

HOW DOES A WEAK VERSUS STRONG SENSE OF
SELF AFFECT PEOPLE'S SOCIAL AND
NONSOCIAL INVOLVEMENTS?

by

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ABSTRACT

HOW DOES A WEAK VERSUS STRONG SENSE OF SELF AFFECT PEOPLE'S SOCIAL AND NONSOCIAL INVOLVEMENTS?

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Does possessing either a strong or weak sense of self predict the number and percentage of one's self-selected social and/or nonsocial involvements? The current study is a retrospective survey study that sought to answer this and other questions. The data from three samples, using 418 total participants, revealed that sense of self was significantly correlated with the percentage of self-selected activities and the total number of self-selected jobs, and was correlated at a marginal level of significance with the total number of self-selected activities. Strength and clarity of sense of self (a combined factor of sense of self and self-concept clarity) significantly predicted a participant's total number of self-selected activities, total number of hobbies and interests, and total number of self-selected hobbies and interests. In addition, the variables of gender and neuroticism predicted certain aspects of a participant's social participation. Sense of self is, therefore, a stable correlate of self-selected activity choice, but it does not appear to predict the number of dating relationships for females, nor the cross-temporal continuity in people's chosen activities.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

During much of the past century, the research on social participation (the type of activities a person engages in) has examined various aspects of participation and its many ties to human psychology. From Allport and Allport's (1921) seminal work on personality traits and social participation to the time of the present study, social participation research has examined the links between social participation and other topics such as leadership (Browne, 1949; Smith & Nystrom, 1937), crime and juvenile delinquency (Atwood, 1933; Wood, 1942), life in farming communities (Mangus & Cottam, 1941), how the level of social participation changes during early adulthood (Reis, Lin, Bennett, & Nezelek, 1993), the effect of depression on social interaction (Nezelek, Imbrie, & Shean, 1994), and the social participation of both young children (Parten, 1932; Parten & Newhall, 1943; Schindler, Moely, & Frank, 1987) and the elderly (Harlow & Cantor, 1996).

Individual Differences in Social Participation

In a groundbreaking study of personality differences and their ties to social participation, Allport and Allport (1921) argued that an individual's level of social participation is the truest marker of his or her personality type. They reported a correlation of 0.40 between an individual's level of extraversion and his or her level of social participation. In other words, individuals who were highly extraverted engaged in more social participation than their less extraverted counterparts.

Other findings relevant to the relationship between personality and aspects of social participation have been reported by Watson (1988) and others (Clark & Watson, 1988; Von Dras & Siegler, 1997; Watson, Clark, McIntyre, & Hamaker, 1992). Adding a potential affective correlate to Allport and Allport's (1921) study of the link between extraversion and social participation, the work of Watson and his colleagues focused specifically on the connection

between positive affect and the individual's type and level of social participation. Watson (1988, p. 1020) defined positive affect (PA) as "reflecting one's level of pleasurable engagement with the environment." He noted that individuals who were higher in PA were more enthusiastic, energetic, mentally alert, and determined (Watson, 1998). Based on previous research on the topic (Beiser, 1974; Bradburn, 1969; Costa & McCrae, 1980; Emmons & Diener, 1985; Phillips, 1967; all as cited in Watson, 1988), Watson hypothesized that self-reports of daily participation in social activities would correlate with positive affect but not with negative affect. In other words, individuals who were happier (i.e. those who reported more positive affect) were expected to engage in a greater number of social activities than those with a more negative affective style. This hypothesis was supported: the respondents who engaged in more social activities felt better about themselves and had a more positive outlook on life. Clark and Watson (1988) studied this phenomenon cross-culturally with Japanese college students and found the same effect. Most notably, positive affect was greater on days when the respondents reported participating in at least one social activity.

Replicating Watson's (1988) and Clark and Watson's (1988) finding of a positive correlation between PA and social activities, Watson et al. (1992) found that both the trait of extraversion and measures of positive state affect correlated significantly with socializing. Based on Tellegen's (1985; as cited by Watson et al.) view that extraversion reflects an individual's disposition to experience positive feeling states, Watson et al. asserted that measures of PA are substantially related to the trait of extraversion. As expected, they found that individuals who socialized more frequently (i.e., were more extraverted) also experienced greater levels of well-being. In particular, they found that individuals reported being in a better mood on days when they socialized with at least one other person.

Exploring further the relationship between extraversion and social activity, Von Dras and Siegler (1997) investigated whether extraversion would influence one's level of social support. They found that extraversion was positively correlated with the amount of self-reported

social activity, the amount of social support received from others, and the likelihood of seeking support when confronted with a trying or stressful situation. Consistent with the findings of Allport and Allport (1921), these findings suggest that individuals who are higher on extraversion are more likely to seek out the companionship and support of others. This causal ordering (extraversion → sociability) is a plausible one given the cross-temporal stability (high test-retest reliability) of most extraversion measures.

Social Participation via Relations with Members of the Opposite Sex

An important way that individuals can express themselves socially is through interactions with members of the opposite sex, such as in dating and romantic relationships. As Reis, Lin, Bennett, and Nezlek (1993) have noted, participation in social activities with members of the opposite sex are very important in the lives of young adults, and much of people's free time during this part of their lives is spent participating in as well as thinking about friends, family, and romantic partners. Reis and his colleagues further noted that satisfying social bonds promote psychological well-being and happiness, further enhancing psychological health (Reis, Lin, Bennett, & Nezlek, 1993). On the other hand, the absence of social contact and intimate relations with close friends and relatives can also lead to sadness and despair (Reis, Lin, Bennett, & Nezlek, 1993).

The goal of the research by Reis et al. (1993) was to demonstrate within a longitudinal design that the frequency of participation in different types of social relationships changes from college age to adulthood. Specifically, they hypothesized that opposite-sex interactions, especially romantic interactions, would be more common in adulthood than during college, and that same-sex interactions would subsequently decrease during this time. Their findings supported these hypotheses by showing that, during the period from college age to early adulthood (26-31 years of age), the number of same-sex and group interactions decreased, the number of mixed-sex interactions did not change, and the number of opposite-sex interactions increased significantly (Reis et al., 1993). Regarding the amount of time spent socializing, the

findings for this dependent measure showed a similar trend in that the amount of time spent with same-sex and mixed-sex others decreased, while the amount of time spent interacting with opposite-sex others increased.

Although Reis and his colleagues found that as most people get older they engage in more opposite-sex interactions, some people may have a more difficult time engaging in and developing those interactions, regardless of age. For example, the personal relationships of individuals with a weak sense of self may suffer as a result of their lack of knowledge of themselves and what kind of partner might be right for them (Flury & Ickes, 2007).

Social Participation, Extraversion, and Leadership

Participating in social activities and functions is a requirement of most leadership and political positions. As noted above, there is a positive correlation between a person's level of extraversion and his or her level of participation in social activities (Allport & Allport, 1921; Von Dras & Siegler, 1997). It therefore follows that one predictor of leader effectiveness or of a potential political candidate's success should be his or her level of extraversion. Indeed, Judge and Bono (2000) found that both extraversion and agreeableness were significant and positive predictors of transformational leadership. Bono and Judge (2004) replicated this finding and reported that, in their sample, extraversion was the strongest and most stable correlate of transformational leadership. Judge, Bono, and Ilies (2002) further found that, among the Big Five personality dimensions, the trait of extraversion was the strongest correlate of both leadership and leader effectiveness.

Similarly, Riggio, Riggio, and Salinas (2003) found that the leaders who were elected by groups of undergraduate students who were working on a problem-solving task were individuals who were judged to be more extraverted and who actually spoke more. Riggio and his colleagues further found that individuals who were more effective communicators were also rated as better leaders. All of these findings make sense in that leadership positions, such as running for and holding political office, require a high degree of sociality and numerous public

appearances (usually speaking engagements), making those roles more appropriate for people who score high on the trait of extraversion.

Examining the link between leadership and social participation, Smith and Nystrom (1937) examined differences between high school leaders and non-leaders (as rated by teachers) in their level of participation in extra-curricular activities, as well as the differences between these two groups in seeking leadership positions as a means of social recognition. The authors hypothesized that there would be a marked difference in the amount of social interaction of leaders and non-leaders. Their results supported this contention and indicated that leaders, as a whole, participated in a greater average number of social activities than non-leaders.

This finding makes sense in that leaders and political candidates, by the requirements of their “job descriptions,” should be outgoing, confident, and self-assured. I would further argue that they should also possess a higher degree of self-knowledge (a stronger sense of self) than non-leaders. The need to quickly make important decisions requires that these individuals have a strong confidence in their convictions. They cannot waver in their principles or values and must both publicly present and maintain those beliefs in the face of fierce counterargument. Possessing a strong and confident sense of themselves would allow leaders to hold true to their convictions, enabling them to more effectively and persuasively convince others to adopt and endorse their views.

Sense of Self and Social Participation—Goals of the Current Research

Historically, the research on social participation has examined a wide range of topics, including individual differences in social participation, relations with members of the opposite sex, and the link between social participation and leadership roles. Many of these topics have been briefly discussed above. However, although previous research has examined links between social participation, the work in this area has yet to focus on the *motives* behind one’s choice of activity. Is there, for example, an aspect of personality that may drive the choice of

which activities an individual considers “right” for him or her? Are there individual differences in how people choose what kinds of social activities they are likely to experience and enjoy? I suggest that there are.

These differences may lie within a person’s knowledge of themselves, a concept Flury and Ickes (2007) define as an individual’s sense of self. The basic idea is that individuals who know themselves well (those who possess a strong sense of self) may be better able to decide for themselves (self-select) which activities they will enjoy and subsequently participate in. On the other hand, individuals who do not know themselves as well (those who possess a weak sense of self) may be forced to rely on the outside recommendations of others, because their own interests, desires, and beliefs are essentially foreign to them. To put it another way, individuals with a stronger sense of self are in a better position to know which pastimes they will enjoy and benefit from than individuals with a weaker sense of self, who may require the outside influence of others to push or draw them into participating in certain activities.

What does having a weak versus strong sense of self entail? People with a weak sense of self have been characterized by instability in their desires, motives, and beliefs (Flury & Ickes, 2007). The basic self-defining criteria that many of the rest of us take for granted is foreign to them (Flury & Ickes, 2007) and in pathologically extreme cases, people with a weak sense of self may even feel as if they do not exist at all; they report that their very existence is tenuous and subject to question, and they may require constant validation by others. Individuals with a weak sense of self also report having a fragile sense of identity and may therefore display what Flury and Ickes describe as a “succession of tenuous, situation-based identities” (p. 282). These changing identities may help to account for corresponding changes in their wants, desires, interests, values, career goals, and so on.

This tenuous and unstable self-definition on the part of people who have a weak sense of self contrasts sharply with the strong and stable self-definition of individuals who possess a strong sense of self. These individuals are assumed to have a clear and concrete sense of

themselves that is firmly rooted in their identity. They should therefore have relatively few questions about who they are and/or what they want (Flury & Ickes, 2007).

Kernis (2005) argued that people with a strong sense of self are characterized by a high level of self-knowledge and a strong and secure feeling of self-worth, whereas people with a weak sense of self grapple with self-doubt and often exhibit behaviors that are driven by externally-based motives and desires. Kernis linked these hypothesized differences in sense of self to corresponding differences in self-regulatory styles and the extent to which “people engage in goal-directed activities for reasons that reflect varying degrees of choicefulness, self-determination, and integration with one’s core self” (p. 15). He distinguished four self-regulatory styles based on the level of self-determination each style required. In order from the lowest level of self-determination to the highest level, the four self-regulatory styles are *external*, *introjected*, *identified*, and *intrinsic* regulation (Kernis, 2005). Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1991) posits that the most highly functioning adults will use *identified* and *intrinsic* regulation more than *external* and *introjected* regulation (Kernis, 2005).

