. Data were collected by administering questionnaires to groups of students. Recely noted that:

Predictions regarding the relationship between self-esteem and conformity to one's sex role were supported in males but not in females. In the female subjects, the level of self-esteem was positively correlated with conformity to the male sex role and was not significantly correlated with conformity to the female sex role. The difference between the correlation of levels of self-esteem with conformity to the male sex role stereotype and with conformity to the female sex role stereotype was significantly different in both females and males.¹

As predicted, the females that scored high on self-esteem evidenced a greater degree of cross-sex identification than did males with high self-esteem. Recely concluded that the conformity to the male stereotype is more conducive to high self-esteem than is the conformity to the female

stereotype in both males and females. Recely further noted that the female sex role still has less social value than the male sex role.

Rosenkratz, Voger, Bee, Broverman, and Broverman studied sex role stereotypes and self-concepts in college students. On a questionnaire consisting of 122 bipolar items, eighty female and seventy-four male students indicated what typical adult males and females and they themselves were like. The results of the study indicated that despite historical changes in the status of women, the sex role stereotypes of men and women continue to be clearly defined and held in agreement by both college men and women. The research also indicated that both college men and women tested, agreed that a greater number of behaviors stereotypically regarded as masculine were more socially desirable than feminine characteristics. Lastly, the research indicated that the self-concepts of men and women are very similar to the respective stereotypes. Regarding the women in the study, this indicates that women hold negative values of their worth relative to men.1

Androgyny as the Key to High Self-Esteem

A great deal of research dealing with the relationship between self-esteem and sex role stereotypes has been

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instigated by Spence, Helmreich and Stapp's 1975 study dealing with this topic. Spence et al. administered the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) consisting of fifty-five bipolar attributes to 282 subjects. "They were asked to rate themselves and then to compare directly to the typical male and female college student. These self-ratings were divided into female valued and male valued sex-specific items."¹ The researchers also administered the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (TSBI) to measure self-esteem and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, a device to assess beliefs about appropriated roles for women. Highly significant and positive correlations between masculinity and self-esteem were found in both sexes while significant positive correlations between femininity and self-esteem were also found in both men and women. These data suggested, according to the authors, that androgyny (the possession of a high degree of both masculine and feminine personality traits) may lead to the most socially desirable consequences. For both men and women, those subjects that were classified in the androgynous quadrant scored the highest on the measure of self-esteem followed by those that scored highest in masculinity. The subjects that scored the third highest levels of self-esteem were classified in the femininity quadrant. The group scoring lowest in self-esteem were classified in the

¹Spence, Helmreich and Stapp, p. 29.
undifferentiated quadrant on the sex role stereotype measure.

Spence et al. stated that:

The approach suggested here differs from the subtractive method used by Bem to identify androgynous individuals. The androgyny score derived from the BSRI is defined as the difference between the masculinity and femininity scores and results in a kind of bipolar scale ranging from feminine through androgyny to masculinity. Many discrepancies in classification would be expected between the two systems, for example, individuals equally low in both components being classified as androgynous by Bem and at the opposite extreme by the present investigators.¹

Stapp, in her doctoral dissertation research, studied the antecedents of self-esteem and psychological masculinity and femininity. She indicated that traditional research in the field of sex role stereotypes has dealt with masculinity and femininity as being at opposite ends of a continuum. In her research with Spence and Helmreich they examined masculinity and femininity as separate psychological characteristics which individuals of both sexes may possess, although perhaps at different levels. Stapp further reported that her research with Spence and Helmreich supported the premise that psychological androgyny was positively correlated with high self-esteem and that the androgynous subjects were followed (in order) by those subjects classified as masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated.

The purpose of Stapp's study was to study the antecedents

¹Spence, Helmreich and Stapp, p. 36.
of masculinity, femininity, and self-esteem, particularly with respect to parental characteristics and behavior. The subjects in the study were 262 female and 238 male college students. The research findings indicated that the antecedents of the subjects were similar with parental encouragement, praise and affection being most strongly correlated with high levels of self-esteem, masculinity, and femininity in males and females. Criticism and punishment tended to be unrelated to self-esteem, masculinity, and femininity. The research also indicated that the subjects who scored high in self-esteem, masculinity, and femininity, reported that their parents were also high in masculinity and femininity. Stapp's study further indicated that by considering the characteristics of both the mother and father, three types of families were defined: androgynous (where one or both parents were high in both masculinity and femininity), mother high in femininity (but not in masculinity), and father high in masculinity (but not in femininity). The comparison of these types of families revealed that the androgynous family was highest and the undifferentiated was lowest in self-esteem.¹

O'Connor, Mann, and Bardwick conducted a replication study of Spence's research on androgyny and self-esteem with

upper middle class adults. Spence's results were largely replicated. O'Connor et al.'s purpose was to see whether a more traditional, established, conservative sample would produce the pattern of sex role stereotype ratings and the relationship of androgyny with self-esteem reported by Spence et al.¹

O'Connor et al. did find that the men in their study described themselves as significantly more masculine than did the college men and that unlike Spence's male sample, O'Connor's male sample was no more prone to use sex role stereotypes than the women. Regarding self-esteem, the present researchers male sample scored significantly higher than the female sample. The study findings also indicated that correlations generally reflected relationships consistent with those of Spence, except that femininity was not related to self-esteem among men. Masculinity and self-esteem were significantly correlated among men and women although femininity and self-esteem were correlated only among women.

O'Connor et al. suggested that:

...the relationship between self-esteem and masculinity reflects the vocational achievements of the men in the sample which clearly met and surpassed the standards of competence embodied in the Spence et al. masculinity scale and that the interpersonal skills indexed in the femininity scale seem not to contribute to self-esteem for

those men, unlike the college sample. Our results were in close agreement with Spence. The androgynous men and women were highest in mean self-esteem, followed within each sex by masculinity, femininity, and undifferentiated groups.... Principally, androgyne self-descriptions did occur reliably in our sample and androgyne self-descriptions predicted the highest levels of self-esteem for women and men. The high esteem and masculinity scores of the men may well reflect the broader opportunities to test their competence that are available neither to their spouse nor to college students.¹

Masculinity as the Key to Self-Esteem

A similar study was conducted by Puglisi in his dissertation research. Puglisi researched sex role identities and self-esteem through adulthood, predicting that adult sex-typing reaches its peak in middle age. After reaching this peak, the author noted that there was a convergence of masculinity and femininity roles. He explained that men were expected to display a peak in masculine characteristics in middle age, followed in later life by a decrease in these characteristics and an increase in feminine ones. He further reported that women were expected to display an opposite trend.

Puglisi administered the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the Texas Social Behavior Inventory to 2,069 Ohio State University students, employees, and alumni between the ages of seventeen and eighty-nine. Puglisi found no evidence to support the prediction of a convergence of sex role characteristics.

¹O'Connor, Mann, and Bardwick, p. 1169.
characteristics in later life. He did find that:

...men and women displayed parallel patterns of sex role stereotype identification and that both men and women displayed peak levels of masculinity in the middle years while levels of femininity remained constant over the age range studied (although women tended to score higher in femininity and men higher in masculinity).¹

He also found Bem's proposition that psychologically androgynous people are the most adaptive in highly complex societies was substantiated. The highest levels of self-esteem were scored by androgynous subjects, followed by masculinity, femininity, and undifferentiated subjects.

Puglisi and Jackson reported on the same study as Puglisi but added that masculinity was far better at predicting self-esteem than was femininity.² They also noted that studies such as theirs should be closely scrutinized due to the complex nature of the measurement of self-esteem.

Puglisi and Jackson stated that:

Global measures like the one used here may place too much emphasis on socially defined and stereotyped criteria of worth (hence the strong relationship between self-esteem and masculinity), and not enough emphasis on life style specific criteria. Thorough understanding of sex role identity and adjustment in adulthood will require more specific measures of adjustment, consideration


of personality-life style fit, and longitudinal designs.¹

Schiff and Koopman studied the relationship of women's sex role identities to self-esteem and ego development. The main hypotheses of the Schiff and Koopman study were that: (1) there was a greater degree of self-esteem among androgynous women than women who are not androgynous, and (2) there was a greater degree of ego development among androgynous women than women who do not fall within the androgynous classification. One hundred fifty-three female undergraduate students at the University of Maryland were the subjects of the study. They completed the Index of Adjustment and Values (a self-esteem device) and the Sentence Completion Test (used to measure ego development). From this sample four sex role identity groups were established: androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated women. Twenty-five subjects from each group were randomly selected to comprise a final sample of 100 women. The results of the study indicated that the self-esteem test reflected that androgynous women were higher in self-esteem than feminine and undifferentiated women, but that there was no significant difference in self-esteem between androgynous and masculine women. It also showed that the ego development of the women identified as androgynous was not significantly different from that of the women in the

¹Puglisi and Jackson, p. 137.
feminine group and undifferentiated women but was significantly higher than masculine women. The data strongly supported the notion that it was a high degree of masculine and feminine traits in combination that contributes to high self-esteem. The authors stated that:

The finding of no significant difference in self-esteem between androgynous and masculine women suggests that the masculine component of sex role identity present to a high degree in both of these groups, may be closely associated with positive self-perceptions. This supports the belief that masculine characteristics highly valued in our culture, may contribute significantly to self-esteem and may be weighted more heavily than the feminine component in relationship to personal satisfaction and feelings.

Goldenberg studied the hypothesis that males were high and females were low risk takers and that this could be attributed to differences in sex roles, independent of sex. He also studied the role of self-esteem as a variable in the relationship between sex roles and risk taking. The subjects in the Goldenberg study consisted of 330 undergraduate students who completed the BSRI, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and three risk taking measures: a self-rating scale, a personality inventory, and a situational dilemma questionnaire. Subjects were divided according to sex, sex role, and self-esteem. The relationships were

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2 Schiff and Koopman, p. 304.
tested by means of separate 4x2x2 factorial analyses of variance. The results of Goldenberg's research indicated that androgynous subjects demonstrated the highest levels of self-esteem but that their scores did not differ significantly from the masculinity group scores. Femininity and undifferentiated subjects displayed the lowest levels of self-esteem and females in the sample demonstrated significantly higher self-esteem scores than did the males.

