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Generational and gender differences in response to traditional male and female personality characteristics

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GENERATIONAL AND GENDER DIFFERENCES IN RESPONSE

TO TRADITIONAL MALE AND FEMALE

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

by
Tricia M. Cirineo

A Thesis

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Approved by_____
                                    Dr. Dihoff

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Abstract

Tricia M. Cirineo
Generational and Gender Differences in Response
to Traditional Male and Female Personality Characteristics
1999
Dr. Dihoff
School Psychology

There are many stereotypes pertaining to what is a typical male and typical female characteristic. The purpose of this study was to determine the difference in attitudes towards these characteristics between two different generations. Many theorists feel that masculine and feminine characteristics are on opposite poles of a continuous spectrum, while others feel it is possible to possess both masculine and feminine characteristics, termed androgyny. The Bem Sex Role Inventory, the measure utilized in the present study, was developed to measure masculine and feminine characteristics, as well as the concept of androgyny (Bem, 1974).

The sample in this study consisted of 90 participants. Each subject completed the BSRI. This is a 60 item self-report measure. Subjects indicated how well the personality characteristics described themselves. Findings were there was no significant differences found between generations in their responses to the BSRI. However, there was a significant difference between males and females in each generation. There was no interaction effect between generation and gender regarding responses to the BSRI. In conclusion, typical male and female characteristics were endorsed by the subjects of this study. Consistent with previous literature, significant differences were found between male and female responses to the BSRI.

Mini-Abstract

Tricia M. Cirineo
Generational and Gender Differences in Response
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Many stereotypes exist as to what is a typical male and female characteristic. This study determined the difference in attitudes towards these characteristics between two different generations. Subjects completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory which measures masculinity, femininity and androgyny for gender characteristics. This study revealed differences found for scores on the BSRI between males and females, not between generations.

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Chapter 1: The Problem

Need

The study initially conducted by Bem (1974), interested this researcher to further study gender roles. What Bem reported in that study had been consistent with studies such as Martin (1987). That study found that men and women typically endorsed characteristics that are traditionally masculine for males and traditionally feminine for females. The characteristics that were chosen as masculine tend to be valued more in society than the characteristics chosen as feminine. Since the characteristics that were chosen as masculine were attributed to males, this has led to many gender stereotypes.

Gender stereotypes have been found to exist in the home, in the schools, in the workplace and in society in general. These stereotypes have consistently been more favorable to males than females. Over the recent decades, women have made great strides in many areas including the workplace. This change seemed to dispel many of the stereotypes of women including stereotypic jobs. It also changed the woman's role in the home. Women who worked outside the home also had to come home and do much of the work there. Many times husbands and wives divided the work in the home with men taking on more the stereotypic female duties. This also changed the stereotypes concerning men (Baron & Byrne, 1994, chap. 5, p. 202).

One believed society had changed in different ways over the years. What was thought to be traditional viewpoints on gender had changed. Different ideas were taught reflecting new attitudes, behaviors and opportunities for each gender. New generations reflected these differences in which ways that gender roles were perceived. Still, according to some research, the traditional characteristics were chosen in describing males and females. If males were typically described with characteristics reflecting "instrumentality" and females

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"expressiveness", than the gender stereotypes still exist (Bem, 1974). It has been the interest of this researcher to determine whether these stereotypes were still prevalent at the present time and whether there was a difference in attitudes toward these gender roles between two generations. Had society changed the current misconceptions of masculine and feminine characteristics? This research can contribute to the finding regarding gender roles and determine whether there are still traditional stereotypes regarding gender.

Purpose

There are many stereotypes pertaining to what is a typical male and female characteristic. By using the Bem Sex Role Inventory, subjects identify which traits they feel are suggestive of these gender roles. The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a significant differences in attitudes about these gender roles between two different generations.

Hypothesis

A significant difference in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics will exist between two different generations.

Theory

Children come to understand their gender identity at a very early age where it is demonstrated in their play, interaction and conversation. A significant way children adopt gender-related behaviors is through modeling. People that are close to them, such as parents, teachers and peers, model behavior that the children see specifying particular behavior for particular gender roles. Children begin showing gender-related preferences in toys by the age of two. Boys play with cars or trucks and show "rough-and-tumble" play where as girls play with soft, cuddly toys. A second way children learn gender role

concept is through cognitive understanding of their gender (Sroufe, Cooper, DeHart, 1992, chap. 10, p. 364-365).