Based on Kernis’s (2005) theoretical view of the link between the strength of one’s sense of self and one’s level of self-determination, I explored the role that people’s sense of self plays in their self-selected social involvements. Self-selected involvements are, by definition, involvements that are self-selected. Although multiple motives for self-selected involvements may exist, one important motive should be to allow an individual’s sense of self to be more fully expressed in the activity or involvement that is chosen. Note that the causal arrow in this relationship is likely to be bi-directional such that having a strong sense of self should lead people to take on more self-selected involvements, which in turn should strengthen one’s sense of self by reinforcing the aspects of one’s identity that guided the original selection of the involvement.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. My first hypothesis was that people with a strong sense of self would report a greater number and percentage of “self-selected” involvements than would people with a weak sense of self, and that this difference would be evident across a range of life domains. In line with this prediction, I expected that the respondents’ sense of self score would be correlated with the extent to which “internal” motives led to their participation in activities such as their hobbies and interests, the clubs and organizations in which they are members, their sports activities, dating partners (for males only), choice of college major, and/or career goals.

Hypothesis 2. My second hypothesis was that females with a weak sense of self would report having more dating partners throughout middle school, high school, and college than their stronger sense of self counterparts. This prediction, which at first glance seems to differ from, but is actually consistent with, the logic underlying Hypothesis 1, follows from the lack of self-knowledge that should accompany a weak sense of self for females. This hypothesis does not hold for males because they are afforded an important advantage in being the ones who, by convention, ask a woman for a date. A male with a weak sense of self, unlike similar females, is able to take the necessary time to decide which members of the opposite sex they find attractive. Females are not afforded this luxury. Many females must come up with determinations “on the spot” of whether or not they will choose to accept a date from a male. If females who possess a weak sense of self do not know what kind of dating partners are “right” for them, they should be likely to change dating partners many times to suit their ever-changing view of themselves and what they currently find attractive in members of the opposite sex.

Hypothesis 3. My third hypothesis was that people with a stronger sense of self would retrospectively report greater continuity in their self-selected activities throughout the three life periods under investigation (middle school, high school, and college). Because people with a weak sense of self lack a clear understanding of their more stable and long-term wants or desires, they should successively adopt and then discard many different activities as their transient desires change over time. In contrast, people with a stronger sense of self should be

more in tune with their stable wants and desires, and should therefore choose involvements that, once made, are more likely to be sustained over different periods of their lives.

Rationale for the Data Analytic Strategy Used in the Present Studies

The three correlational studies reported here differ only with respect to the set of psychological scales administered in each, with each subsequent study adding one or more scales to those included in the previous study.

Study 1. In the first study, three personality measures were administered: the Sense of Self Scale (Flury & Ickes, 2007), the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability (a measure of neuroticism; IPIP), and Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). All three of these personality measures were administered in addition to the Personal Background Survey (PBS), a multiple-item questionnaire assessing various aspects of a participant's self-reported social activities, including his or her hobbies and interests, clubs and organizations, sports activities, dating partners, work history, and certain aspects of his or her family background, such as socioeconomic status and parents' level of education.

Study 2. Following further review of the relevant literature after data collection for the first study had begun, I became aware of the conceptual similarity between the sense of self construct and Campbell et al.'s (1996) idea of self-concept clarity (SCC). To test the possibility that sense of self is linked conceptually with self-concept clarity, I collected data for self-concept clarity by including the Self-Concept Clarity Scale (Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavalley, & Lehman, 1996) in the Study 2 sample. The additional data on self-concept clarity were used to determine whether sense of self and self-concept clarity tapped the same underlying construct or whether they made unique contributions to the prediction of people's social and non-social involvements. Study two was therefore a replication and—with the addition of the SCCS—a modest extension of Study one.

Study 3. Based on the recommendations of my thesis committee members, I used Study 3 to explore the possible conceptual ties between sense of self, self-monitoring, the

contingencies from which individuals draw their level of self-worth, and the Big Five personality dimensions. To test these relations, I included three additional personality scales to those used in Study two: Snyder and Gangestad's (1986) 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale, Crocker et al.'s (2003) Contingent Self-Esteem Measure, and Gosling et al.'s (2003) Ten Item Personality Inventory. Study 3 was, therefore, a further replication and extension of both Studies 1 and 2.

Why is there only one results section if there are three "studies?" The additional scales used in each subsequent study were included solely as a means of assessing the predictiveness of other constructs in addition to those already assessed in the previous samples. Because no new procedural changes were implemented with each additional study (only the inclusion of additional scales), I chose to aggregate the data for all three samples into one combined dataset to simplify and streamline the test of the research hypotheses and the presentation of other results. This pooling of the data also afforded increased statistical power, which was useful in testing the significance of more subtle effects.

To ensure that I would report only *replicable effects*, I first did separate analyses of the data in each of the three studies and then identified the subset of statistically significant effects where the pattern of means was the same in all three. This method of error control tended to eliminate "chance" effects and enabled a greater degree of confidence in the ones that were found across all three samples, thereby reducing the chance of committing Type I error. Further, in those cases where the *post hoc* analyses are dependent upon the replication of effects from one study to the next, the use of the pooled data was the only appropriate option.

Given this data analytic strategy, I will describe in succession the methods used in each of the three studies, and will then present the cross-study findings within a single, integrated Results and Discussion section.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD—STUDY 1

Participants

The participants in Study 1 were 94 undergraduate students (69 females and 25 males) who were enrolled in psychology courses at the University of Texas at Arlington. There were 17 Asian participants, 15 Black (African American) participants, 5 Latino participants, 53 White participants, and 3 participants reporting an ethnicity of Other. Participant ages ranged from 17 to 42 years of age ($M = 20.73$, $SD = 3.785$). With regard to socioeconomic status, 20 participants reported an annual family income of “less than \$50K,” 23 reported “\$50-\$75K,” 20 reported “\$75-\$100K,” and 27 participants reported a family income of “more than \$100K.” All participants received course credit for their participation. No other compensation to the participants was offered.

Materials

The materials in this study consisted of individual “packets” that the participants received upon entering the experiment site. Each packet contained four questionnaires, three of which were personality measures: The Sense of Self Scale (Flury & Ickes, 2007), the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability (Goldberg, 1992; International Personality Item Pool; Saucier, 1997), and Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Measure (1965; see Table 2.1 for descriptive statistics).

Table 2.1 Descriptive Statistics for All Seven Personality Measures

	Min	Max	Mean	SE	SD	Skew	Kurtosis
SOSS	13	66	48.78	0.534	11.004	-0.729	0.050
Neuro	10	47	27.06	0.407	8.404	0.108	-0.717
SE	14	50	41.58	0.348	7.184	-0.840	0.254
SCC	16	60	43.64	0.525	9.536	-0.301	-0.724
Crock	10	68	40.99	0.909	10.604	-0.218	0.573
SM	0	18	9.57	0.323	3.769	-0.079	-0.319
TIPI	25	70	50.76	0.669	7.807	-0.063	-0.004

These last two scales were included to permit a test of the unique predictive validity of the sense of self measure in relation to measures of neuroticism and self-esteem. The fourth item in the packet, titled Personal Background Survey, was a multiple-item questionnaire on which the participants answered questions regarding their hobbies and interests, their participation in sports activities, their participation in clubs and organizations, their dating and work history, and their choice of a college major and a future career or occupation. At the end of this survey, the respondents were also asked to provide basic demographic information about their gender, age, and family background/socioeconomic status.

The personality measures in the packets were not identified by the measures' actual names, but instead by letter (Questionnaire A, B, C, etc.). This procedure was used to help ensure that the participants answered each scale item truthfully and without regard to the perceived purpose of each of the measures used in the study. The various measures used in Study 1 are described in detail below.

The Sense of Self Scale (SOSS; Identified as Questionnaire A in the respondent packets in Studies 1 and 2 and counterbalanced as Questionnaire D in Study 3; See Table 2.1 for descriptive statistics). The original form of the Sense of Self Scale was a 12-item measure answered in a Likert-scale format with responses ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It was constructed to assess the four components of a weak sense of self as identified by Flury and Ickes (2007). The four components of a weak sense of self are (1) difficulty understanding oneself (e.g., *It's hard for me to figure out my own personality, interests, and opinions*), (2) inconsistency of one's thoughts and feelings (e.g., *I wish I were more consistent in my feelings*), (3) the need for external self-definition due to the lack of understanding of one's self (e.g., *I need other people to help me understand what I think or how I feel*), and (4) the sense that one's very existence is tenuous and subject to question (e.g., *I often think how fragile my existence is*) (Flury & Ickes, 2007).

These four components were gleaned from two sources: The Identity Impairment Scale (Briere & Runtz, 2000) and the DSM-IV (APA, 1994). Although Flury and Ickes (2007) developed items intended to measure all four components of a weak sense of self, their original 12-item version of the Sense of Self Scale (SOSS) provided inadequate item coverage of two of the four components. Specifically, the original SOSS included six questions designed to tap component 1 (difficulty understanding oneself), one question to tap component 2 (inconsistency of one's thoughts and feelings), two questions to tap component 3 (the need for external self-definition), and three questions to tap component 4 (the sense that one's existence is tenuous).

To help correct this problem, four new items were added in a revised version of the Sense of Self Scale. They included two items designed to tap component 2 and two items designed to tap component 3 of a weak sense of self. In total, the revised 16-item form of the SOSS includes six items designed to tap component 1, three items to tap component 2, four items to tap component 3, and three items to tap component 4.

The reported overall alpha for the original version of the SOSS in a sample of 302 participants was 0.86, and when re-computed and broken down by gender, the alpha coefficient remained at 0.86 for each gender (Flury & Ickes, 2007). In the present sample, using the pooled data from studies one, two, and three, the coefficient alpha for the Sense of Self Scale was 0.892. Further evidence for the reliability and validity of the SOSS can be found in the article by Flury and Ickes (2007).

The Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability (Identified as Questionnaire B in the respondent packets in all three studies; See Table 2.1 for descriptive statistics). The Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability is a 10-item scale designed to measure the Big Five component of neuroticism (Goldberg, 1992). It was answered in a Likert-scale format with responses ranging from 1 (very inaccurate) to 5 (very accurate). This scale closely replicates the fourth factor of Saucier's (1997) Factor Structure of Person Descriptors. It is a part of the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) and is available in the public domain on the Internet at the following website: <http://ipip.ori.org/>.

Using the pooled data from studies one, two, and three, the coefficient alpha for the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability was 0.859 (for this and related information, see the following website: <http://ipip.ori.org/newBigFive5broadTable.htm>). For more information regarding the reliability and validity statistics of the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability, the reader is directed either to the IPIP website or to the article by Saucier (1997).

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Identified as Questionnaire C in the respondent packets in all three studies; See Table 2.1 for descriptive statistics). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a 10-item scale intended to measure an individual's level of self-esteem and overall feeling of self-worth (Rosenberg, 1965). Respondents answer in a Likert-scale format with responses ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with higher scores indicating greater feelings of self-worth (Rehbein-Narvaez, Garcia-Vazquez, & Madson, 2006).

The reported alphas for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale have ranged from 0.74 to 0.88 in previous studies by Corning (2002), Rehbein-Narvaez et al. (2006), and Whiteside-

Mansell and Corwyn, (2003). In the present sample, using data from studies one, two, and three, the obtained coefficient alpha for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was 0.887. Further information on the reliability and validity statistics of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is available in an article by Robins, Hendin, and Trzesniewski (2001).