Four risk taking subscales yielded significant main effects for sex roles. On all of these, masculine subjects obtained the highest scores, however they did not differ significantly from the subjects in the androgynous category. Risk taking scores of feminine subjects were significantly lower than those of masculine subjects on all four subscales. Self-esteem also yielded significant main effects on four subscales. On three of the four, low self-esteem subjects demonstrated a greater risk taking propensity than the high self-esteem subjects. On the fourth subscale, the opposite occurred.¹

Antill and Cunningham studied self-esteem as a function of masculinity in both sexes. The subjects in their study consisted of 237 students (133 females and 104 males) who each completed three sex role measurements (BSRI, PAQ, and ANDRO) and two measures of self-esteem (the Self-Acceptance Scale and the Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale). Their findings indicated that masculinity "showed significantly positive correlations with self-esteem in both sexes,

whereas the correlations with femininity were generally nil or slightly negative.\textsuperscript{1} They concluded that:

...thus, it is clear for both male and female university students that the level of masculinity in self-description is the major contributing factor to self-esteem. The description of one-self in terms of feminine characteristics is largely irrelevant to male's self-esteem, and in females it tends to be linked with low self-esteem. Although they support the traditional views that masculinity should be associated with high self-esteem in males (proper sex typing), these findings contradict both the traditional view of femininity as ideal for females and the more recent advocacy of androgyny as ideal for both sexes.\textsuperscript{2}

Karam studied the relationship between sex role behaviors and dimensions of personality adjustment and self-esteem. She hypothesized that subjects who possessed both masculine and feminine traits as defined by the BSRI would be better adjusted psychologically. She also hypothesized that androgynous subjects would have higher self-esteem when compared to persons who adhered only to masculine or feminine stereotyped sex role behaviors. The subjects of Karam's study consisted of 150 college students. Each student was administered three scales: the BSRI, the Comrey Personality Scale, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Her findings indicated that masculinity and femininity scores on the BSRI


\textsuperscript{2} Antill and Cunningham, p. 785.
were correlated with five dimensions of self-esteem including: physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self. For the women in the study, high scores on masculinity were positively correlated with personal self. "High masculinity scores for males were inversely correlated with three dimensions of self-esteem: moral-ethical self, family self, and social self."¹ She concluded that sex role behaviors measured by the Comrey Masculinity scale were found to be correlated with dimensions of self-esteem in both males and females, however, the hypothesis then suggested a positive correlation between the BSRI and self-esteem was not supported.

Kelly and Worell studied psychological androgyny and sex roles and found no differences in self-esteem between masculine and androgynous groups. They indicated that the lack of consistent differences in self-esteem between androgynous and masculine groups reflected that high levels of self-esteem were related primarily to masculine-valued traits and only minimally to feminine-valued traits. Consequently, they attributed the high levels of self-esteem found in the androgynous group due to high masculinity scores and not to high masculine/feminine balance in the androgynous

¹Martha Lee Karam, "The Relationship Between Sex-Role Behaviors and Dimensions of Personality Adjustment and Self-Esteem," Dissertation Abstracts, 36-B (1975), 1886 (Rosemead Graduate School of Psychology).
classification as Bem would suggest.¹

Bem administered the BSRI to 375 male and 290 female subjects at Stanford University. She also administered other paper and pencil tests to the subjects including the TSBI (Spence and Helmreich) to measure levels of self-esteem. Her findings indicated that feminine and undifferentiated subjects scored lower in self-esteem than masculine and andrognous subjects. She further reported that self-esteem in men was found to be related to masculinity, but not to femininity. Those men who scored high in masculinity were also high in self-esteem, regardless of where they stood on femininity. Self-esteem in women was found by Bem to be significantly related not only to masculinity but also to femininity. Therefore, women who were high in both masculinity and femininity were highest in self-esteem, women scoring low in both masculinity and femininity were the lowest in self-esteem, and women who were high in one and low in the other (masculinity or femininity) fell in between. Masculine women had somewhat of an edge over feminine women.²

In a study conducted by Kemlicka, 205 female college


students were classified into androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated sex role categories after being administered the BSRI. The hypothesis of the study was that "sex roles would be strongly related to self-esteem. Androgynous women were predicted to have the highest self-esteem followed by masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated respectively."\(^1\) The findings nearly held. The androgynous women scored highest in self-esteem, followed by the masculine group, undifferentiated, and feminine women. Kimlicka recommended that a useful way of analyzing similar data was to combine androgynous and masculine scores vs. feminine and undifferentiated scores which accentuates the group similarities while acknowledging that the androgynous women had scored the highest in self-esteem.

Flaherty and Dusek researched the relationship between androgyny and components of self-concept. The subjects in their study consisted of 162 male and 195 female college students. The subjects completed the BSRI and a semantic differential scale which assessed four dimensions of the self-concept.

Flaherty and Dusek noted:

The androgynous group scored higher than the undifferentiated group on adjustment, a measure of perceived homostatic balance with the environment.

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The androgynous and masculine groups scored higher than the feminine and undifferentiated groups on achievement/leadership, which tends to reflect an instrumental role (masculinity). Androgy nous and feminine subjects scored higher than masculine and feminine groups on congeniality/sociability, which reflects an expressive (feminine) role. The masculine and feminine groups scored at appropriate ends of the masculinity/femininity self-concept dimension, with the androgy nous and undifferentiated groups at intermediate levels. The results were interpreted as supporting Bem's theory of androgy nous flexibility.¹

Armstrong studied the relationship of sex role identification, self-esteem, and aggression in delinquent males. The purposes of his study were to identify the relationship between: sex role identification and the tendency to engage in aggressive behavior, self-esteem and the tendency to engage in aggressive behavior and sex role identification and self-esteem. The data was secured from delinquent juvenile males incarcerated in a juvenile hall in southern California. The instrument utilized to assess self-esteem was the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The instrument used to measure sex role identification was the BSRI. The Anger Self-Report Form was utilized to measure aggressive tendencies. The results of the research indicated that nearly 50 percent of the aggression experienced by the subjects was explained by the combined influence of sex role identity and self-esteem. Consequently, the author concluded that the

interacting combination of low self-esteem and masculine stereotypical behavior accounted for nearly half of the aggression in the subjects and that taken separately, both self-esteem and sex role identity was high, inverse relationships to aggression and thus, exert considerable influence on the feeling and expression of aggression in the subjects in the study.¹

Connell and Johnson studied the relationship between sex role identity and self-esteem in early adolescents. The Gough Femininity Scale was administered to form groups of males and females with high and low sex roles identification. Self-esteem was measured by administering the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. The findings of the researchers indicated:

...high sex role identification males have greater feelings of self-esteem than low sex role identification males and high sex role identification females. It was also found that low sex role identification females and that low sex role identification males had significantly lower feelings of general self-esteem than females, regardless of the sex role identification level of the females.²

The authors concluded that:


...the results of this study suggest that, for the early adolescent at least, the male role may have value above and beyond that of the female role, regardless of whether the role is adopted by a male or a female...Consequently, the female may be positively reinforced for adopting certain male characteristics (e.g., competence), or she may be positively reinforced for fitting into the stereotype that society has structured for her. The male has a much less ambiguous choice; the male role is the only sex role for which he can receive consistent positive reinforcement.¹

The modification of sex role self-concepts and sex role attitudes as a function of the life situations in which people are involved was studied by Abrahams, Feldman and Nash.

They studied the change in self-concepts and sex role attitudes in four groups: cohabitation, marriage, the anticipation of a first child, and parenthood. Each was characterized in terms of the degree to which it called for more or less traditionally masculine or feminine behavior from men and women.² The researchers reported that:

...the sex role self-concepts and sex role attitudes reported by the men and women involved in each situation were found to conform to the behavioral characteristics. Specifically, men and women involved in situations characterized as requiring predominantly feminine behavior described themselves as relatively more feminine than their contemporaries in less femininely characterized situations. The same findings were obtained for the relationship between situationally required

¹Connell and Johnson, p. 268.

and self-ascribed masculinity. Similarly, sex role attitudes varied in traditionalism in conformity with the behavioral role requirements of the situations.¹

The BSRI was administered to 120 white, middle-class men and women in Palo Alto, California. The Miller Masculinity and Femininity Interest Questionnaire was also administered to assess sex role attitudes on a modern/traditional dimension. The researchers indicated that it is possible to identify discrete life situations that call for more or less stereotypically masculine or feminine behaviors and to predict with some accuracy the direction of attributions that people involved in those situations made about their own sex role self-concepts and sex role attitudes.²

Widom, as previously stated, administered the TSBI to measure self-esteem and the BSRI to measure sex role attributes to seventy-three women awaiting trial in jail (the experimental group) and to twenty women collecting welfare assistance (the control group). Her findings indicated that there were no significant differences in self-esteem, although the non-offenders did have slightly higher scores on self-esteem. There were also no significant differences between the groups in psychological masculinity and femininity as measured by the BSRI. There was a significant difference

¹Abrahams, Feldman and Nash, p. 393.

²Abrahams, Feldman and Nash, pp. 393-400.
between self-esteem and masculinity for both samples of women which replicated previous findings as noted earlier in this chapter. The results of Widom's study did not support her assumptions regarding lower self-esteem in female offenders. Consequently, she concluded that neither low self-esteem nor high levels of masculinity are major factors in female criminality.¹

Summary of Literature Review

This chapter has traced and discussed a review of the literature dealing with the concepts of: self-esteem, dependency, and sex role attitudes. Articles dealing specifically with female offenders and these personality characteristics were also presented.