The Personal Background Survey. The Personal Background Survey (PBS) is a 120+-item questionnaire subdivided into seven parts. The PBS was designed specifically for the current research project. It assesses various aspects of the respondents' self-reported social participation including (1) their hobbies and interests, (2) their participation in sports activities, (3) their participation in clubs and organizations, (4) their dating partners, (5) their work history, (6) their choice of a college major and a future career or occupation, and (7) basic demographic information about their gender, age, and family background/socioeconomic status.

Participants give their answers in a free-response format by listing their responses to the questions in their own words. I purposely avoided a Likert-scale answer format so that participants could respond to the questions without feeling bound by certain pre-selected responses. The first three sections of the survey—Hobbies and Interests, Sports Activities, and Clubs and Organizations—as well as the fifth part—Work History—ask the respondents if they participated in any of these activities in middle school, in high school, and/or in college. Participants are asked to list the specific activities that are applicable under each of these category headings, and to list their major reasons for participating and/or not participating in those activities during each time period.

Knowing the motives for the respondent's participation (or non-participation) in these life activities was crucial to the goals of this research. Specifically, I needed to determine if the respondents had an "internal" or self-directed motive for their participation or non-participation (e.g., *I enjoy cooking; I do not like sports and chose not to participate in them*) or if the motivation to participate or not participate was external to the respondent (e.g., *My parents insisted that I work; My father would not allow me to participate in extracurricular activities because he felt they might negatively impact my schoolwork*). In other words, does a motive to

participate in a particular activity stem from an internal, self-aware desire (one potentially derived from a strong sense of self) or does it reflect a need to have others determine one's interests and activities (potentially derived from a weak sense of self)?

Similarly, with regard to Hypothesis 3, does continuity in the choice of activities throughout the three life periods under investigation (possibly indicating a strong sense of self) correlate with a more self-directed motive for participation? In other words, does an internal motive for participation lead to more continuity in a respondent's choice of activity?

The fourth part of the survey, Dating Partners, asks the respondents to provide the initials of any person(s) they dated in middle school, high school, and/or college, along with their major reason for dating the individual. Alternatively, they could indicate that they dated no one during a particular period and their reason for not dating, if applicable. The reasoning behind this request for a specification of the respondents' primary motive for dating or not dating is the same as I have described above: I was interested in knowing if the men's and women's participation or nonparticipation as a dating partner was internally or externally motivated.

Because the respondents were asked to list only the initials of their dating partners during each period in their lives (to protect the privacy of those dating partners), a listing of the same initials over two time periods was taken as an indication of continuity in the dating relationship. For example, if a respondent dated a person with the initials ABC in high school and they continued to date the same person in college (initials ABC), the respondent was asked to note on the questionnaire if those same initials (ABC) were, in fact, representative of the same partner and not representative of another partner who happened to have the same initials. Participants noted this similarity by placing an asterisk (*) next to the initials of their partner if those initials represented the same individual they dated during a previous period in their lives. The survey also asked participants if they were currently in a relationship that they regarded as stable and committed. If they were not currently in a stable and committed relationship, they were asked to list the major reason they felt they were not in one.

Part 6 of the Personal Background Survey concerns Major and Career Choice. It asks respondents about their choice of major and career goals and whether they have or have not made such choices at the time of their participation in the study. If they have not yet chosen a major and/or a future career, they are asked to provide the primary reason why they had not yet made these choices. Respondents are also asked if they had previously chosen a major that they later decided *not* to pursue and the reason for not pursuing their original choice of major if that was the case.

A final set of Demographic Items, Part 7, completes the Personal Background Survey. These items require the respondents to provide information regarding their gender, age, ethnicity, siblings, family status (parents divorced, etc.), number of residences lived in prior to coming to college, level of their parent's education, and family income/socioeconomic status. They are also asked to list their favorite movie, television show, album or CD, book, food, and color. The purpose of asking these final questions was to determine if a weak or strong sense of self, as measured by scores on the SOSS, is related to the respondents' ability or inability to identify their favorite items in these categories. (A "can't say" response alternative is provided in each case).

Procedure

To help ensure that the participants' responses reflected their true feelings and perceptions, steps were taken to conceal the true purpose of the study from the participants. In particular, it was important that the participants believed that the two sets of materials in their packet (the personality measures and the survey questionnaire) were being collected for different studies and would be analyzed independently. This goal was accomplished by using two "experimenters" (the author and a confederate) who each administered a separate portion of the questionnaire packet.

Experimenter 1 explained that data would be collected by two experimenters who were collaborating in the testing to make the most efficient use of the available respondents. Experimenter 1 obtained consent from the participants, and then read aloud the instructions for

completing the personality measures and asked the respondents to complete them. When it appeared to Experimenter 1 that the participants were nearly finished with the three personality measures, Experimenter 1 went out into the hallway where Experimenter 2 was waiting and appeared to “stretch his legs.” This action was used by Experimenter 2 as a cue that the participants were close to completing the individual personality measures. When Experimenter 2 received the cue from Experimenter 1 that the participants were nearly finished with the personality measures, she waited approximately one minute before entering the experiment site to begin her data collection.

Once the participants had completed the three personality measures, Experimenter 1 gathered the consent forms and the three personality measures and left the room. Experimenter 2 then proceeded to read aloud the instructions for completing the Personal Background Survey and administered the survey to the respondents. Once the respondents had completed the PBS, the testing session was concluded. The participants were debriefed by Experimenter 2, thanked for their participation, and released.

Data Coding for the Personal Background Survey

To code the data from the Personal Background Survey, two groups of undergraduate research assistants (group sizes ranged from 2 to 4) tallied the responses provided by the participants to obtain measures of the number of their reported hobbies and interests, sports activities, clubs and organizations, dating partners, and jobs in which they reported having participated during middle school, high school, and college. The research assistants also counted the number of “self-directed” reasons for participation in each set of activities during each period of the respondents’ lives (middle school, high school, and college). If a respondent did not participate in a certain activity during a particular period, the reason for non-participation was also coded as either self-directed (score of 1) or other-directed (score of 0).

The final set of demographic items was coded differently. For these items, the participant’s responses were coded as categorical variables. Socioeconomic status was similarly coded as a categorical variable with each of four levels corresponding to level of

annual income (1 = less than \$50K, 2 = \$50-75K, 3 = \$75-100K, and 4 = more than \$100K). For a detailed reporting of the inter-rater reliability indices, see Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Inter-rater Reliability Index for PBS Items

Personal Background Survey Item	Reliability Index
# Hobbies and Interests in Middle School	0.975
# Self-selected Hobbies and Interests in Middle School	0.961
# Hobbies and Interests in High School	0.969
# Self-selected Hobbies and Interests in High School	0.942
# Hobbies and Interests in College	0.981
# Self-selected Hobbies and Interests in College	0.958
Non-participation in Hobbies and Interests in Middle School	0.901
Non-participation in Hobbies and Interests in High School	0.845
Non-participation in Hobbies and Interests in College	0.825
# Clubs and Organizations in Middle School	0.944
# Self-selected Clubs and Organizations in Middle School	0.92
# Clubs and Organizations in High School	0.973
# Self-selected Clubs and Organizations in High School	0.934
# Clubs and Organizations in College	0.972
# Self-selected Clubs and Organizations in College	0.934
Non-participation in Clubs and Organizations in Middle School	0.753
Non-participation in Clubs and Organizations in High School	0.729
Non-participation in Clubs and Organizations in College	0.701
# Sports Activities in Middle School	0.955
# Self-selected Sports Activities in Middle School	0.927
# Sports Activities in High School	0.958
# Self-selected Sports Activities in High School	0.913
# Sports Activities in College	0.949
# Self-selected Sports Activities in College	0.956
Non-participation in Sports Activities in Middle School	0.751
Non-participation in Sports Activities in High School	0.372
Non-participation in Sports Activities in College	0.798
# Dating Partners in Middle School	0.989
# Self-selected Dating Partners in Middle School	0.945
# Dating Partners in High School	0.971
# Self-selected Dating Partners in High School	0.952
# Dating Partners in College	0.961
# Self-selected Dating Partners in College	0.957
Non-participation in Dating Partners in Middle School	0.633
Non-participation in Dating Partners in High School	0.756
Non-participation in Dating Partners in College	0.64
In a Stable and Committed Relationship?	0.964
Reason Not in a Stable and Committed Relationship	0.545
# Jobs in Middle School	0.944
# Self-selected jobs in Middle School	0.917
# Jobs in High School	0.968

Table 2.2 – *Continued*

# Self-selected jobs in High School	0.939
# Jobs in College	0.98
# Self-selected jobs in College	0.942
Reason for not having a job in Middle School	0.566
Reason for not having a job in High School	0.822
Reason for not having a job in College	0.797
# Volunteer Jobs	0.976
# Self-selected Volunteer Jobs	0.888
Reason for not volunteering	0.557
Chosen a Major?	0.932
Did they have a previous major?	0.987
Self-chosen major?	0.821
Why no major (if not chosen)?	0.921
Occupation?	0.962
If no occupation, why not?	0.55
# Brothers	0.809
# Sisters	0.925
Subject's Birth Order	0.953
Parent's Divorced?	0.923
Age at which parents divorced?	0.986
# Residences lived in?	0.966
Family Income	0.954
# Can't Says (Favorite Book, Movie, etc)	0.775
# Continuous Hobbies and Interests	0.633
# Continuous Sports Activities	0.689
# Continuous Clubs and Organizations	0.698
# Continuous Dating Partners	0.761
# Continuous Jobs	0.687
Gender	0.97
Ethnicity	0.977

Shortly after the start of data collection for Study 1, a more extensive review of the literature produced a reference to Campbell et al.'s (1996) work on the concept of self-concept clarity. Campbell et al. defined self-concept clarity as "the extent to which the contents of an individual's self-concept (e.g., perceived personal attributes) are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent and stable" (p. 141). This definition suggests that self-concept clarity might be closely related to having a strong versus weak sense of self. Because of the apparent conceptual overlap of self-concept clarity with the sense-of-self construct, I decided to include both measures in Studies 2 and 3 to see whether they are predictively redundant or whether

they make unique contributions to the prediction of people's social and nonsocial involvements.

The method for study 2 is described below.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD—STUDY 2

Participants

The participants for Study 2 were 190 undergraduate students (121 females, 57 males, and 12 participants who did not report gender) enrolled in psychology courses at the University of Texas at Arlington. Ethnic composition included 30 Asian participants, 37 Black (African American) participants, 36 Latino participants, 78 White participants, 7 participants who reported “Other,” and 2 participants who did not report ethnicity. Participant ages ranged from 17 to 42 years of age ($M = 20.72$, $SD = 3.799$). With regards to socioeconomic status, 54 participants reported an annual family income of “less than \$50K,” 54 reported “\$50-\$75K,” 33 reported “\$75-\$100K,” 43 participants reported a family income of “more than \$100K,” and 6 participants failed to report on their family’s annual income. All participants received course credit for their participation. No other compensation to the participants was offered.

Materials

The materials for Study 2 were the same as those used in Study 1 with one exception, namely the inclusion of Campbell et al.’s (1992) Self-Concept Clarity Scale (*identified as Questionnaire D in the respondent packets in Study 2 and counterbalanced as Questionnaire A in Study 3; See Table 2.1 for descriptive statistics*).

The Self Concept Clarity Scale is a 12-item scale measured in a Likert-scale format with responses ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The scale is the result of what Campbell et al. (1996) saw as a dramatic transformation of the concept of self from early research which focused mostly on a static conception of self-esteem to more contemporary efforts that viewed the self as a dynamic, changing construct.