The literature reflected a wide variety of approaches to the study of offenders and the aforementioned personality constructs. There was evidence presented supporting the assumptions of low self-esteem and high dependency needs in female offenders as well as high levels of masculinity in women who have committed crime. There was also more recent evidence which suggested that female offenders may not suffer from lower self-esteem than normal populations and that they are not necessarily more masculine than their non-offending counterparts.

¹Widom, "Female Offenders: Three Assumptions About Self-Esteem, Sex-Role Identity, and Feminism," pp. 365-82.
It appears clear to the researcher that additional evidence needs to be gathered on these personality constructs and their representation in female offenders in order to enhance the understanding of both professionals in the field of criminal justice as well as the community in general.
CHAPTER THREE

Research Design and Methodology

General Design

The primary purpose of this research was to determine the relationships and the differences between the three variables of: self-esteem, dependency, and sex role identity in a sample of female offenders from three correctional settings including: a county probation office, a residential correctional setting, and a women's reformatory.

This chapter will begin with a statement of the null hypotheses, followed by a description of the sample and the three correctional settings. Information regarding the three subgroups that make up the sample will then be presented followed by the procedure utilized for the administration of the research. A review of the consent to participate in the research, the instruments used, and the data profile sheet will then be presented. The last section of Chapter 3 will discuss the analyses of the data.

Statement of the Null Hypotheses

1. Among female offenders, there is not a negative relationship between levels of self-esteem and dependency.

2. Androgynous female offenders do not have higher
levels of self-esteem than masculine female offenders.

3. Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.

4. Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

5. Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.

6. Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

7. Feminine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

8. The level of dependency does not differ among female offenders in the three correctional settings.

9. There is not an inverse relationship between the level of self-esteem of the female offender and the level of restriction of the correctional setting.

10. The level of dependency of the female offender does not differ significantly among the four levels of psychological sex role attitude stereotypes: androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated.

Description of the Sample and the Three Correctional Settings

The population of this study consisted of three subgroups of adult female offenders in the criminal justice system in the state of Iowa including: twenty-five women on probation, twenty-five women committed to the Port
Des Moines Residential Correctional Facility, and twenty-five women sentenced to the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women in Mitchellville, Iowa.

The adult probation office in Polk County (Des Moines) Iowa is administered by the Fifth Judicial District Department of Correctional Services. The Department of Correctional Services is an umbrella agency which is responsible for administering correctional programs in the sixteen counties comprising the Fifth Judicial District of Iowa. Components of the program include: pre-trial release, release with services, pre-sentence investigation, community service sentencing, probation, and residential facilities for men and women. The probation department in Polk County consists of one supervisor and approximately fourteen probation officers. The total probation caseload at the time of commencement of the present study consisted of approximately 1,300 adults sentenced by the Court in Polk County.

The residential correctional facility, located at Fort Des Moines, is a non-secure program utilized by the Courts in the Fifth Judicial District and the western half of the state of Iowa for female offenders. Fort Des Moines is a coed correctional facility consisting of sixty-five male and eighteen female adult offenders sentenced to the facility. Of the eighteen female offenders, ten are sentenced to the facility as a condition of probation, six are committed to the facility in a work release (half-way house) status
having been released from the reformatory, and two are sentenced through the Federal Court. The program stresses work and educational release, as well as counseling and referrals to community agencies for counseling.

The Iowa Correctional Institution for Women at Mitchellville, Iowa, is a medium security facility. The institution was moved to Mitchellville from Rockwell City, Iowa, during the summer of 1982; consequently, the administration of this research was postponed until the middle of the fall of 1982 in order to allow the inmates to "settle in" to their new institution. The Iowa Correctional Institution for Women serves as the state reformatory for women in Iowa. The inmates reside in locked cottages and participate in vocational and educational programming as well as a variety of support service programming.

Sample Population

The twenty-five women in the probation subgroup were initially identified by running a random numbers table on the computer. There were 276 women on probation in Polk County at the time of the commencement of the gathering of the data for this research project (June 15, 1982). Administration of the personality assessments were initially carried out with the women chosen by random; however, after the first few cases it became apparent that due to problems inherent in the probation system (i.e., absences, breaking of appointments, non-compliance with meeting with probation officers,
and lack of interest in participating in research), it was not realistic to collect the data from the probationers by utilizing the random numbers. Consequently, volunteers were taken from women on the random table. In order to encourage participation, gift certificates for five dollars to McDonald's Restaurants were given to participants in the study.

The twenty-five women tested at the Fort Des Moines Residential Correctional Facility consisted of all of the women in the facility at the commencement of the data collection (eighteen) and seven residents entering the facility over the next few months. Two women refused to participate in the study, consequently twenty-seven women were requested to participate rather than the twenty-five that eventually comprised the sample.

The subgroup at the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women at Mitchellville were all volunteers who agreed to participate in the study following a presentation of the purpose of the study to the client council of the Institution. Each resident was paid her hourly rate of salary for participating in the testing (forty-one cents per hour).

Procedure for Administration of the Research

In order to identify the capacity of offenders to understand the level of questions in the assessments chosen for this research, the researcher gathered data on ten female and ten male offenders at the Fort Des Moines Facility utilizing the Bem Sex Role Inventory, Extended Personality
Attributes Questionnaire (both designed to assess sex role identity stereotypes), and the Texas Social Behavior Inventory. These tests were administered in March of 1982. The results indicated that the level of vocabulary in the BSRI was in general, too difficult for the comprehension level of the respondents. The level of vocabulary in the TSBI and the EPAQ generated little difficulty for the respondents, consequently the use of these tests was adopted for the present research. The Interpersonal Dependency Inventory was adopted to measure levels of dependency of the respondents.

Permission to administer the research assessments to the probationers and the residents of the Fort Des Moines Facility was obtained from the Director of the Fifth Judicial District Department of Correctional Services. Permission to administer the assessments to the inmates at the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women was obtained from the Deputy Director of Corrections for the State of Iowa and the Superintendent of the Institution.

The administration of the assessments were conducted by the researcher and three research assistants, all of whom were students at Drake University. Research assistants were used in all of the testing conducted at the Fort Des Moines Facility and the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women in order to avoid any conflict of interest on behalf of this researcher due to the professional capacity
in corrections occupied by the researcher (Division Director of Residential Services for the Fifth Judicial District Department of Correctional Services). The researcher did conduct ten of the twenty-five assessments administered to female probationers with whom he did not have any professional interaction.

The three research assistants were all trained in the administration of the assessments, data sheet and consent form by this researcher.

Instructions prior to the administration of the assessments were brief. All participants in the study were given the option to not continue if they desired to withdraw from the study. Each participant was read a "consent to act as a research participant" waiver (see Appendix A) allowing their participation in the research and assuring them confidentiality. They were then asked to sign the consent form and were assigned a number which was used for the purpose of identification during the remainder of the study.

The participants were informed that they were being asked to participate in a research study on women in the criminal justice system in Iowa and that the questionnaires were all dealing with "how they felt about themselves." Specifics were held to a minimum. A list of participants who desired feedback on the results of the study was developed. They were also informed that the results would be analyzed in terms of group rather than individual data.
Participating offenders were also asked to respond to a questionnaire (data sheet) designed to gather demographical data.

The data sheet was administered following obtaining the consent form and the administration of the three assessments. If the assessments were administered in a group setting, then the demographic data form was administered one on one to insure confidentiality.

The following order was utilized in each administration of the battery of assessments:

1. Consent form (Appendix A).
2. Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Appendix B).
3. Interpersonal Dependency Inventory (Appendix C).
4. Extended Personality Attributes Questionnaire (Appendix D).

The test battery was administered to the probation subgroup between June and November of 1982, to the residential subgroup between May and September of 1982, and to the women at the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women at Mitchellville on two evenings in late September of 1982.

The researcher scored all of the tests by hand. Scoring sheets and templates were developed to aid the researcher in this aspect of the research.
Review of the Instruments Used

Three different questionnaire instruments were used for this study, as well as a participant profile questionnaire and a consent to participate form. Each of the five components of the data collection will be described in this section of Chapter 3.

The Texas Social Behavior Inventory, hereinafter referred to as the TSBI, was developed and published by Robert Helmreich, Joy Stapp, and Charles Ervin, from the University of Texas at Austin. The TSBI is a thirty-two item choice scale designed to assess individual perceptions of self-esteem. The inventory utilizes a five-alternative response schema on a Likert scale ("not at all characteristic of me" to "very much characteristic of me").

Development of the TSBI was begun in 1969 with the accumulation of a pool of sixty items dealing with aspects of personal worth and self-esteem. Originally, the scale was administered to over 1,000 male and female students enrolled in an introductory psychology class at the University of Texas at Austin. A factor analysis was conducted of the items in the scale leading to the development of the thirty-two item scale presently comprising the TSBI.¹

The thirty-two items in the scale are all declarative

statements for which there are five possible responses. All items are given scores ranging from zero to four with zero defining the response associated with low self-esteem and four the response characteristic of high self-esteem. The total score for each subject is the sum of all the items in the scale giving a possible range of zero to 128. Permission to use the scale was obtained from the office of the authors at the University of Texas at Austin.

The norms have proved to be highly stable and no significant differences between the sexes have been obtained on total scale scores. According to the testing manual, test-retest reliability is .94 for males and .93 for females. The norms were established by administering the TSBI to 271 women and 235 men in thirteen introductory psychology classes at the University of Texas at Austin during the 1973 Fall semester. The scale has also been found to be highly correlated with other self-esteem measures.

Subsequent to the development of the TSBI, two short (sixteen) item forms were developed. The decision to split the scale into two parallel forms was based on a desire for a short version which could be rapidly administered to large samples of populations, as well as the need for equivalent forms for use in research settings where retesting for changes in self-esteem is needed. The criteria for assignment to one of the two forms (TSBIA or TSBIB) were: (1) equivalence of part-whole correlations, (2) equivalence of
means between forms correlations, (3) equivalence of score distributions, (4) parallel factor structures selection of items was based on data from a sample of 248 males and females. Correlations between each short form and long (thirty-two item) scale were .97.\(^1\) Consequently, this researcher opted to utilize the short form (TSBIA) in the present research (Appendix B).

The TSBIA is largely self-administered. Questions are printed on a one-page questionnaire with blanks for responses next to each of the sixteen questions. The questionnaires were scored by hand by the researcher. Testing time took on the average of eight to ten minutes. Any questions during the course of the administration of the scale were answered by this writer or one of the three research assistants, although the participants were encouraged to make their own judgments whenever possible.

The Personal Attributes Questionnaire, hereinafter referred to as the PAQ, was developed by Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp. The PAQ is a self-report instrument designed to identify masculine and feminine (instrumental and expressive) traits. There are three main scales in the test. The Masculinity scale consists of items that are more characteristic of males than females and socially desirable to some degree in both sexes. The femininity scale consists of items judged to be more characteristic of females than males and socially desirable to some degree in both males and

\(^1\)Ibid.
females. The third scale, called the masculinity-femininity scale, contains items stereotypically differentiating the sexes and having different social desirability ratings for each.

Each item is set up on a five-point scale (a=very much like me to e=not at all like me). The respondent is requested to read each of the forty declarative statements and to place the most appropriate letter next to the statement identifying the degree to which the statement describes her. Each item is then scored from zero to four. Responses to masculinity and masculinity-femininity scale items are keyed in a "masculine" direction and responses to the femininity in a "feminine" direction. Total scores on each scale are obtained by summing the item scores.

The interpretation of the score is conducted by identifying the median scores of each respondent on the masculinity and femininity scales. The median is then used to classify individuals according to their position above or below the median, on masculinity and femininity.

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Use of the median split method then allows the researcher to categorize the respondents in the above quadrant into one of four categories: androgynous, masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated.

The authors noted that the verbal labels given to the four cells produced by the median split method should only be used as memory aids for the reader. They don't have absolute meaning but rather relative meaning. For example, androgynous individuals are those respondents that fall above the median in both the masculinity and femininity scales. Their scores are relative to others in the sample. Different normative groups with different medians may be used, consequently, a particular individual above the median on both masculinity and femininity in one normative group may be placed into a different cell when the standard is the median of another normative group.

The authors of the PAQ have also developed a shorter version. Correlations between the original fifty-five item scale and the short scales (twenty-four items) have been calculated (for college students) as .93, .93, and .91 for masculinity, femininity, and masculinity-femininity respectively.

The twenty-four item PAQ contains only items that are socially desirable for one or both sexes. Recently, the PAQ was extended (forty questions) to assess socially undesirable traits. The "negative" scales are added to the
positive scales to form the Extended-PAQ (EPAQ). The three new scales were: M (socially undesirable for both sexes containing masculine items), F (socially undesirable feminine traits), and FVA (neurotic, passive-aggressive traits). There is a total of sixteen additional questions on these three scales. The EPAQ was administered to the participants in the present study, consequently the twenty-four item shortened version (three positive scales) and the sixteen item negative scales comprised the forty item questionnaire.

Due to concern on behalf of the researcher in regard to reading levels of participants in the study, the EPAQ-intermediate (a further modification of the original PAQ) test was utilized (Appendix C). This test is based on a fifth-grade reading level. The EPAQ-intermediate test takes an average of twelve to eighteen minutes to complete and is hand scored.

The Interpersonal Dependency Inventory, hereinafter referred to as the IDI, was developed by the following six authors: Robert Hirschfeld, Gerald Klerman, Harrison Gough, James Barrett, Sheldon Kirchin, and Paul Chodoff, hereinafter referred to as Hirschfeld et al.

The authors assessed existing inventories utilized to assess levels of dependency and found that none of the devices dealt with the concept of interpersonal dependency in the way the aforementioned authors perceived it. Hirschfeld et al. defined interpersonal dependency as: "a complex of
thoughts, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors revolving around needs to associate closely with valued other people."¹

Hirschfeld et al. have combined three different aspects of dependency (the psychoanalytic theory of object relations, social learning theories of dependency, and the ethological theory of attachment) into one measurement device, the IDI (Appendix D).

The authors stated that:

psychoanalysis emphasizes the attainment of instinctual aims through interaction with social objects such as the mother, social learning theories consider dependency to be a learned drive, that is, one acquired in experience rather than being instinctual in the organism, and that the ethological theory (attachment) of dependency involves the affectional bond that one person (or animal) forms to another specific individual.²

Due to the lack of an appropriate inventory measuring the three aforementioned components of interpersonal dependency, the IDI was developed.

The authors wrote or modified from existing inventories ninety-eight items and developed an assessment placing the questions into nineteen categories on a subjective basis. The authors utilized a four-step weighting ranging from "very characteristic of me" to "not characteristic of me." For items reflecting dependence, values of 4-3-2-1 were used, while items reflecting independence were scored in the

¹Hirschfeld et al., p. 610.
²Ibid., pp. 610-11.
opposite direction, 1-2-3-4. The IDI takes approximately eight to ten minutes to complete.

Initially, the preliminary inventory was administered to two groups: 220 normal college students and 180 psychiatric patients. The 220 college students included 132 females and eighty-eight males (mean age of twenty-four). The psychiatric sample included 104 females and seventy-six males (mean age of thirty-four). Most respondents in both groups were white.

Hirschfeld et al. stated the following account of the procedure utilized to interpret the responses:

On the college sample, subscale scores for the nineteen clusters were obtained by summing the item weights; the 19 x 19 matrix of correlations was then computed and factored by means of a principal component method with normal varimax rotation. Four factors emerged with eigenvalues of 1.0 or above, accounting for 55% of the total variance in the matrix. Because this solution was not as congruent with our theoretical perspective as desired another factoring was carried out confining the analysis to three principal dimensions. This solution, accounting for 49% of the total variance in the matrix, was considered satisfactory and retained. A similar analysis for three factors was carried out on the sample of 180 psychiatric patients, accounting for 48%.¹

Hirschfeld et al. further stated that:

The two samples were then combined, and the matrix of correlations for all ninety-eight item responses for the 400 subjects was factored using a principal component method. A normal varimax rotation was performed on the three factor solution. Factor scores on the three dimensions were computed for each of the 200

¹Ibid., p. 612.
students and then correlated with the ninety-eight items; item by factor score correlations were also computed for the sample of 180 patients. A third source of information was furnished by the item loadings from the factor analysis of the 98 x 98 matrix of the combined sample of 400 subjects. The ninety-eight items in each sample were also correlated with the control and marker scales cited above. The items were then perused to determine which should be retained for indexing the three factorial dimensions. The criteria determining choice, in decreasing order of importance, were: (a) magnitude of correlation with or loading on the designated factor, (b) low correlation with or loading on the other two factors, (c) differentiation of mean values between patient and student samples, (d) low correlation with social desirability scale, (e) low correlation with the anxiety scale, (f) relative equivalence of mean values for male and female subsamples, and (g) diversification of content, to insure heterogeneity of the items within each subscale.¹

The procedure described led to the retention of the forty-eight items that comprise the IDI. The authors then developed three scales and assigned the appropriate questions to each scale as follows: (1) emotional reliance on another person (eighteen items), (2) lack of social self-confidence (sixteen items), and (3) assertion of autonomy (fourteen items).

Hirschfeld et al. computed the scores for all of the subjects which resulted in split-half reliabilities of .87, .78, and .72 respectively.

The psychiatric patients scored significantly higher (p < .01) on the scales for emotional reliance on another person and lack of social self-confidence, but were insignificantly different on assertion of autonomy.²

¹Ibid., p. 612. ²Ibid., pp. 614-16.
To obtain additional information regarding the validity of the measures, the inventory was administered to two additional samples: a group of 121 normals and sixty-six psychiatric outpatient subjects. There were sixty-four males and fifty-seven females (mean age = 41) in the normal population and nineteen males and forty-seven females (mean age = 31) in the psychiatric population.

The authors stated:

Correlations between emotional reliance on another person and lack of social self-confidence were 0.41 for the normal sample and 0.62 for the patient sample: between emotional reliance on another person and assertion of autonomy the correlations were 0.10 and 0.18 respectively; and between lack of social self-confidence and assertion of autonomy the coefficients were 0.16 and 0.34 respectively. Split-half reliabilities on the three scales for the normal sample were 0.86, 0.76, and 0.84 respectively and for the patient sample 0.85, 0.84, and 0.91. These results are quite similar to those obtained from the developmental samples. ¹

Hirschfeld et al. then analyzed the two different samples (the initial 400 subjects and the subsequent 187 subjects) in an attempt to measure the consistency of the factor structure. The results indicated "a greater similarity between the samples (i.e., the diagonals in each of the matrices of coefficients were all above 0.8, while the other coefficients were almost all below 0.25)."²

Hirschfeld et al. continued by stating that:

¹Ibid., p. 616.
²Ibid., p. 616.
The factor to scale relationship derived from the developmental samples was maintained in the cross-validational samples. This was investigated by subjecting the 48 x 48 matrices of item correlations for each of the two cross-validational samples to a principal component factor analysis and normal varimax rotation of the three factor solution. Using the magnitude of item factor loadings as the criterion for factor assignment, forty-three of forty-eight items were correctly assigned in the normal sample, and forty of forty-eight in the patient sample. The cross-sample consistency of the factor structure and cross-validation of the factor to scale relationship provide strong evidence that the scale composition represents a stable phenomenon.¹

Hirschfeld et al. recommended that the three scales of the IDI should be scored and reported separately and that a fourth cumulative score should also be used. Their 1977 article suggested that an ideal weighting of the three scales has yet to be designed. Consequently they developed the following algorithm: +3X scale 1 + 1X scale 2 + 1X scale 3. Raw scores for each scale would be interjected into this formula to derive an overall score for interpersonal dependency. The authors suggested in this algorithm that the scale measuring emotional reliance on another person is three times more important than the other two scales.