The reported alpha for the Self-Concept Clarity Scale (SCCS) in the study by Campbell et al. (1996) was 0.86. These same authors reported item-to-total correlations ranging from

0.35 to 0.66, with an average item-to-total correlation of 0.54. In the pooled data for the Study 2 and Study 3 samples, the alpha for the SCCS was 0.886. Evidence for the validity of the Self-Concept Clarity Scale is available in the article by Campbell et al. (1996).

Procedure

The procedures of Study 2 were, with one exception, identical to those of Study 1. The only procedural change for the second study was the inclusion of the Self-Concept Clarity Scale with the other personality measures. Accordingly, in Study 2, four, instead of three, personality measures were included in each packet: the SOSS, the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability, Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, and Campbell et al.'s Self-Concept Clarity Scale. As before, the Personal Background Survey was also administered in Study 2. No other procedural changes were implemented.

A further review of the literature led to the consideration of how sense of self differs from self-monitoring. Self-monitoring is the ability of individuals to observe and regulate their own expressive behavior as a means of managing the impressions they make on others (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Snyder (1974, p. 526) defined self-monitoring as "self-observation and self-control guided by situational cues to social appropriateness." Those individuals who are high in self-monitoring are able to control and/or censor their expressive behavior as a means of presenting themselves in the best possible light (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986).

High self-monitors are more likely than low self-monitors to use cues from other people and their environment to help them construct what they infer to be socially appropriate conduct. Superficially, at least, this practice makes them resemble people who have a weak sense of self. In other words, high self-monitors and persons with a weak sense of self can both be considered "social chameleons" who rely on other people for direction. In contrast, low self-monitors are more likely than high self-monitors to behave in ways that are more reflective of their inner sense of identity and the traits on which it is based (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Put another way, high self-monitors are more responsive to external, situational cues whereas low

self-monitors are more responsive to internal, dispositional cues when choosing how to present themselves to others. It is therefore possible that high self-monitors, like people with a weak sense of self, may rely on the outside influence and opinions of others to help guide their choice of activities. To see whether self-monitoring and sense of self make unique versus redundant contributions to the prediction of activity choice, I decided to include a measure of self-monitoring in the study 3 sample: Snyder and Gangestad's (1986) Self-Monitoring Scale.

In addition, it is possible that the domains on which people hinge their self-esteem may account for some of the variance in sense of self. Crocker and her colleagues (2003) have argued that failures in specific domain areas are inherently linked to an individual's self-esteem. Accordingly, people seek to obtain success and to avoid failure in domains that constitute contingent sources of their self-worth. Contingencies of self-worth based on internal or intrinsic components of the self represent higher levels of psychological well-being than contingencies that are motivated by external factors, such as the approval of others (Crocker et al., 2003).

This notion, supported by aspects of Self-Determination Theory (Deci and Ryan, 1991), suggests that motives guided by internal forces are more representative of higher levels of psychological well being and, reciprocally, that motives resulting from outside influence represent lower levels of psychological health. Put another way, those individuals who possess more internal contingencies of self-worth are likely to have a stronger sense of self. On the other hand, those individuals who derive their self-esteem from external, fleeting sources are more likely to possess a weaker sense of self. I therefore included a measure of contingent self-esteem in Study 3 to specifically examine whether hinging one's self-esteem on outside sources of evaluation is associated with a weak sense of self.

Finally, I also included in Study 3 a measure of the Big Five personality characteristics. I wanted to be certain that sense of self was not redundant with any of the Big Five traits of conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and extraversion. Thus, Study 3 also included the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI), a brief measure of the Big Five.

CHAPTER 4
METHOD—STUDY 3

Participants

The participants for Study 3 were 134 undergraduate students (82 females, 44 males, and 8 participants not reporting their gender) who were enrolled in psychology courses at the University of Texas at Arlington. Ethnic composition was comprised of 18 Asian participants, 31 Black (African American) participants, 13 Latino participants, 59 White participants, 8 participants reporting an ethnicity of “Other,” and 5 participants failing to report their ethnicity. Participant ages ranged from 17 to 48 years of age, with a mean age of 20.92 ($SD = 4.74$). With regard to socioeconomic status, 33 participants reported an annual family income of “less than \$50K,” 31 reported “\$50-\$75K,” 26 reported “\$75-\$100K,” and 37 participants reported a family income of “more than \$100K.” Three participants did not report their level of family income. All participants received course credit for their participation. No other compensation to the participants was offered.

Materials

The materials for Study 3 were identical to those used in Studies 1 and 2, with one exception, namely the inclusion of three additional scales: the Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Measure, the Self-Monitoring Scale, and the Ten-Item Personality Inventory (See Table 2.1 for each measure’s descriptive statistics). The additional measures used in Study 3 and the reasons for their inclusion are described in detail below.

The Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Measure. The Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Measure (*identified as Questionnaire E in the respondent packets in Study 3*) was developed by Crocker et al. (2003) in an attempt to classify and categorize those areas of one’s life (referred to as “domains”) that are integral foci for the control of self-esteem. This measure was

developed to expand on previous attempts of developing better measures of the various contingencies of self-worth (Crocker et al., 2003). The Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Measure includes seven domains specific to focus and conceptualize these internal and external contingencies of self-worth. The seven domains include others' approval, appearance, defeating others in competition, academic competence, family love and support, being a virtuous or moral person, and God's love. The items contained in each scale were randomized prior to inclusion as I did not want multiple items measuring the same construct to be clustered together.

In the present Study 3 sample, the Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Measure (CCSE) had a high degree of internal consistency, with an alpha of 0.819. Further evidence of the reliability and validity of the CCSE can be found in the article by Crocker et al. (2003).

The Self-Monitoring Scale. The original form of the Self-Monitoring Scale was a 25-item scale designed to measure the construct of self-monitoring of expressive behavior (Snyder, 1974). However, some critics (e.g., Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) have argued that this original measure did not adequately measure the self-monitoring construct, and that it suffered from certain psychometric and conceptual problems that compromised the scale's construct validity.

These criticisms led Snyder and Gangestad (1986) to revise the Self-Monitoring Scale. Specifically, they factor-analyzed the original 25-item measure and removed the items that failed to correlate at least + 0.15 with the underlying self-monitoring variable. These seven superfluous items were removed and a revised and rescaled 18-item measure of self-monitoring was created. This 18-item measure (*identified as Questionnaire F in the respondent packets in Study 3*) seems to have answered the critics' major objections, as it better assesses the underlying components of self-monitoring and better discriminates between people who are high or low in self-monitoring (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). In the present Study 3 sample, the new 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale had an internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.752.

Further evidence of the reliability and validity of the new, revised form of the Self-Monitoring Scale can be found in the article by Snyder and Gangestad (1986).

The Ten-Item Personality Inventory. The Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) (identified as Questionnaire G in the respondent packets in Study 3) is the response to what Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann, Jr. (2003) believed to be the lack of a very brief measure of the Big Five personality dimensions. Although Gosling et al. conceded that longer measures possess better psychometric properties, they constructed the TIPI in an effort to provide a shorter instrument for those investigators whose research would not be possible using lengthier instruments.

Outside of their limitations, Gosling et al. noted that shorter instruments do have some advantages over longer ones. Most notably, shorter instruments reduce item redundancy and eliminate or diminish the fatigue and boredom that is associated with answering many items measuring the same underlying construct (Gosling et al., 2003). Because participants in the current study are required to fill out several personality measures in one sitting, Gosling et al. thought that this very brief personality inventory would adequately measure the Big Five construct in a highly efficient way.

The Cronbach alphas in a previous study by Gosling et al. (2003) for each of the Big Five measures contained in the TIPI (2 items for each trait) were 0.68 (Extraversion), 0.40 (Agreeableness), 0.50 (Conscientiousness), 0.73 (Emotional Stability), and 0.45 (Openness to Experience). Further evidence for the reliability and validity of the Big Five factor scores obtained with the Ten-Item Personality Inventory is available in the article by Gosling et al. (2003).

Procedure

The procedures of Study 3 were, with one exception, identical to those of Studies 1 and 2. The only procedural change for the third study was the inclusion of the three additional personality measures described above. Accordingly, in Study 3, seven, instead of four,

personality measures were included in each packet: the SOSS, the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability, Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, the Self-Concept Clarity Scale, the Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Measure, the Self-Monitoring Scale, and the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI). As in the two previous studies, the Personal Background Survey was administered in study 3. No other procedural changes for this study were implemented.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

This section of the manuscript is divided into two parts. The first section, titled *Tests of the Research Hypotheses*, reports the results of the tests of the three research hypotheses proposed in the current research project. The second section, titled *Other Findings*, describes results of all post-hoc analyses.

With respect to the different studies conducted for the current project, it is important to explain which datasets were used in which analyses and why. To begin, because no data was collected on self-concept clarity, self-esteem (as measured by the Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Scale), self-monitoring, and the Big Five in study 1, analyses testing the effects of these particular measures could not be conducted using data in the first study because the relevant data simply did not exist. Similarly, because the participants in study 2 did not complete measures testing self-esteem (as measured by the Crocker Contingent Self-Esteem Scale), self-monitoring, and the Big Five, no data for these constructs were available for analysis in study two. Finally, the data collected in study 3 included the participants' scores on seven personality measures, three of which were not used in either of the previous studies.

Consequently, in order to test the effect of a particular scale of interest, only those studies where data were collected for that particular construct could be used. Because the only differentiating factor between studies was the particular scales administered (recall that no other procedural changes were implemented between studies), data for constructs measured in more than one study (sense of self, for example) could be combined across all studies where that particular construct was measured. For the tests of the research hypotheses, this allowed for a “pooling” of the data across multiple studies for those constructs that were measured across more than one dataset.

Tests of the Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses in this project concerned the links between an individual's sense of self (as measured by the Sense of Self Scale) and various aspects of his or her social participation (as measured by the PBS). Because data were collected for both the Sense of Self Scale and the Personal Background Survey in all three studies, the data from all three datasets were available for testing the three research hypotheses. Therefore, no differentiation between the three studies was necessary for testing the individual hypotheses, nor for the interpretation of the findings of those hypothesis tests.

However, because the original form of the Sense of Self Scale is coded in such a way as to make the resulting indices somewhat confusing (with higher scores indicating a weaker sense of self), I employed a reverse-coded Sense of Self Scale score to test these hypotheses. This scoring permits a more straightforward interpreting of the findings because higher scores now reflect a *stronger* sense of self whereas lower scores indicate a *weaker* sense of self. Tests of the individual research hypotheses using this new reverse-coded Sense of Self Scale score are reported below.

Do People with a Strong Sense of Self Report More Self-Selected Involvements than People with a Weak Sense of Self? The first hypothesis stated that people with a strong sense of self should report a greater number and percentage of "self-selected" involvements than people with a weak sense of self, and that this difference should be evident across a range of life domains. In other words, there should be a positive correlation between the respondents' sense of self scores and the number and percentage of instances in which an "internal" motive led to their participation in activities such as their hobbies and interests, the clubs and organizations in which they are members, their sports activities, dating partners (for males only), choice of college major, and/or career goals. To test this hypothesis, I counted the number of self-directed reasons participants listed as motives for their participation in the various activities listed on the Personal Background Survey, then computed the percentage of instances in which

such motivation is reported. I then correlated both measures (the number and relative percentage of self-selected activity choices) with the respondents' sense of self scores, as measured by Flury and Ickes's (2007) Sense of Self Scale.