Therefore, when scoring the IDI, the researcher summed the scores on each scale, deriving three separate scores. The researcher designed a scoring template to expedite the scoring of the IDI. The scoring then offered the scores for the three subscales and the cumulative IDI score. In

¹Ibid., p. 616.
reviewing the aforementioned algorithm, it became apparent that the third scale (assertion of autonomy) reflected independence, whereas scales one and two (emotional reliance on another person and lack of social self-confidence, respectively) reflected measurement of dependence. Due to this discrepancy and the authors suggestion of summing all three scales to derive a cumulative score this researcher attempted to contact the primary author, Dr. Robert Hirschfeld, at the Clinical Research Branch of the National Mental Health Institute in Rockville, Maryland. The researcher was referred to a Maryland Consulting Firm (Group Operations, Inc.) who had contracted with the National Institute of Mental Health to utilize the IDI for research purposes. In that discussion the researcher learned that the algorithms triple weighting of the emotional reliance scale was due to the author's belief that emotional reliance on another person is three times more important than the aspects of dependency that the other two scales measure. It was also implied that the researcher needed to identify whether it was believed that the emotional reliance scale was three times more important than the other two aspects of dependency for the purpose of the present sample and study.

In regard to this researcher's question concerning the apparent error in the algorithm by the positive weighting of the assertion of autonomy scale (reflecting independence) rather than the negative weighting (reflecting dependence as
scales one and two) the consultant responded that scale three should be subtracted from the sum of scales one and two rather than added to scales one and two.¹

Consequently, the researcher opted to weight the emotional reliance scale equally with scales two and three and to subtract the assertion of autonomy scale score from the sum of scales one and two.

The last component of the administration of the battery of assessments was the data sheet (Appendix E). The data sheet was administered following the waiver form and the three assessments.

The purpose of the data sheet was to gather biographical and background data on each respondent. A description of the population will be offered in Chapter 4, however, no inferences will be made regarding the effect(s) of the different components of the profiles.

The respondent was asked to respond to a series of questions by the research assistant beginning with name, age and education. The question regarding race was filled in by the research assistant through observation. The respondent was then asked for what offense they were sentenced to their present correctional setting and the date of the sentence.

Information on prior record was obtained including

number of prior: juvenile commitments to training schools, juvenile probations, adult commitments to prison, and adult probations granted by the Court. The dates of each of the aforementioned sentences was also noted.

The research assistant then asked the respondent her marital status, number of children, present employment and county of residency upon commitment to their present correctional setting.

The researcher then compiled all of the demographic information and coded it by utilizing numbers assigned to each category within each question (i.e., marital status: single=1, married=2, separated=3, divorced=4, widow=5, common-law=6).

Analysis of the Data

A Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test the first null hypothesis, stating that: among female offenders there is not a negative relationship between levels of self-esteem and dependency.

One way analyses of variance followed by least square difference (LSD) tests were used to determine specific differences among groups in the second through seventh null hypotheses as follows:

2. Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than masculine female offenders.

3. Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.
4. Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

5. Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.

6. Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

7. Feminine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

A one-way analysis of variance (Anova) was used to test the eighth null hypothesis which stated: the level of dependency does not differ among female offenders in the three correctional settings.

A Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was used to test the ninth null hypothesis which stated that: there is not an inverse relationship between the level of self-esteem of the female offender and the level of restriction of the correctional setting.

A one-way analysis of variance was used to test the tenth and final null hypothesis, which stated that: the level of dependency of female offenders does not significantly differ among the four levels of psychological sex role attitude stereotypes; androgyny, masculinity, femininity, and undifferentiated.

The .05 level of probability was used throughout the study for rejecting null hypotheses and indicating the magnitude of the relationships and differences under investigation
in this research.

In summary, Chapter 3 presented to the reader the research design and methodology adopted for this dissertation.

The primary purpose of the research was to determine the relationships and differences between the three variables of: self-esteem, dependency, and sex role attitudes in a sample of offenders from three different correctional settings.

Two statistical tests were utilized in this analysis: the analysis of variance test and the Pearson Product Moment correlation test. The following chapter (Chapter 4) will present the findings of this research.
CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation of the Data

Introduction

The goal of this chapter will be to present an analysis of the data collected for this research. The chapter is divided into two parts: (1) demographic data, and (2) presentation of findings regarding the hypotheses adopted for this study.

Demographic Data

The basic demographic data that provide characteristics of the sample selected for this study are discussed in this section.

Each female offender was asked to respond to several demographic items in order to allow both the researcher and the reader a clear perception of the collective background of the sample's participants.

As shown in Table 1, the educational level of the respondents was quite similar. The residents of the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women had a mean educational level of 12.08 (higher than a high school education). The residents of the Fort Des Moines Residential Correctional Facility had the lowest mean educational level (11.68),
with the probation subgroup falling in between (11.80) the residential facility subgroup and the correctional institution subgroup. Although there were slight differences, the three populations were relatively homogeneous, but relatively wide variation was found in each grouping.

Table 1
Education of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean Education</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.80</td>
<td>1.915</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines Residential Facility</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.68</td>
<td>1.725</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.08</td>
<td>1.891</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>11.80</td>
<td>1.915</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subsequent tables will not offer a column for number of participants, as this is constant throughout the study (twenty-five probationers, twenty-five residents at Fort Des Moines, and twenty-five offenders at the Correctional Institution totaling the seventy-five women in the sample).

As reflected in Table 2, the reader is shown the racial composition of the sample. The sample was comprised of fifty-seven, 76.0 percent, white women and eighteen, 24.0 percent, black women. The probation department subgroup was
comprised of the largest number of black respondents, 32.0 percent, whereas the Fort Des Moines subgroup had the largest percentage of white participants, 84.0 percent. The respondents comprising the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women reflected the identical racial breakdown of the entire sample, 76 percent white and 24 percent black.

Table 2
Race of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>White No.</th>
<th>White Percent</th>
<th>Black No.</th>
<th>Black Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants were asked to indicate their ages. The mean age of the entire sample was 28.8. The median was also presented in Table 3 due to the wide range in ages of the respondents (eighteen to sixty-four years). The median for the sample was 26.75. The probation subgroup represented the youngest respondents of the sample (median = 26.75) whereas the correctional institution respondents had the oldest median age 30.00. The Fort Des Moines sample fell between the other two subgroups with a median age of 27.25.
As reflected in Table 4, the most serious offense for which the participants in the study were sentenced to their present correctional setting is shown.

The probationer subgroup had no participants sentenced for Class A (most serious) or Class B felonies. The majority, 52 percent, of the participants in the probation sample were sentenced to probation on Class C felonies. The Fort Des Moines subgroup was comprised of 60 percent felony sentences and 40 percent misdemeanor sentences. The Correctional Institution subgroup was comprised of 92 percent felony sentences, with only 8 percent of the offenders in prison being sentenced on misdemeanors.

The entire sample was comprised of almost 75 percent felons and 25 percent misdemeanants.
Table 4
Classification of Most Serious Offense of Participants in Female Offender Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classifications</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Agg</th>
<th>Ser</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Example of degree of felonies and misdemeanors are as follows:
Class A felony - murder (first degree)
Class B felony - arson, robbery (first degree)
Class C felony - burglary (second degree), theft (first degree)
Class D felony - forgery, theft (second degree)
Aggravated misdemeanor - prostitution, theft (third degree)
Serious misdemeanor - possession of a controlled substance

The Fort Des Moines Residential Facility and the probation department’s subgroups were quite similar in the composite of those sentenced for crimes against property compared to those sentenced for crimes against persons, with the Fort Des Moines subgroup having only two persons in the sample having been found guilty of committing crimes against persons. A total of 60 percent of the women serving their sentences in the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women at Mitchellville were committed for crimes against property, whereas 40 percent were sentenced for crimes against persons.
Table 5
Nature of Most Serious Offense of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Crime Against Property</th>
<th>Crime Against Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6
Length of Time (in Days) Served in Present Correctional Setting of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min/Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>216.64</td>
<td>180.25</td>
<td>125.9</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>22/469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>15.25</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1/130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>615.76</td>
<td>391.00</td>
<td>663.60</td>
<td>2279</td>
<td>1/2280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>457.73</td>
<td>2279</td>
<td>1/2280</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The length of time served in days varied greatly among the three correctional settings, as Table 6 reflected. The Fort Des Moines Facility subgroup was comprised of a
relatively new population with a median length of stay of just over two weeks. The probation department's length of stay ranged from twenty-two days to 469 days with a median of approximately 180 days. The institution's median length of stay was the highest (391 days) with a range of one to 2280 days.

Information regarding the past juvenile and adult criminal involvement of the participants in the study was also gathered. As reflected in Table 7, self-reported information on the frequency of probations that participants in the study received as juveniles is offered.

Table 7

Frequency of Juvenile Probations of Participants in Female Offender Report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>0(%)</th>
<th>1(%)</th>
<th>2(%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>24(96)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>23(92)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>2(8)</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>19(76)</td>
<td>5(20)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>66(88)</td>
<td>5(6.7)</td>
<td>4(5.3)</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority, 88 percent, of the offenders in the sample reported that they had never been on probation as juveniles. Another 6.7 percent reported one juvenile probation sentence and 5.3 percent reported two juvenile
probation sentences. Respondents from the Correctional Institution for Women reported the highest number of juvenile probation sentences (five claimed one probation and one claimed two sentences).

The women on probation and at Fort Des Moines were quite similar with 96 percent of the probationers and 92 percent of the residents at Fort Des Moines reporting zero juvenile probation.

As noted in Table 8, the frequency of juvenile commitments to training schools on behalf of the respondents in this study was reported.

| Table 8 |

Frequency of Juvenile Training School Commitments of Participants in Female Offender Report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>0(%)</th>
<th>1(%)</th>
<th>2(%)</th>
<th>4(%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>24(96)%</td>
<td>1(4)%</td>
<td>0(0)%</td>
<td>0(0)%</td>
<td>.04%</td>
<td>.20%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>23(95)%</td>
<td>0(0)%</td>
<td>0(0)%</td>
<td>2(8)%</td>
<td>.32%</td>
<td>1.11%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>19(76)%</td>
<td>5(20)%</td>
<td>1(4)%</td>
<td>0(0)%</td>
<td>.28%</td>
<td>.54%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>65(86)%</td>
<td>6(8)%</td>
<td>2(3)%</td>
<td>2(3)%</td>
<td>.24%</td>
<td>.75%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 8, all but one probation and two residential facility residents had never been committed as juveniles to a training school. A total of 76 percent of
the women serving their sentence at the Correctional Institution at Mitchellville reported that they had never been committed to a training school as juveniles, although 24 percent had been committed on one or two occasions.

As reflected in Table 9, the previous number of sentences to probation that the female offenders in this study had received was reported.

Table 9

Frequency of Prior Adult Probations of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>No. &amp; % Probations</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0(%)</td>
<td>1(%)</td>
<td>2(%)</td>
<td>3(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>20(80)</td>
<td>5(20)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>11(44)</td>
<td>10(40)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>13(52)</td>
<td>10(40)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>44(59)</td>
<td>25(33)</td>
<td>5(7)</td>
<td>1(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 9, over half, 59 percent, of all of the offenders in the sample had never been on adult probation prior to their current sentences. A total of 33 percent (n=25) had received one prior adult probation. The female probationers had the smallest number of prior probation, 20 percent, and the women serving their sentences at Fort Des Moines had the largest number of prior probation.
As reflected in Table 10, the reader may identify the frequency of prior adult sentences to prison for the women in the present study.

As illustrated in Table 10, 71 percent of the women in the study had no prior prison sentences. Some 15 percent of the offenders had one prior prison sentence and 14 percent had two or more prior prison sentences. The female probationers had the lowest number of prior prison sentences, 4 percent, and the women at the Fort Des Moines Facility had the highest number, 60 percent. The reader should keep in mind that at least one-third of the women at Fort Des Moines were serving work release sentences having recently been released from prison. Less than 25 percent of the women in the subgroup from the Correctional Institution at Mitchellville were serving sentences on subsequent offenses to prison.

As illustrated in Table 11, the reader may identify the marital status of the women in the present study. As noted, the largest single category of women, 33 percent, were divorced. Another 25 percent of the women were married and 23 percent single. In addition, 11 percent of the women reported that they were separated. The probation sample represented the largest number (nine) of single women. A total of 28 percent of the probation sample were divorced. The Fort Des Moines and prison subgroups had 36 percent of
Table 10
Frequency of Prior Adult Prison Sentences of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>0(%)</th>
<th>1(%)</th>
<th>2(%)</th>
<th>3(%)</th>
<th>8(%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>24(96)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>10(40)</td>
<td>7(28)</td>
<td>3(12)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>19(76)</td>
<td>3(12)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>2(8)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>53(71)</td>
<td>11(15)</td>
<td>4(5)</td>
<td>6(8)</td>
<td>1(1)</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11
Marital Status of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification and Percent of Marital Status</th>
<th>Single #/%</th>
<th>Married #/%</th>
<th>Separated #/%</th>
<th>Divorced #/%</th>
<th>Widow #/%</th>
<th>Common Law #/%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>9(36)</td>
<td>5(20)</td>
<td>2(8)</td>
<td>7(28)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>7(28)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>9(36)</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>1(4)</td>
<td>10(40)</td>
<td>2(8)</td>
<td>9(36)</td>
<td>3(12)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>17(23)</td>
<td>19(25)</td>
<td>8(11)</td>
<td>25(33)</td>
<td>5(7)</td>
<td>1(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the women in the divorced category. Finally, 40 percent of the women in the Correctional Institution at Mitchellville reported being married in comparison to only 16 percent of the women at Fort Des Moines and 80 percent on probation.

As reflected in Table 12, the reader is given information on the number of children reported by the women in the study as their own.

Table 12

Number of Children of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>0(%)</th>
<th>1(%)</th>
<th>2(%)</th>
<th>3(%)</th>
<th>4 or more</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>6(24)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>7(28)</td>
<td>5(20)</td>
<td>3(12)</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>10(40)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>2(8)</td>
<td>5(20)</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>7(28)</td>
<td>4(16)</td>
<td>8(32)</td>
<td>3(12)</td>
<td>3(12)</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>23(31)</td>
<td>12(16)</td>
<td>19(23)</td>
<td>10(13)</td>
<td>11(14)</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sixty-nine percent of the women in the sample had one or more children. The Fort Des Moines subgroup had the highest percentage of women with no children, 40 percent. The probation subgroup and the prison subgroup had a similar percentage of women reporting no children, 24 percent and 28 percent respectively.
As illustrated in Table 13, the reader is given information on employment figures of the female offenders in the present study.

Table 13

Employment Rates of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Employed No.</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Unemployed No.</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As reflected in Table 13, 48 percent of the probationers were employed at the time of the study, whereas 64 percent of the women at the Fort Des Moines Facility were employed. The overwhelming percentage of employment at the Correctional Institution at Mitchelville, 96 percent, reflected the correctional approach of the institution of employing virtually all of the residents within the facility in some capacity for which they are compensated.

As reflected in Table 14, the reader is given figures on county of residency upon commitment to the offender's respective correctional setting.
Table 14

County of Residency Upon Commitment to Present Correctional Setting for Participants of Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Polk County Sentences</th>
<th>Non-Polk County Sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As noted in Table 14, 92 percent of the women on probation to the Polk County Probation Office were Polk County residents at the time of their commitment, whereas only 8 percent of the women sentenced to the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women were Polk County residents. Less than half, 44 percent, of the women at the Fort Des Moines Facility were Polk County residents.

As illustrated in Table 15, information on sex role attitude classification for respondents in each of the three correctional settings are offered. Thirty-seven percent of the women in the study were classified as androgynous and 25 percent were classified as masculine. A total of 19 percent of the total sample were classified as feminine and another 19 percent as undifferentiated. There were higher
percentages of androgynous and masculine classified women in both the probation and prison subgroups than in the Fort Des Moines Facility subgroups. The Fort Des Moines Facility subgroup classification produced higher percentages of women in the feminine and undifferentiated groups than found in the probation and prison subgroups.

Table 15

Sex Role Category Classification of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Androgynous</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Undifferentiated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 illustrated levels of self-esteem for women in each of the three subgroups as well as the total sample. The highest mean score (44.04) on self-esteem was received by female probationers. The subgroup at the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women reflected the next highest mean score for self-esteem (42.8) with the subgroup at Fort Des Moines reflecting the lowest level of self-esteem (mean score=40.0). The total sample reported a mean score on
self-esteem of 42.28.

Table 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>44.04*</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>8.66</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>42.80</td>
<td>10.25</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>42.28</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The higher the number, the higher the level of self-esteem.

As shown in Table 17, levels of interpersonal dependency for participants in each of the three correctional settings, as well as the total sample was reported. The highest levels of interpersonal dependency were secured by the probation subgroup (mean=101.80). The correctional institution subgroup registered the lowest mean score on the dependency instrument (mean=95.00). The subgroup at Fort Des Moines registered the middle level of interpersonal dependency (mean score = 100.88). The mean dependency score for the total group was 99.23.
Table 17
Levels of Interpersonal Dependency of Participants in Female Offender Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>101.80*</td>
<td>17.42</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Des Moines</td>
<td>100.88</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional Institution</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>13.81</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td>99.23</td>
<td>13.81</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The higher the number, the higher the level of interpersonal dependency.

Null Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis Number One

Ho1: Among female offenders, there is not a negative relationship between self-esteem and dependency.

The null hypothesis was rejected on this item. The analysis indicated that there was a negative relationship (-.49) between level of self-esteem, as measured by the TSBIA, and dependency, as measured by the IDI (i.e., high levels of self-esteem is correlated with low levels of dependency and visa versa).

Null Hypotheses Number Two Through Seven

Ho2: Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than masculine female offenders.
Ho3: Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.

Ho4: Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

Ho5: Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.

Ho6: Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

Ho7: Feminine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.

Table 18 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance test on self-esteem scores (TSBIA) by sex role attitude categories (EPAQ). The F-test value was 6.786. It was significant at a level greater than .001, thus indicating a difference, consequently, a least squares difference test was run to indicate specifically what differences existed.

**Table 18**

ANOVA Summary Table: Self-Esteem Scores by Sex Role Attitude Category Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1331.4468</td>
<td>443.8156</td>
<td>6.786*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4643.6768</td>
<td>65.4039</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>5975.1235</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.001
The least squares difference (LSD) test identified the pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level. Table 19 reflects those pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level.

Table 19

Least Squares Difference Test of Pairs of Groups (Self-Esteem and Sex Role Attitude Categories) Different at the .05 Level (as Denoted by *)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TSBIA Mean</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sex Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35.4286</td>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.5714</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.6842</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.7857</td>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subsequently, null hypothesis number two, which stated that: androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than masculine female offenders failed to be rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Null hypothesis three which stated that: Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders was rejected at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis four, which stated that: Androgynous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders was rejected at the .05 level.
Null hypothesis five, which stated that: Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders failed to be rejected at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis six, which stated that: Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders was rejected at the .05 level.

Null hypothesis seven, which stated that: Feminine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders failed to be rejected at the .05 level.

Table 20
Sex Role Attitude Category by Self-Esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex Role Category</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>95% conf. int. for mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>46.7857</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>43.7046 to 49.8668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>42.6842</td>
<td>8.07</td>
<td>38.7915 to 46.5769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>39.5714</td>
<td>8.39</td>
<td>34.7316 to 44.4113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.4286</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>30.7559 to 40.1013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>42.2800</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>40.2126 to 44.3475</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 summarized the four sex role attitude category classifications (androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated) and the mean scores on the TSBI.
Null Hypothesis Eight

Ho8: The level of dependency does not differ among female offenders in the three correctional settings.