As expected, for the pooled data in all three studies, the overall percentage of self-selected activity choices was significantly correlated with participants' strength of sense of self, $r = 0.114$, $p < .05$, indicating that those with a stronger sense of self participated in a greater percentage of self-selected activities than those with a weaker sense of self. The total number of self-selected jobs a participant reported having was also significantly correlated with his or her sense of self, $r = 0.115$, $p < .05$, illustrating that those individuals with a stronger sense of self pursued jobs they felt more fully reflected their underlying skills and talents. Furthermore, the correlation of sense of self with the total number of self-directed activities in which a participant reported having participated in was marginally significant, $r = 0.092$, $p = .059$, supporting the prediction that those people who know themselves best (those with a stronger sense of self) will pursue activities that allow them to better express themselves and their self-defining interests.

Do Females with a Weak Sense of Self Have More Dating Partners than Females with a Strong Sense of Self? Hypothesis 2 predicted that, because of their weaker "selective control," females with a weak sense of self would report having more dating partners throughout middle school, high school, and college than their stronger sense of self counterparts. I tested this hypothesis by first sorting the pooled data for all three studies by gender and then correlating the sense of self scores for the female participants with the total number of dating partners, the total number of self-selected dating partners, and the relative percentage of self-selected dating partners they listed.

Contrary to expectation, tests of the second hypothesis on the pooled data for all three studies indicated that, for females, differences in level of self-knowledge (sense of self) failed to correlate with the total number of dating partners listed ($r = 0.024$, $p > .05$), the total number of

self-selected dating partners ($r = 0.026, p > .05$), nor the relative percentage of those dating partners that were self-selected ($r = 0.067, p > .05$). Hypothesis 2, therefore, was not supported.

Do People with a Stronger Sense of Self Persist Longer in Self-Selected Activities than People with a Weaker Sense of Self? The third hypothesis stated that individuals with a stronger sense of self would show more continuity in their self-selected activities (including specific dating relationships, but only for males) in which they participated. This hypothesis stemmed from the theoretical premise that individuals who possess a weak sense of self should show less commitment to activity choice, due to a fundamental lack of self-knowledge and/or a deficient understanding of their own preferences.

To test this hypothesis, I counted the number of self-selected activities each subject reported having participated in that was continued across one or more subsequent periods or “life stages.” I then correlated the resulting index with the respondent’s sense of self score, as measured by Flury and Ickes’s (2007) Sense of Self Scale.

Contrary to expectation, tests of this hypothesis for the pooled data across all three studies did not support the contention that persons with a stronger sense of self would show more continuity in their activity choice than their weaker sense-of-self counterparts. Sense of self was not significantly correlated with the number of continuous hobbies and interests ($r = 0.001, p > .05$), the number of continuous sports activities a participant engaged in ($r = -0.049, p > .05$), the number of continuous clubs and organizations a participants joined ($r = -0.064, p > .05$), the number of continuous dating partners a participant had ($r = -0.018, p > .05$), nor the number of continuous jobs a participant worked ($r = 0.004, p > .05$). Therefore, the current data do not demonstrate that sense of self is in any way related to the stability of one’s choice of involvement. In other words, people with a stronger sense of self are just as likely to change their activity choices over time as are people with a weaker sense of self.

Other Findings

As a means of answering the question posed in study 2, namely whether sense of self and self-concept clarity tap the same underlying construct, principle component factor analysis with—direct oblimin (oblique) rotation was conducted on the Study 3 data for the seven personality measures used in this project. Results of these post-hoc factor analyses revealed that certain items from both the Sense of Self Scale and the Self-Concept Clarity Scale loaded highly onto a single factor, which was subsequently labeled “Strength and Clarity of Sense of Self” (SCSS; see Table 5.1 for factor loadings).

Table 5.1 Factor Loadings for the Strength and Clarity of Sense of Self (SCSS) Construct

Personality Measure Item (Scale and Question #)	Factor Loading
<i>I find it difficult to distinguish my beliefs and perspectives from other people's beliefs and perspectives. (SOSS #12)</i>	0.822
<i>I often confuse my own thoughts and feelings with those of others. (SOSS #3)</i>	0.676
<i>I need other people to help me understand what I think or how I feel. (SOSS #14)</i>	0.673
<i>I'm not sure that I can understand or put much trust in my thoughts and feelings. (SOSS #11)</i>	0.580
<i>Who am I? is a question that I ask myself a lot. (SOSS #13)</i>	0.577
<i>It's hard for me to figure out my own personality, interests, and opinions. (SOSS #2)</i>	0.561
<i>In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am. (SCC #11)</i>	-0.504
<i>I have a clear and definite sense of who I am and what I'm all about. (SOSS #8)</i>	0.460
<i>Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be. (SCC #4)</i>	-0.433

In further post-hoc analyses, the SCSS factor was used to measure the more general construct underlying a strong, clearly defined sense of self. This required dropping the subjects in Study 1 from all subsequent post-hoc analyses, as no data were collected for self-concept clarity in the first study. Therefore, for all of the post-hoc analyses reported below, only the data from studies 2 and 3 were used. For all post-hoc analyses of the SCSS factor, the various levels of the SCSS factor (strong, moderate, and weak) were differentiated by the number of standard

deviations each level was from the mean. Those participants who were rated as “strong” in their level of SCSS scored lower than one standard deviation from the mean, those who were rated as “weak” in their level of SCSS scored higher than one standard deviation from the mean, and those who were rated as “moderate” in their level of SCSS scored within one standard deviation of the mean.

As a means of error control in the post-hoc analyses, I decided to regard as significant and replicable effects only those effects whose patterns of means replicated in form across both studies *and* had a product *p*-value of less than 0.005. These criteria not only minimized the chances of Type I error but also required stability in the patterns of means across the Study 2 and Study 3 datasets.

The multivariate general linear model that I used to conduct the post-hoc analyses included the following predictors: Gender, neuroticism (as measured by the Factor IV Scale of Emotional Stability), socioeconomic status, and the SCSS factor, as well as all of the two-, three-, and four-way interactions among those terms. Neither the interaction terms nor socioeconomic status produced significant results according to my *a priori* criteria. Accordingly, the following results include only significant “main effects” for the remaining predictor variables of gender, neuroticism, and the SCSS factor. Because the results were analyzed within a multivariate framework, the results for each effect were analyzed independently of the other effects present in the model (the SCSS effects are independent of the effects for gender and neuroticism, etc.). Examination of the inter-correlations of these main-effect predictors showed no evidence of multicollinearity, as none of the correlations were larger than 0.413 (Table 5.2 shows the correlations among these predictors).

Table 5.2 Correlation Matrix for Post-Hoc Predictors

		Gender	SES	SCSS	Neuroticism
Gender	<i>r</i>	1.00			
	<i>N</i>	407			
SES	<i>r</i>	0.138**	1.00		
	<i>N</i>	393	410		
SCSS	<i>r</i>	-0.142*	-0.020	1.00	
	<i>N</i>	302	309	321	
Neuro	<i>r</i>	-0.324**	-0.012	0.413**	1.00
	<i>N</i>	406	409	320	426

* = significant at $p < .05$

** = significant at $p < .01$

Effects for Gender. I found that gender significantly predicted the total number of self-selected activities in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 9.972, p < .005$, such that males reported participating in more self-selected activities ($M = 18.79, SD = 8.504$) than females ($M = 18.64, SD = 7.237$). Although gender did not significantly predict self-selected activities in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 0.677, p > .05$, the product p -values across the two studies was less than 0.001. In Study 3, as in Study 2, males reported participating in more self-selected activities ($M = 19.45, SD = 9.417$) than females ($M = 18.71, SD = 7.917$), though this effect did not attain significance in the Study 3 sample. Across the two samples, however, the males reported participating in more self-selected activities than did females.

The specific sources of this difference were evident in the data for more fine-grained outcome measures. Gender was also found to significantly predict the total number of self-selected hobbies and interests in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 4.381, p < .05$ such that males had more self-selected hobbies and interests ($M = 5.53, SD = 3.263$) than females ($M = 4.92, SD = 2.783$). In study 3, the effect of gender on the total number of self-selected hobbies and interests was marginally significant, $F(1, 86) = 3.245, p = .075$, with males again reporting more

self-selected hobbies and interests ($M = 5.93$, $SD = 3.252$) than females ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 3.211$). This effect held across both studies with a product p -value of less than 0.003.

For the total number of self-selected sports activities, the effect for gender was significant in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 7.614$, $p < .01$, and non-significant in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 0.116$, $p > .05$, with an overall product p -value of less than 0.005. For study 2, males reported an average of 3.39 ($SD = 2.839$) self-selected sports activities and females reported an average of 2.78 ($SD = 2.286$) self-selected sports activities. In study 3, males reported participating in an average of 4.00 ($SD = 3.235$) self-selected sports activities, whereas females reported participating in an average of 3.18 ($SD = 3.06$) self-selected sports activities. In summary, the overall difference in self-selective activities favoring the males over the females reflected the male's greater involvement in self-selected hobbies, interests, and sports.

Effects for Strength and Clarity of Sense of Self. I found that the SCSS factor significantly predicted the total number of self-selected activities in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 10.755$, $p < .001$. Although this effect was not conventionally significant in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 1.508$, $p > .05$, the product p -value for this effect over both studies was less than 0.001. Examination of the means for this effect in study 2 showed that those who were strong in their strength and clarity of sense of self reported participating in the highest number of self-selected activities ($M = 19.24$, $SD = 8.313$) compared to those who were either moderate ($M = 18.89$, $SD = 7.575$) or weak ($M = 17.48$, $SD = 6.895$) in strength and clarity of sense of self (see Figure 5.1).

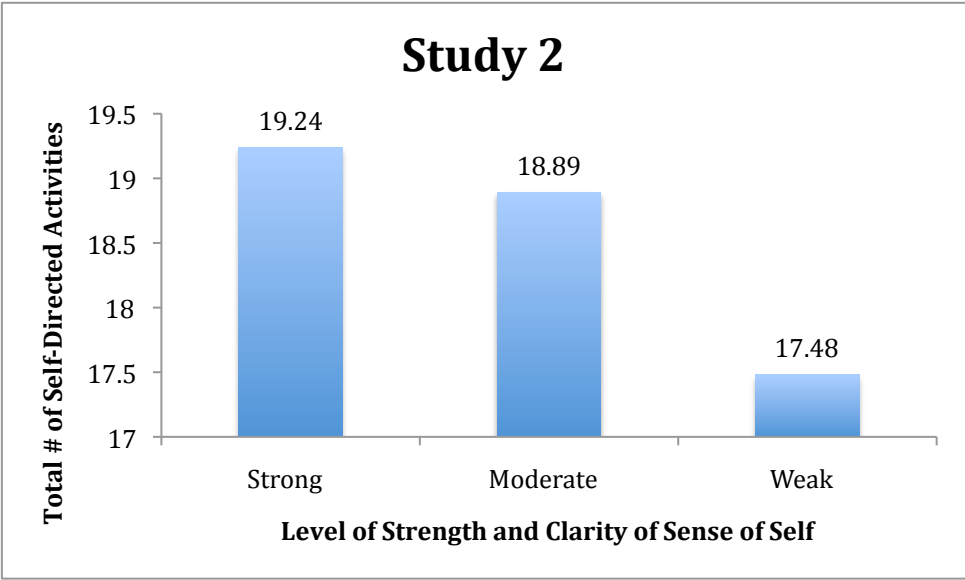


Figure 5.1 Effect for level of strength and clarity of sense of self for total number of self-directed activities for study 2

This pattern replicated in Study 3, such that those participants with a strong SCSS participated in a greater number of self-selected activities ($M = 20.33$, $SD = 7.977$) than persons with either a moderate SCSS ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 8.76$) or a weak SCSS ($M = 16.72$, $SD = 7.95$; see Figure 5.2).