Table 21 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance test on dependency scores (IDI) by correctional settings. The F-test value was 1.509. The F probability score was .2280, therefore it was not significant at the .05 level. Subsequently, null hypothesis eight failed to be rejected and was held tenable.

Table 21
ANOVA Summary Table: Dependency Scores by Correctional Setting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>680.4878</td>
<td>340.2439</td>
<td>1.509(ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16234.6396</td>
<td>225.4811</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>16915.1270</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis Nine

Ho9: There is not an inverse relationship between the level of self-esteem of the female offender and the level of restriction of the correctional setting.

The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item. The analysis indicated that there was a negative relationship (-.05), between level of self-esteem and the correctional
setting but that the probability of this occurring by chance was too high. It was not significant at the .05 level.

Null Hypothesis Ten

H010: The level of dependency of the female offender does not differ significantly among the four levels of psychological sex role attitude stereotypes: androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated.

Table 22 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance test on dependency scores (IDI) by sex role attitude category. The F probability score was .1116, therefore, it was not significant at the .05 level. Subsequently, null hypothesis ten failed to be rejected and was held tenable.

Table 22
ANOVA Summary Table: Dependency Scores by Sex Role Attitude Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1361.5626</td>
<td>453.8542</td>
<td>2.072(ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>15553.5789</td>
<td>219.0645</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>16915.1406</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of Findings by Hypothesis

H01: Among female offenders, there is not a negative relationship between self-esteem and dependency.

The null hypothesis was rejected on this item.
Ho2: Androgy nous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than masculine female offenders.
The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item.
Ho3: Androgy nous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.
The null hypothesis was rejected on this item.
Ho4: Androgy nous female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.
The null hypothesis was rejected on this item.
Ho5: Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than feminine female offenders.
The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item.
Ho6: Masculine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.
The null hypothesis was rejected on this item.
Ho7: Feminine female offenders do not have higher levels of self-esteem than undifferentiated female offenders.
The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item.
Ho8: The level of dependency does not differ among female offenders in the three correctional settings.
The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item.
Ho9: There is not an inverse relationship between the level of self-esteem of the female offender and the level of restriction of the correctional setting.
The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item.
Ho10: The level of dependency of the female offender does not differ significantly among the four levels of
psychological sex role attitude stereotypes: androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated.

The null hypothesis failed to be rejected on this item.
CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

All findings, conclusions, and recommendations discussed in this chapter should be interpreted in the light of the limitations stated earlier in this dissertation. The limitations were: (1) the study did not address how levels of self-esteem, dependency, and psychological masculinity and femininity changed as the same offender progressed through the different stages of the criminal justice system. This research focused on levels of the three variables on the day of the testing; (2) the findings were somewhat limited in that they only dealt with female offenders in one probation department, one community correctional setting, and one women's reformatory; (3) the study did not discuss causality of female criminality. The study dealt with women who had already been identified by the criminal justice system in Iowa and had been sentenced to one of the aforementioned "correctional settings."
Summary

Purpose
The researcher designed this dissertation to analyze certain characteristics of the female offender and three assumptions about them that appear to be commonly held by professionals in the field, that female offenders: have low self-esteem, exhibit high dependency needs, and possess masculine sex role identities (see, for example: Payak, 1961, and Widom, 1978, 1979, 1981).

The intent of this study was to assess the relationships and differences between the three variables of: self-esteem, dependency, and psychological masculinity and femininity, and to identify the different levels of each of these variables in a sample of female offenders. The study was also designed to identify whether further penetration into the criminal justice system by the female offender was reflected by different levels of the aforementioned variables.

Procedure
The data were obtained by administering the Texas Social Behavior Inventory, the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory, and the Extended-Personal Attributes Questionnaire, and a demographic profile questionnaire to seventy-five adult female offenders in the Iowa criminal justice system. The sample consisted of the following three subgroups: twenty-five
women on probation to the Polk County probation department, twenty-five women committed to the Fort Des Moines Residential Correctional Facility, and twenty-five women serving their sentence in the Iowa Correctional Institution for Women at Mitchellville, Iowa. All three subgroups were comprised of women who volunteered to participate in the research.

The data were statistically treated to determine if there were differences and relationships between the three variables of: self-esteem, dependency, and psychological masculinity and femininity within the sample of seventy-five female offenders. The statistical analyses utilized to test the ten hypotheses included the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and the Analysis of Variance tests. The level of rejection to determine statistical significance was set at the .05 level.

**Conclusions**

The following conclusions were established, based upon the analysis of the data obtained.

The demographic profile questionnaire presented the following information:

Participants in the study had obtained an average education of 11.8 years. The racial composition of the sample included approximately 76.0 percent white and 24.0 percent black offenders.
The range in age of the sample was from eighteen to sixty-four years. The median age was 26.7 years of age. The majority of the offenders, 75 percent, were sentenced to their respective correctional settings on felony charges. Over four of five offenders, 82.7 percent were sentenced on property offenses. The length of time served in days in the respective correctional settings displayed a wide range, one to 2280 days. The median number of days served by the offenders in their respective settings was 457.73 days.

Approximately 88 percent of the sample reported that they had never been on probation as a juvenile and 86 percent reported they had never been sentenced to a training school as a juvenile.

Approximately 59 percent of the participants in the sample reported they had never been on adult probation and 71 percent reported zero prior prison commitments.

Regarding marital status of the offenders in the sample, 36 percent were married (11 percent of those were separated) and the largest category reported was 33 percent of the women who claimed to have been divorced. Approximately 69 percent of the women had at least one child and almost 70 percent of the offenders reported they were employed at the time of the study. About 48 percent reported they were committed from Polk County, Iowa.

The results of the E-PAQ reflected that 37 percent of
the women in the sample were classified as androgynous and 25 percent as masculine. Nineteen percent of the women fell in each of the feminine and undifferentiated categories. Consequently, there were more offenders in the androgynous classification than in any other single category. The masculine category represented only 25 percent of the offenders which indicated a lack of support for the assumption that female offenders generally possess a masculine sex role attitude. This finding supports previous research findings reported by Widom\(^1\) and Barack and Widom.\(^2\) Based upon the findings of this dissertation and prior research studies, the assumption of a "masculine" sex role identity on behalf of female offenders in general is quite questionable.

Results of the tabulation of scores of the TSBI provided a mean self-esteem score of the women in the sample was 42.28. The authors of the TSBI\(^3\) reported that the mean TSBI score on the thirty-two item scale for female college students was 83.24. If the mean score of 83.24 is halved (as would be methodologically sound) to represent the score for the sixteen item TSBIA then the mean score would be

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\(^1\)Widom, "Female Offenders: Three Assumptions About: Self-Esteem, Sex-Role Identity, and Feminism," pp. 365-82.

\(^2\)Barack and Widom, pp. 452-56.

\(^3\)Helmreich and Stapp, pp. 473-75.
41.62 or slightly lower than the mean score (42.28) of the sample studied in this dissertation. Although the focus of the present study was on three subgroups of offenders (a non-offender population was not studied), the lack of any significant difference of mean scores on self-esteem between the normative population samples reported by earlier authors and the collective data from offenders reported in this dissertation does suggest a lack of support for the assumption that female offenders generally suffer from lower self-esteem than normal populations. Widom also reported no significant differences in self-esteem between the offenders and non-offenders in her sample, although the non-offender women did have slightly higher scores on the self-esteem measure than the offender women.¹

The results of the tabulation of data of the IDI to the female offender sample reflected a mean dependency score of 99.23. The normative group in the Hirschfeld et al., 1977, study reported a mean score of 96.0 (when corrections are made to the formula as discussed in Chapter 3).² Consequently, the female offender sample recorded a higher (although non-significant) level of dependency than the non-offending women in the normative sample.

The findings regarding the hypotheses were as follows:

¹Widom, "Female Offenders," pp. 365-82.
²Hirschfeld et al., pp. 610-17.
1. There was a negative relationship between level of self-esteem and the level of dependency. Therefore, the findings indicated, as hypothesized, that low levels of self-esteem may be correlated with high levels of dependency.

2. The androgynous female offenders were not found to have significantly higher levels of self-esteem than the masculine female offenders. The mean score of the androgynous group was higher (46.78) than the mean score of the masculine group (42.68), although the difference was not significant.

3. The androgynous female offenders were found to have significantly higher (46.78) self-esteem scores than the feminine female offender group (39.57).

4. The androgynous female offenders were found to have significantly higher (46.78) self-esteem scores than the undifferentiated female offender group (35.42).

5. The masculine female offenders were not found to have significantly higher (42.68) self-esteem scores than the feminine female offender group (39.57). However, the mean self-esteem score of the masculine subgroup was higher than the mean self-esteem score of the feminine female subgroup.

6. The masculine female offenders were found to have significantly higher (42.68) self-esteem scores than the undifferentiated female offender group (35.42).

7. The feminine female offender group was not found to have significantly higher (39.57) self-esteem scores than the undifferentiated female offenders (35.42).
8. The level of dependency did not differ significantly among the female offenders in the three correctional settings. It was hypothesized that the level of dependency among the women in the three subgroups would differ between the three correctional settings. It was assumed that women in prison would be more dependent than women on probation, although data analysis did not indicate a significant difference. The findings suggested that dependency may be a somewhat constant personality characteristic and that the object (i.e., noun, place, or person...a specific object of reference upon which or whom one is dependent) of the dependency may change even if levels (i.e., intensity) of dependency do not.

9. There was not a significant negative relationship between the level of self-esteem of the female offender and the level of restriction of the correctional setting. There was a negative relationship but it was not significant. The residents at the Fort Des Moines Facility were found to have the lowest mean level of self-esteem (40.00) in the sample. A possible reason for this could be the short median length of time in the correctional setting (15.25 days). It was hypothesized that there would be an inverse relationship between level of self-esteem and level of the restriction of the correctional setting. It was assumed that the lowest level of self-esteem would be reported by women in prison and the highest by women on probation, if in fact institutionalization had a negative impact on self-esteem. This
direction was indicated but it was not significant at the .05 level. It should be noted that during the course of this research it became evident to the author that many of the women in prison subjectively reported that they were experiencing higher self-esteem due to the feedback they received from institutional personnel and other offenders.