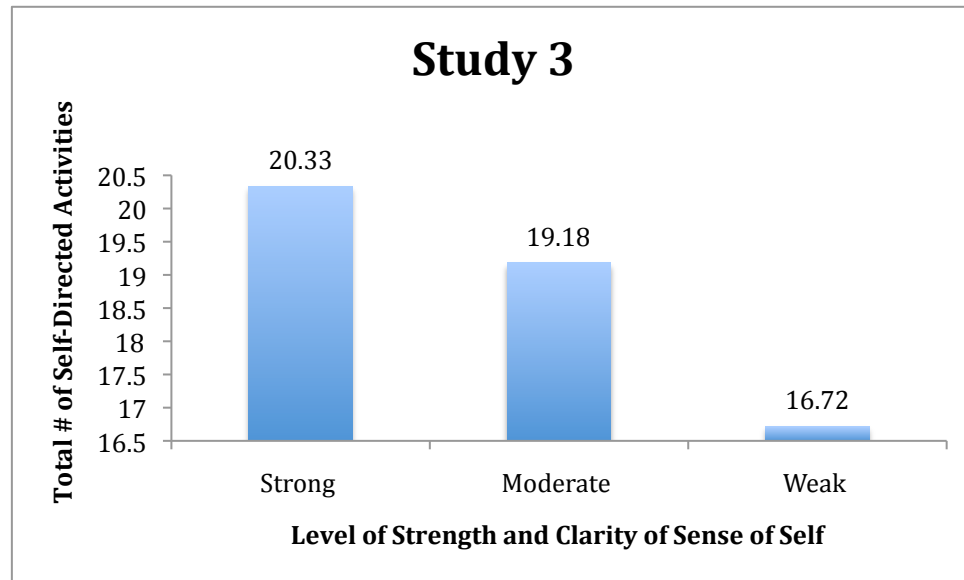


Figure 5.2 Effect for level of strength and clarity of sense of self for total number of self-directed activities for study 3

Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a direct relationship between SCSS and the total number of self-selected activities a participant reports having participated in.

For the total number of hobbies and interests, it was found that strength and clarity of sense of self was not a significant predictor in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 2.698, p > .05$, but was a significant predictor in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 4.896, p < .05$, with a product p -value over both studies of less than 0.005. An examination of the means showed that, in study 2, those participants with a strong SCSS participated in an average of 5.82 ($SD = 3.26$) hobbies and interests, those with a moderate SCSS reported an average of 5.26 ($SD = 3.189$) hobbies and interests, and those participants with a weak SCSS listed a mean number of 4.95 ($SD = 2.717$) hobbies and interests (see Figure 5.3).

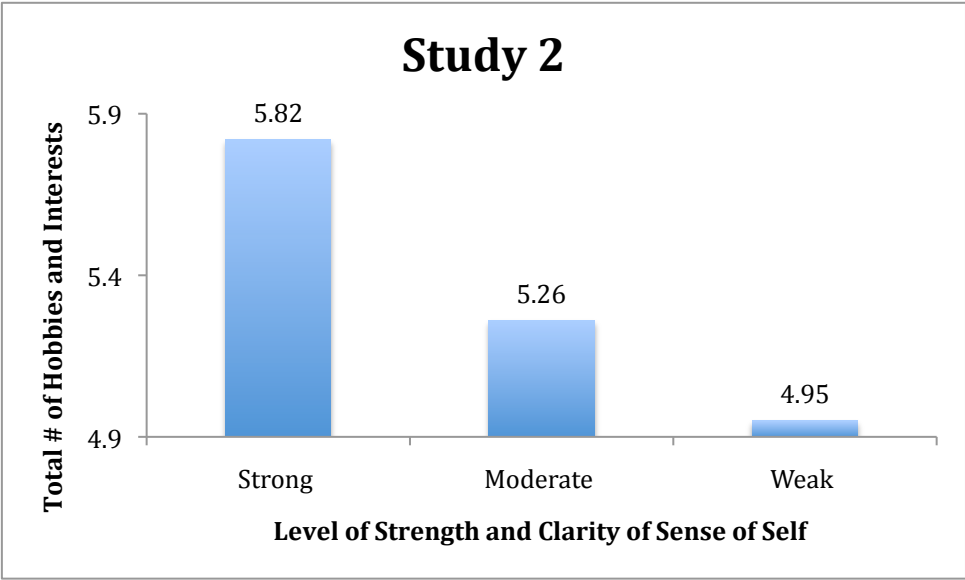


Figure 5.3 Effect for level of strength and clarity of sense of self for total number of hobbies and interests for study 2

For study 3, the mean number of hobbies and interests for strong SCSS was 6.67 ($SD = 2.671$), 5.49 for moderate SCSS ($SD = 3.444$), and 4.90 ($SD = 2.92$) for those participants with a weak SCSS (see Figure 5.4).

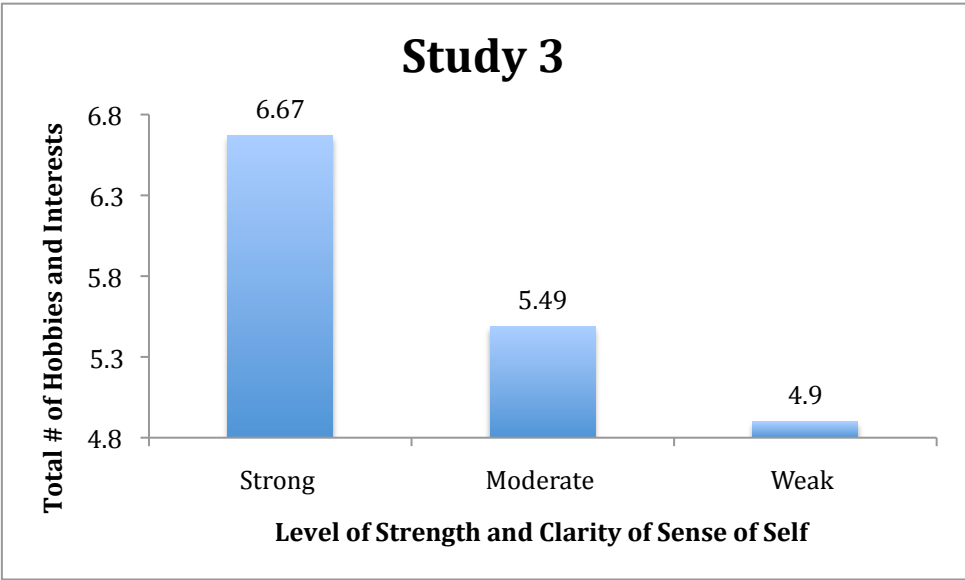


Figure 5.4 Effect for level of strength and clarity of sense of self for total number of hobbies and interests for study 3

These effects show that there is a direct relationship between strength and clarity of sense of self and the total number of hobbies and interests, in that the stronger one's strength and clarity of sense of self, the more hobbies and interests they report having.

SCSS significantly predicted the total number of self-selected hobbies and interests in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 4.828, p < .05$ as well as in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 4.186, p < .05$. The product p -value for total number of self-selected hobbies and interests across both studies was less than 0.002. An examination of the means showed that, in study 2, persons with a strong SCSS reported a mean of 5.31 ($SD = 2.881$) self-selected hobbies and interests, those with a moderate SCSS participated in a mean of 5.07 ($SD = 3.218$) self-selected hobbies and interests and those with a weak SCSS reported participating in a mean of 4.75 ($SD = 2.447$) self-selected hobbies and interests (see Figure 5.5).

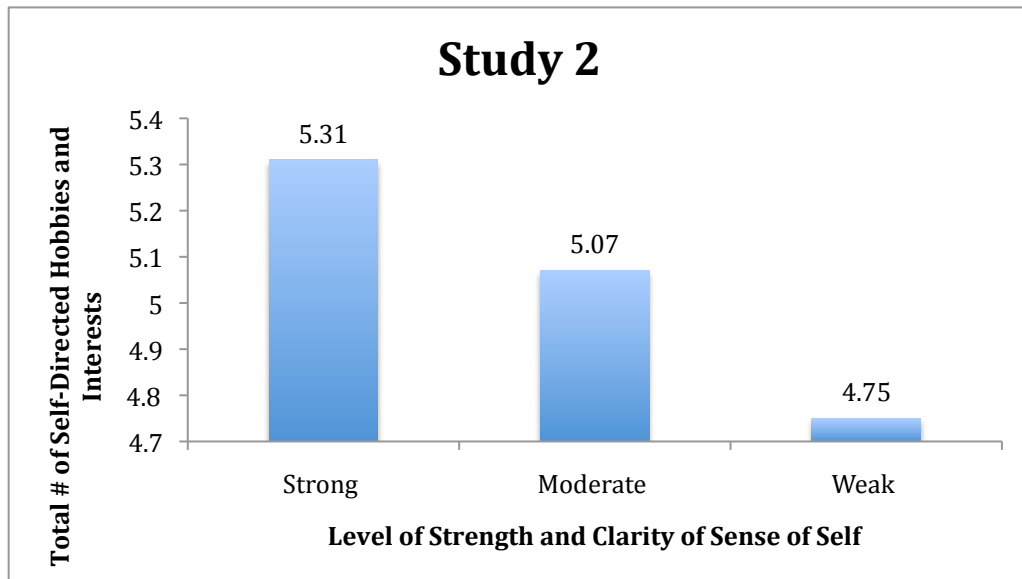


Figure 5.5 Effect for level of strength and clarity of sense of self for total number of self-directed hobbies and interests for study 2

For study 3, those participants with a strong SCSS participated in an average of 6.48 ($SD = 2.639$) self-selected hobbies and interests, those with a moderate SCSS reported participating in an average of 5.21 ($SD = 3.444$) self-selected hobbies and interests, and those

participants with a weak SCSS participated in a mean of 4.72 ($SD = 2.926$) self-selected hobbies and interests (see Figure 5.6).

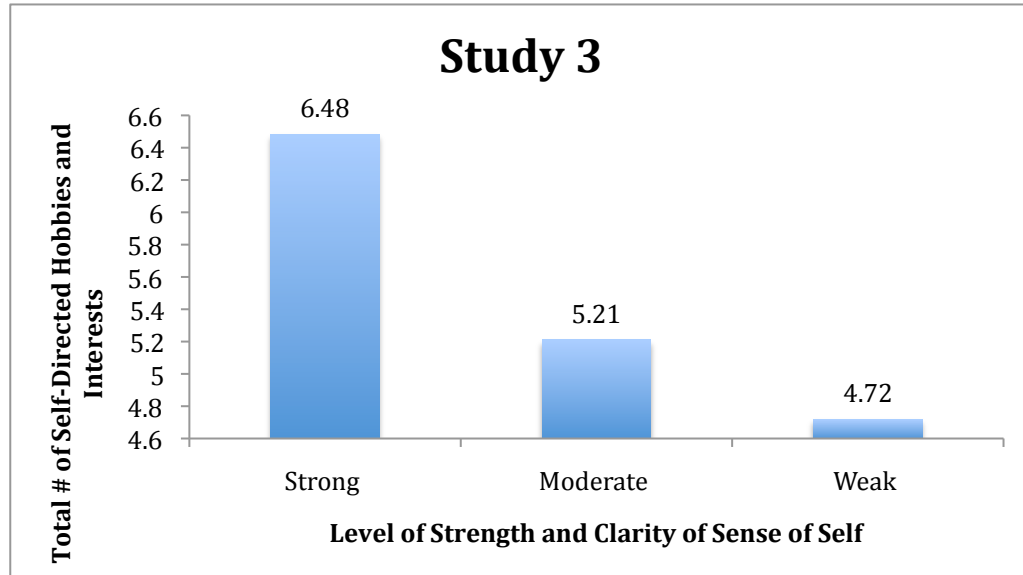


Figure 5.6 Effect for level of strength and clarity of sense of self for total number of self-directed hobbies and interests for study 3

These effects show that those participants with a stronger strength and clarity of sense of self reported having a more internal, self-directed motive for their hobbies and interests than those with either a moderate or a weak strength and clarity of sense of self.