10. The level of dependency of the female offender did not differ significantly among the four levels of psychological sex role attitude stereotypes: androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated.

The feminine subgroup did report the highest mean level of dependency, 105.00, on the IDI supporting an assumption that a characteristic of the feminine stereotype may be dependency.

Recommendations

As a result of the outcome of this study, the following recommendations for further study were offered.

1. Similar research should be conducted on a larger sample. Both the research conducted by Widom and the present research by this author suggested that the level of self-esteem among female offenders may not be much different than the level of self-esteem in a normal population. Both Widom's research and the findings of this dissertation also both suggested that the female offender was not typically "masculine" in her sex role identity. Perhaps further
research in these two areas, as well as in the area of interpersonal dependency, on a larger scale could further confront the assumptions addressed in this dissertation.

2. Investigations with other correctional samples (i.e., juvenile females, and levels of the variables assessed on the same women at different levels of the correctional system) should be undertaken to enable the findings to be generalized to a larger scope of offenders.

3. A longitudinal study should be undertaken to identify the changes in the levels of self-esteem, dependency, and sex role categories within the same offenders over time.

4. Similar studies should be undertaken with the caution of obtaining random samples rather than volunteers.

5. A study should be undertaken to identify the shift in object choice of dependency in relationships of female offenders in various stages of the correctional system.
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BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books


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Dissertations


Other Sources


APPENDIX A

CONSENT TO ACT AS A RESEARCH PARTICIPANT
CONSENT TO ACT AS A RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

I hereby agree to allow ____________________________
to perform the following assessments on me for research purposes:

1. The Texas Social Behavior Inventory
2. The Extended Personality Attributes Questionnaire
3. The Interpersonal Dependency Inventory

These assessments will take no longer than an average of 60 minutes to complete.

The purpose of the assessments are to gather data on women in the criminal justice system in Iowa.

I understand that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may decline to enter this study or may withdraw from it at any time without jeopardy to my further treatment.

I further understand that my name will not be used in the reporting of the findings of the research.

This information was explained to me by ____________________________.
I understand that s/he will answer any questions I may have concerning this experiment or the procedures of the experiment at any time.

_________________________________                ______________________________________
Researcher Name                                    Participant Name

_________________________________                ______________________________________
Date                                               Date
APPENDIX B

TEXAS SOCIAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY
TEXAS SOCIAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Name _______________________________ Date __________

Instructions: The Texas Social Behavior Inventory is designed to gather background and social behavior data. Be sure to fill in your name and today's date. The letters a, b, c, d and e correspond to the blanks beside each number on the questionnaire. When you decide which letter is the best answer for a particular question, fill in the line provided beside that question.

a = not at all characteristic of me
b = not very characteristic of me
c = slightly characteristic of me
d = fairly characteristic of me
e = very much characteristic of me

____ 1. I am not likely to speak to people until they speak to me.

____ 2. I would describe myself as self-confident.

____ 3. I feel confident of my appearance.

____ 4. I am a good mixer.

____ 5. When in a group of people, I have trouble thinking of the right things to say.

____ 6. When in a group of people, I usually do what the others want rather than make suggestions.

____ 7. When I am in disagreement with other people, my opinion usually prevails.

____ 8. I would describe myself as one who attempts to master situations.

____ 9. Other people look up to me.

____ 10. I enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.

____ 11. I make a point of looking other people in the eye.

____ 12. I cannot seem to get others to notice me.
13. I would rather not have very much responsibility for other people.


15. I would describe myself as indecisive.

16. I have no doubts about my social competence.
INTERPERSONAL DEPENDENCY INVENTORY

Name ___________________________ Date ______________

Instructions: 48 statements are presented below. Please read each one and decide whether or not it is characteristic of your attitudes, feelings, or behavior. Then assign a rating to every statement, using the values given below:

4 = very characteristic of me  
3 = quite characteristic of me  
2 = somewhat characteristic of me  
1 = not characteristic of me

____ 1. I prefer to be by myself.

____ 2. When I have a decision to make, I always ask for advice.

____ 3. I do my best work when I know it will be appreciated.

____ 4. I can't stand being fussed over when I am sick.

____ 5. I would rather be a follower than a leader.

____ 6. I believe people could do a lot more for me if they wanted to.

____ 7. As a child, pleasing my parents was very important to me.

____ 8. I don't need other people to make me feel good.

____ 9. Disapproval by someone I care about is very painful for me.

____ 10. I feel confident of my ability to deal with most of the personal problems I am likely to meet in life.

____ 11. I'm the only person I want to please.

____ 12. The idea of losing a close friend is terrifying to me.

____ 13. I am quick to agree with the opinions expressed by others.
14. I rely only on myself.

15. I would be completely lost if I didn't have someone special.

16. I get upset when someone discovers a mistake I've made.

17. It is hard for me to ask someone for a favor.

18. I hate it when people offer me sympathy.

19. I easily get discouraged when I don't get what I need from others.

20. In an argument, I give in easily.

21. I don't need much from people.

22. I must have one person who is very special to me.

23. When I go to a party, I expect that the other people will like me.

24. I feel better when I know someone else is in command.

25. When I am sick, I prefer that my friends leave me alone.

26. I'm never happier than when people say I've done a good job.

27. It is hard for me to make up my mind about a TV show or movie until I know what other people think.

28. I am willing to disregard other people's feelings in order to accomplish something that's important to me.

29. I need to have one person who puts me above all others.

30. In social situations I tend to be very self-conscious.

31. I don't need anyone.

32. I have a lot of trouble making decisions by myself.
33. I tend to imagine the worst if a loved one doesn't arrive when expected.

34. Even when things go wrong I can get along without asking for help from my friends.

35. I tend to expect too much from others.

36. I don't like to buy clothes by myself.

37. I tend to be a loner.

38. I feel that I never really get all that I need from people.

39. When I meet new people, I'm afraid that I won't do the right thing.

40. Even if most people turned against me, I could still go on if someone I love stood by me.

41. I would rather stay free of involvements with others than to risk disappointments.

42. What people think of me doesn't affect how I feel.

43. I think that most people don't realize how easily they can hurt me.

44. I am very confident about my own judgment.

45. I have always had a terrible fear that I will lose the love and support of people I desperately need.

46. I don't have what it takes to be a good leader.

47. I would feel helpless if deserted by someone I love.

48. What other people say doesn't bother me.
APPENDIX D

EXTENDED PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES QUESTIONNAIRE
THE EXTENDED PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____________________________ Date ________________

Instructions: Each of the 40 statements on this questionnaire asks you to say what kind of a person you think you are. For example, here is a sentence: "I watch TV all the time." If you watch TV all the time, that sentence is very much like you. If you watch TV a lot, then the sentence is mostly like you. Or you may watch TV only a little bit--then the sentence is a little like you.

Please fill in your name and today's date. The letters a, b, c, d, and e correspond to the blanks beside each number in the questionnaire. When you decide which letter is the best answer for a particular question, fill in that letter on the line provided beside that question.

a = very much like me
b = mostly like me
c = somewhat like me
d = a little like me
e = not at all like me

____ 1. I am a very forceful, "take charge" kind of person.

____ 2. When things go wrong, I get upset and whiny.

____ 3. I am able to do tough things by myself if I have to and I don't need other people to help me or tell me what to do.

____ 4. I feel that "I'm the greatest" and better than other people.

____ 5. I am very emotional. (That means my feelings get stirred up easily).

____ 6. I give in to other people easily and let them tell me what to do.

____ 7. I brag a lot about myself and what I do.

____ 8. I get very upset and excited when big things go wrong.

____ 9. I am very busy and active.
10. I am a self-centered person. I want things to go my way.
11. I really like to do things for other people.
12. I haven't got a lot of nerve and have trouble standing up for myself.
13. I am NOT very gentle.
14. I complain a lot about things not going right.
15. I am very helpful to other people.
16. I enjoy trying to win games and contests.
17. I stay in the background and let other people tell me what to do.
18. I am a greedy person.
19. I am NOT very kind to other people.
20. It's very important to me that people like me and approve of the things I do.
21. I am a bossy person.
22. My feelings are NOT hurt easily.
23. I nag people a lot to get them to do things.
24. I don't pay much attention to how other people are feeling.
25. When I have to decide about something important, it's hard for me to make up my mind.
26. I am a fussy person who is easily annoyed and irritated.
27. I give up very easily.
28. Most people are out for themselves. I don't trust them very much.
29. I hardly ever cry.
30. I feel sure I can do most of the things I try.
31. I remind myself that I'm "number one" and have to look out for myself.
32. I am better at doing most things than other people.
33. Lots of times people are out to do me wrong and I try to pay them back.
34. I try to understand how other people are feeling.
35. I am a very warm, friendly person.
36. I try to please people and make them like me by giving in to them.
37. I like to play things safe and not take chances.
38. I am very trustful of people so it's easy for them to fool me.
39. When I'm in a tough spot, I get very bothered and don't know what to do.
40. I am a very loud person.
APPENDIX E

DATA SHEET/RESEARCH ON FEMALE OFFENDERS
DATA SHEET
RESEARCH ON FEMALE OFFENDERS

NAME
AGE

EDUCATION
RACE

OFFENSE

CORRECTIONAL SETTING

DATE OF COMMITMENT TO PRESENT CORRECTIONAL SETTING

NUMBER OF PRIOR DATES ENCOMPASSED

JUVENILE COMMITMENTS

JUVENILE PROBATIONS

ADULT COMMITMENTS

ADULT PROBATIONS

MARRITAL STATUS

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

PRESENT EMPLOYMENT

COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE UPON COMMITMENT

ASSESSMENT SCORES:

EPAQ-1

TSBI

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