Effects for Neuroticism. Neuroticism significantly predicted the total number of self-selected activities in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 6.227, p < .05$. Although not a significant predictor in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 1.655, p > .05$, the product p -values for this effect over the two studies was less than 0.003. Looking at the means for study 2, those participants low in neuroticism reported more self-selected activities ($M = 18.74, SD = 8.123$) than those high in neuroticism ($M = 18.3, SD = 7.412$). This effect replicated in study 3, such that those low in neuroticism reported a mean number of 20.06 ($SD = 8.818$) self-selected activities and those high in neuroticism reported a mean number of 17.2 ($SD = 7.806$) self-selected activities. This effect shows that there is an inverse relationship between level of neuroticism and the total number of self-selected activities a participant enjoys.

Neuroticism significantly predicted the total number of self-selected hobbies and interests in study 3, $F(1, 86) = 4.925, p < .05$. Although this effect was only marginally significant in study 2, $F(1, 139) = 2.983, p = .086$, the cross-study product p -value was less than 0.003 and unlikely to be due to chance. The means for this effect show that, in study 2, the participants who were low in neuroticism reported more self-selected hobbies and interests ($M = 5.29, SD = 3.177$) than the participants who were high in neuroticism ($M = 4.93, SD = 2.933$). This effect replicated in study 3, such that those participants low in neuroticism reported participating in more self-selected hobbies and interests ($M = 6.00, SD = 3.228$) than those higher in neuroticism ($M = 4.53, SD = 3.075$). Therefore, it can be concluded that, as with the total number of self-selected activities, there is an inverse relationship between level of neuroticism and a participant's total number of self-selected hobbies and interests.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

Discussion of the Individual Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis stated that people with a strong sense of self should report a greater number and percentage of “self-selected” involvements than their weaker sense-of-self counterparts and that this difference should be evident across a range of life domains. Although the effect sizes were small (R^2 values ranged from 0.01 to 0.013), this hypothesis was confirmed: the participant’s strength of sense of self was correlated not only with the overall percentage of self-selected activity choices but also with the total number of self-selected jobs he or she reported having and the total number of self-directed activities participated in. The confirmation of this first hypothesis lends support to the notion that those people who know themselves the best (those with a stronger sense of self) pursue activities that allow them to better express themselves and their more self-defining interests.

However, it is possible that support for this hypothesis is attributable to the objective reality associated with having a strong sense of self. Those individuals who know themselves best (those with a strong sense of self) may be better able to retrospectively recall more self-selection in their choice of activity simply because they are better able to attribute a stronger self-schema to a particular motive for participation. In other words, they are more likely to recall greater self-selection in their activity choice simply because they are more “in tune” with their own motives for participating and, as a result, will inflate the level of self-selection reported.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 predicted that, because of their weaker “selective control,” females with a weak sense of self would report having more dating partners throughout middle school, high school, and college than their stronger sense-of-self counterparts. Tests of this second hypothesis indicated no support for it: women’s sense-of-self scores were not

associated with the total number of dating partners listed, the total number of self-selected dating partners, nor the relative percentage of those dating partners that were self-selected. Sense of self, therefore, was not a reliable correlate of female dating choice.

Hypothesis 3. The third hypothesis predicted that individuals with a stronger sense of self would show more continuity in their self-selected activities. This hypothesis derives from the theoretical assumption that individuals who possess a weaker sense of self do not know themselves as well as those individuals with a stronger sense of self. Because they are less “in tune” with their more stable long-term wants and desires, individuals with a weaker sense of self should show less commitment to choice of activity than their stronger sense-of-self counterparts.

Tests of the third hypothesis did not support my assertion that persons with a stronger sense of self would show more continuity in their choice of activity than those with a weaker sense of self. Sense of self was not significantly correlated with the number of continuous hobbies and interests, sports activities, clubs and organizations, dating partners, nor the number of jobs a participant worked. In other words, people with a stronger sense of self are just as likely to change their activity choices over time as are people with a weaker sense of self.

Why Was Only The First Hypothesis Supported by the Data?

Support for the first hypothesis, stating that sense of self would positively correlate with self-selected activity choice, was consistent across multiple activities. The data relevant to this hypothesis were consistent with the theoretical conception of people with a strong sense of self as those who understand themselves well and can apply this self-knowledge in selecting activities that are a “good fit” for them.

Why, however, were the second and third hypotheses not supported in the present study? One possible explanation may be the extreme emphasis placed on the physical attractiveness of potential dating partners during the middle school and high school years—a

preference that might override the influence of sense of self during that period and perhaps even into the college years. A second possible explanation may be that, according to the parental investment model in evolutionary psychology, the consequences of a poor mate choice are far more costly for females than for males (Trivers, 1972; Trivers, 1985). Accordingly, the selection of dating partners in females may be largely under the control of evolved psychological mechanisms that operate largely out of conscious awareness and with little or no regard to the female's own sense of self. Additional research will be needed to address these possibilities.

With regard to my third hypothesis, the lack of greater participation continuity on the part of people with a stronger sense of self might be explained by the self-knowledge that is gained by participating in a new activity—whether or not it was self-selected. Although individuals with a weaker sense of self may require more outside motivation or influence to get them to try a new experience, once they *have* tried it they may be just as able to decide that they enjoy it as are people with a stronger sense of themselves. If this is so, then people's reasons for trying a new activity might be influenced by the strength of their sense of self whereas their tendency to continue their participation in the activity might not.

Yet another possible explanation for lack of support of the third hypothesis may be the Identity Development Principle (Roberts, Wood, & Caspi, in press). The Identity Development Principle states that, as people age (from middle school to high school and then again to college, for example), they become more familiar and more knowledgeable about their own interests, desires, and beliefs and, subsequently experience greater trait consistency (Roberts, Wood, & Caspi, in press). Therefore, individuals may show more continuity in their choice of activity simply as a result of the increasing level of self-knowledge they acquire through life experience. As a result, effects of continuity may be more visible in adulthood than in the earlier life stages investigated in the current study. Future research should explore this possibility.

Also, because many individuals are under parental control during middle school and high school, they are restricted (somewhat) in the activities that are available to them. Once these individuals get to college and experience many of the new-found freedoms available there, they are (usually for the first time) outside of parental control and are perhaps better able to “experiment” with new interests and self-select those activities that allow them to better express themselves and their more self-defining interests. Because many young adults are involved in more “life changing roles and identity decisions than any other period in the life course” (Caspi, Roberts, & Shiner, 2005, p. 467), this period of life is rich in exploration and many individuals may not fully realize their true interests until adulthood, possibly affecting the lack of significant findings for continuity in activity choice.

Discussion of Post-Hoc Effects

Effects for Gender. With respect to gender effects, I found that males reported participating in significantly more self-selected activities than females. This held true for the total number of self-directed activities, the total number of self-directed hobbies and interests, and the total number of self-directed sports activities. In fact, there were no significant effects where females reported more self-selection than males in their choice of activities. These gender differences may be due in part to the social pressures placed upon males to be more decisive and less susceptible to outside influence. Compared to females, males in our society are conditioned to be more self-reliant and more self-determining in the choices and decisions they make.

Effects for Strength and Clarity of Sense of Self (SCSS). As predicted, I found that those individuals who possess a robust strength and clarity of sense of self also reported more self-selection in their activity choices. This finding held for both the total number of self-selected activities and the total number of self-selected hobbies and interests. These results are consistent with the theoretical view that people who possess both a stronger sense of self and a clearer self-concept (a stronger strength and clarity of sense of self) are more in tune with their

highly stable wants and desires and not only know which activities are “right” for them but actively pursue those activities as well.

SCSS also significantly predicted the total number of hobbies and interests, such that people who had a strong sense of themselves pursued a greater number of hobbies and interests than those who did not. At first glance, it might seem puzzling that this finding does not involve the *self-selection* of hobbies and interests. When one considers, however, that most reported hobbies and interests were self-selected (92.26%), rather than externally influenced (7.74%), a “ceiling effect” may account for the apparent unimportance of the self-selection variable.

Effects for Neuroticism. Neuroticism significantly predicted (negatively) both the total number of self-selected activities and the total number of self-selected hobbies and interests. Individuals who were lower in neuroticism participated in more self-selected activities and more self-selected hobbies and interests across the two relevant datasets than individuals who were more neurotic. In other words, there was an inverse relationship between level of neuroticism and one’s ability to actively pursue involvements that are self-selected.

It appears that a high level of neuroticism inhibits one’s ability to self-select those activities and hobbies and interests he or she wishes to participate in. Perhaps, like those individuals with a weaker SCSS, those individuals higher in neuroticism are caught up in attempting to figure out the “right” or “correct” course of action and subsequently waste much time and energy on the sidelines, fearful of making an incorrect decision. Or perhaps these individuals, because of their neuroses, are unable to see through their own insecurity and fear to selectively and confidently choose an appropriate activity and, as a result, end up doing little to nothing at all. In any event, neuroticism emerged in this study as an important and previously unidentified determinant of activity choice that warrants additional study in future research.

Concluding Thoughts

Sense of self is a fundamental aspect of psychological well-being. The inability to know one's own motives, desires, opinions, political affiliations, and the like would surely make living in today's hectic, fast-paced world a ruthless and unforgiving undertaking. The recurring need to make important decisions, such as the decision to enter into a relationship with one particular person over another or the decision of whether or not to accept a promotion that requires relocation, must certainly weigh heavily on individuals with a weak sense of self. These people may go about their lives trapped in a fog of self-doubt. Further research may help us to understand more precisely how possessing a weak sense of self can impair people's ability to navigate their course through life.

APPENDIX A

THE SENSE OF SELF SCALE

Below are a number of statements concerning your personal attitudes and characteristics. Please read each statement and consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. Then respond to the statement as accurately as possible by using the following scale to indicate how much you agree with it.

- 1 – strongly disagree
- 2 – disagree somewhat
- 3 – neither agree nor disagree
- 4 – agree somewhat
- 5 – strongly agree

1. I wish I were more consistent in my feelings. _____
2. It's hard for me to figure out my own personality, interests, and opinions. _____
3. I often confuse my own thoughts and feelings with those of others. _____
4. I often think how fragile my existence is. _____
5. I have a pretty good sense of what my long-term goals are in life. _____
6. I sometimes wonder if people can actually see me. _____
7. Other people's thoughts and feelings seem to carry greater weight than my own. _____
8. I have a clear and definite sense of who I am and what I'm all about. _____
9. My opinions and values can change almost as quickly as my moods. _____
10. It bothers me that my personality doesn't seem to be well defined. _____
11. I'm not sure that I can understand or put much trust in my thoughts and feelings. _____
12. I find it difficult to distinguish my beliefs and perspectives from other people's beliefs and perspectives. _____
13. Who am I? is a question that I ask myself a lot. _____
14. I need other people to help me understand what I think or how I feel. _____
15. My beliefs and values can change from day to day. _____
16. I tend to be very sure of myself and stick to my own preferences even when the group I am with expresses different preferences. _____

APPENDIX B

THE FACTOR IV SCALE OF EMOTIONAL STABILITY

Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each of the following statements describes you:

- 1 – very inaccurate
- 2 – moderately inaccurate
- 3 – neither accurate nor inaccurate
- 4 – moderately accurate
- 5 – very accurate

- 1. I am easily disturbed. _____
- 2. I have frequent mood swings. _____
- 3. I seldom feel blue. _____
- 4. I get upset easily. _____
- 5. I am relaxed most of the time. _____
- 6. I get stressed out easily. _____
- 7. I worry about things. _____
- 8. I often feel blue. _____
- 9. I get irritated easily. _____
- 10. I change my mood a lot. _____

APPENDIX C

THE ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Below are a number of statements concerning your personal attitudes and characteristics. Please read each statement and consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. Then respond to the statement as accurately as possible by using the following scale to indicate how much you agree with it.

- 1 – strongly disagree
- 2 – disagree somewhat
- 3 – neither agree nor disagree
- 4 – agree somewhat
- 5 – strongly agree

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

APPENDIX D

THE SELF-CONCEPT CLARITY SCALE

Below are a number of statements concerning your personal attitudes and characteristics. Please read each statement and consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. Then respond to the statement as accurately as possible by using the following scale to indicate how much you agree with it.

- 1 – strongly disagree
- 2 – disagree somewhat
- 3 – neither agree nor disagree
- 4 – agree somewhat
- 5 – strongly agree

1. My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another. _____
2. One day I might have one opinion of myself and on another day I might have a different opinion. _____
3. I spend a lot of time wondering about what kind of person I really am. _____
4. Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be. _____
5. When I think about the kind of person I have been in the past, I'm not sure what I was really like. _____
6. I seldom experience conflict between the different aspects of my personality_____
7. Sometimes I think I know other people better than I know myself. _____
8. My beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently. _____
9. If I were asked to describe my personality, my description might end up being different from one day to another day. _____
10. Even if I wanted to, I don't think I would tell someone what I'm really like.
11. In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am. _____
12. It is often hard for me to make up my mind about things because I don't really know what I want. _____

APPENDIX E

THE CROCKER CONTINGENT SELF-ESTEEM MEASURE

Below are a number of statements concerning your personal attitudes and characteristics. Please read each statement and consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. Then respond to the statement as accurately as possible by using the following scale to indicate how much you agree with it.

- 1—strongly agree
- 2—disagree somewhat strongly
- 3—disagree slightly
- 4—neutral
- 5—agree slightly
- 6—agree somewhat strongly
- 7—strongly agree

1. My self-esteem is influenced by how attractive I think my face or facial features are. _____
2. I can't respect myself if others don't respect me. _____
3. I don't care what other people think of me. _____
4. My self-esteem is unrelated to how I feel about the way my body looks. _____
5. My self-esteem does not depend on whether or not I feel attractive. _____
6. What others think of me has no effect on what I think about myself. _____
7. My sense of self-worth suffers whenever I think I don't look good. _____
8. I don't care if other people have a negative opinion about me. _____
9. When I think I look attractive, I feel good about myself. _____
10. My self-esteem depends on the opinions others hold of me. _____

APPENDIX F

THE SELF-MONITORING SCALE

Below are a number of statements concerning your personal attitudes and characteristics. Please read each statement and consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. Then respond to the statement as accurately as possible by answering either T (True) if you agree with the statement or F (False) if you do not agree with the statement.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. _____
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.

3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. _____
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. _____
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others. _____
6. I would probably make a good actor. _____
7. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention. _____
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.

9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me. _____
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be. _____
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor. _____
12. I have considered being an entertainer. _____
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. _____
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.

15. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going. _____
16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should. _____
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end). _____
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. _____

APPENDIX G

THE TEN-ITEM PERSONALITY INVENTORY

Here are a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you. Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other.

- 1—Disagree strongly
- 2—Disagree moderately
- 3—Disagree a little
- 4—Neither agree nor disagree
- 5—Agree a little
- 6—Agree moderately
- 7—Agree strongly

I see myself as:

1. Extraverted, enthusiastic. _____
2. Critical, quarrelsome. _____
3. Dependable, self-disciplined. _____
4. Anxious, easily upset. _____
5. Open to new experiences, complex. _____
6. Reserved, quiet. _____
7. Sympathetic, warm. _____
8. Disorganized, careless. _____
9. Calm, emotionally stable. _____
10. Conventional, uncreative. _____

APPENDIX H

THE PERSONAL BACKGROUND SURVEY

General Instructions

This is a personal background survey. In this survey, we ask you to tell us about your hobbies and interests, your participation in sports activities, your participation in clubs and organizations, your dating and work history, and your choice of a college major and a future career or occupation. We also ask you to provide some basic demographic information about your gender, age, family background, and so on.

Your completion of this survey is completely voluntary. If you decide that you would prefer not to complete it, you are under no obligation to do so. If you decide to complete the survey but choose not to answer one or more of the specific questions it contains, please write "not answered" as your response to any such questions.

The survey questionnaire should take about an hour to complete. If you finish it early, please be sure to give it to the survey administrator before you leave. *All of the data you provide will be kept strictly anonymous and will be used for statistical purposes only. Findings will be reported at the level of the entire sample, and not at the individual level.*

Outline of the Personal Background Survey:

- Part 1: Hobbies and Interests
- Part 2: Sports Activities
- Part 3: Clubs and Organizations
- Part 4: Dating Partners
- Part 5: Work History
- Part 6: Major and Career Choice
- Part 7: Demographic Items

Part 1: Hobbies and Interests

Did you pursue any hobbies and interests when you were in middle school (junior high school)?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the hobbies and interests you pursued during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Hobby or interest	Major reason for pursuing it
<hr/>	<hr/>
<hr/>	<hr/>
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Did you pursue any hobbies and interests when you were in high school?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the hobbies and interests you pursued during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Hobby or interest	Major reason for pursuing it
<hr/>	<hr/>
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Have you pursued any hobbies and interests while you have been in college?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the hobbies and interests you have pursued during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Hobby or interest	Major reason for pursuing it
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

If you did **not** pursue any hobbies and interests while in middle school, high school, or college, please list your major reason for **not** doing so during that time.

Time period	Major reason for <i>not</i> pursuing a hobby or interest
Middle school:	_____
High school:	_____
College:	_____

Part 2: Sports Activities

Did you participate in any sports activities when you were in middle school (junior high school)?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the sports activities you participated in during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Sports activity	Major reason for participating
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Did you participate in any sports activities when you were in high school?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the sports activities you participated in during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Sports activity	Major reason for participating
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Have you participated in any sports activities while you have been in college?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the sports activities you have participated in during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Sports activity	Major reason for participating
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

If you did **not** participate in any sports activities while in middle school, high school, or college, please list your major reason for **not** doing so during that time.

Time period	Major reason for <i>not</i> participating in any sports activity
Middle school:	_____
High school:	_____
College:	_____

Part 3: Clubs and Organizations

Did you join any clubs and organizations when you were in middle school (junior high school)?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the clubs and organizations you joined during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Club or organization	Major reason for joining
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Did you join any clubs and organizations when you were in high school?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the clubs and organizations you joined during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Club or organization	Major reason for joining
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Have you joined any clubs and organizations while you have been in college?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below all of the clubs and organizations you have joined during that time and your major reason for doing so.

Club or organization	Major reason for joining
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

If you did **not** join any clubs or organizations while in middle school, high school, or college, please list your major reason for **not** doing so during that time.

Time period	Major reason for <i>not</i> joining any club or organization
Middle school:	_____
High school:	_____
College:	_____

Part 4: Dating Partners

Did you have any dating partners when you were in middle school (junior high school)?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below *the initials* of all of the dating partners you had during that time and your major reason for dating each of these persons.

Initials of dating partner

Major reason for dating this person

Did you have any dating partners when you were in high school?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below *the initials* of all of the dating partners you had during that time and your major reason for dating each of these persons.

Initials of dating partner

Major reason for dating this person

Have you had any dating partners while you have been in college?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below *the initials* of all of the dating partners you had during that time and your major reason for dating each of these persons.

Initials of dating partner	Major reason for dating this person
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

If you did **not** have any dating partners while in middle school, high school, or college, please list your major reason for **not** doing so during that time.

Time period	Major reason for <i>not</i> having any dating partners
Middle school:	_____
High school:	_____
College:	_____

Are you currently in a romantic relationship that you consider to be stable and committed?

- a. yes
- b. no

If not, what—in your opinion—is the major reason why you currently are not in a stable and committed romantic relationship?

Part 5: Work History

Did you work at any part- or full-time jobs when you were in middle school (junior high school)?
(Do **not** include family chores done at home.)

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below the part- or full-time jobs that you had during that time and your major reason for working at each of these jobs.

Part- or full-time job (list your job title or duties)	Major reason for working at this job
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Did you work at any part- or full-time jobs when you were in high school? (Do **not** include family chores done at home.)

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below the part- or full-time jobs that you had during that time and your major reason for working at each of these jobs.

Part- or full-time job (list your job title or duties)	Major reason for working at this job
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Have you worked at any part- or full-time jobs while you have been in college?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, please list below the part- or full-time jobs that you had during that time and your major reason for working at each of these jobs.

Part- or full-time job (list your job title or duties)	Major reason for working at this job
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

If you did **not** work at any part- or full-time jobs while in middle school, high school, or college, please list your major reason for **not** doing so during that time.

Time period	Major reason for <i>not</i> having any part- or full-time jobs
Middle school:	_____
High school:	_____
College:	_____

Please list any volunteer work or community service work that you have done, and your major reason for doing it.

Volunteer or community service work

Major reason for doing this work

If you have not done any volunteer work or community service work, please list your major reason for not having done any.

Part 6: Major and Career Choice

Have you chosen a major field of study yet?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, what is your current major? _____

Have you chosen any previous majors that you later decided **not** to pursue?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, what previous major(s) did you have that you later decided **not** to pursue and what was your main reason for doing that?

Previous major:

Main reason for **not** continuing this major:

If you haven't chosen a major field of study yet, what—in your opinion—is the main reason why you haven't done so?

Have you chosen a career or occupation yet?

- a. yes
- b. no

If so, what career or occupation have you chosen? _____

If not, what—in your opinion—is the major reason why you haven't done so?

Part 7: Demographic Items

1. What is your gender? (circle one) Male Female
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your ethnicity? (circle one)
Asian Black Hispanic White Other (specify) _____
4. How many brothers do you have? _____ What are their ages? _____
5. How many sisters do you have? _____ What are their ages? _____
6. Do you come from a home in which your parents divorced? Yes No
7. If your parents divorced, how old were you when their divorce occurred? _____
8. If your parents divorced, who was your primary guardian following the divorce? (circle one)
Father Mother Both (equally shared custody)
9. How many different residences have you lived in before coming to college (in other words, what is the number of different addresses at which you and/or your family have lived)?

10. What is the highest level of education achieved by your father?
High School Some College Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree PhD Degree
11. What is the highest level of education achieved by your mother?
High School Some College Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree PhD Degree
12. In which of the following ranges is your parent's combined annual income? (circle one)
Less than \$50,000 \$50,000-75,000 \$75,000-100,000 More than \$100,000
13. What is your favorite movie? _____ Can't say _____
14. What is your favorite television show? _____ Can't say _____
15. What is your favorite album or CD? _____ Can't say _____
16. What is your favorite book? _____ Can't say _____
17. What is your favorite food? _____ Can't say _____
18. What is your favorite color? _____ Can't say _____

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Michael Shaun Culwell is a native of Fort Worth, Texas and completed a Bachelor of Science Degree in Psychology and Criminal Justice in 1998 from Texas Christian University. He is currently working on completing a Doctor of Philosophy Degree from the University of Texas at Arlington. Mr. Culwell is both a licensed private pilot and a SCUBA instructor. Upon graduation, Mr. Culwell has plans of pursuing a career in writing and motivational and inspirational speaking.