There are two theories underlying the development of gender roles in children: social learning theory and cognitive development theory. Social learning theorists state children learn gender roles through direct reinforcement of behavior and activities (Sroufe et al., 1992, chap. 10, p. 368). They receive approval for engaging in gender-appropriate behavior and disapproval for gender-inappropriate behavior (Baron & Byrne, 1994, chap.5, p.198). Children also learn through modeling what is appropriate behavior for their gender (Sroufe et al., 1992, chap. 10, p.368). Children match behaviors of their parents and eventually generalize this behavior to others who appear similar to their parents (Baron et al., 1994, chap.5, p.198). Cognitive theorists state that children learn as a part of their cognitive development. Once they learn what is masculine and feminine, they adopt appropriate behaviors for each. Gender schema theory is a combination of the two previous theories. According to this theory, all children can organize ideas about gender roles, but it differs according to what has been the context of their social learning (Baron et al., 1994, chap.5, p. 198).

Parents often initiate gender stereotypes, when children are little, by dressing them differently, giving them different toys and showing concern when the child isn't engaging in gender-appropriate play (Sroufe et al., 1992, chap.10, p.365). Children may also learn about gender stereotypes through direct observation of an adults' stereotype (Martin,1995). Teachers also perpetuate gender roles in the classroom by having separate boys and girls lines, dividing classroom chores into gender-appropriate tasks or contests placing the girls against the boys (Sroufe et al., 1992, chap.12, p.468).

From the time we are children throughout our lives we are bombarded with what society deems appropriate or inappropriate gender roles and behavior. We learn at a young age what gender roles mean and throughout our lives continue to perpetuate the

stereotypes instilled in our society. Very little has changed and gender roles seem to be both thought of as traditionally masculine and feminine.

According to many theorists, at one time, masculine and feminine characteristics were seen to be on opposite ends of a continuous spectrum. A person was seen as either masculine or feminine, but not both (Bem, 1974). Traditionally, masculine qualities are seen as instrumental and feminine qualities are seen as expressive (Bem, 1974; Spence & Helrich, 1981 as cited in Burn, O'Neil & Nederend, 1996). This viewpoint further stated that it was important for mental health to utilize this traditional sex typing and maladaptive if it was not used (Major, Carnevale & Deaux, 1981).

Bem (1974) asserted that individuals can also be classified as androgynous, which means possessing both masculine and feminine characteristics. Having both these characteristics allows one to determine his or her behavior depending upon the situation. Those that possess only the traditional characteristics tend to limit the amount of behavior that is available to them and tend not to perform sex-reversed behavior well when the situation deems fit. The use of an androgynous self-concept, therefore, allows the individual to demonstrate either masculine or feminine behaviors. It has also been stated that androgynous individuals possess more social skills than those that are only masculine or only feminine typed (Kelly & Worell, 1977; as cited in Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987). Another study revealed that androgynous women scored lower on a depression scale than feminine-typed women and lower on a schizophrenia scale than masculine-typed women (Burchard & Servin, 1982; as cited in Ramanaiah, Detwiler & Byravan, 1995).

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was developed in part to measure masculine and feminine characteristics, as well as provide support for the concept of androgyny. This inventory differs from other inventories because each scale of masculinity and femininity was determined by what society's sex-typed standards have deemed desirable. Characteristics were chosen determining what is an appropriate characteristic for a male or female in an American Society. Some items that were listed under the masculine list were:

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"aggressive, assertive, dominant, independent" and some items listed under the feminine list were: "affectionate, warm, gentle, sympathetic" (Bem, 1974).

Definitions

<u>The following definitions are based on Baron & Byrne, 1994, p.212-213.</u>

Androgyny- On Bem's test, the characteristic of those whose responses include elements consistent with both the traditional masculine and the traditional feminine gender roles.

Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)- Bem's test to measure the extent to which an individual adopts a traditional masculine gender role, a traditional feminine gender role, a mixture of the two (androgyny), or neither (undifferentiated).

Gender Roles- The patterns of traits associated with masculinity or with femininity in each culture.

Gender-Role Stereotype- See Sex-Role Stereotype.

Sex-Role Behavior- The overt actions that a person carries out to express his or her sex role (gender role).

Sex-Role Stereotypes- Beliefs about the behavioral attributes associated with maleness and femaleness (also known as Gender Role Stereotype).

<u>The following definitions are based on Sroufe, Cooper & DeHart, 1992, p. 589-600.</u>

Cognitive Developmental Theory- A theory that attempts to explain developmental change in how people think about the world and how they mentally represent and organize reality.

Gender Role Concept- Cognitive understanding of what being a male or female means.

Gender Schema Theory- The theory that holds that the child's concept of gender is shaped both by emerging abilities to abstract general rules about what is male and female and by direct reinforcement and social modeling.

Modeling- The imitation by children of behavior they have observed.

Social Learning Theory- A developmental theory that borrows heavily from behavioral models in emphasizing the importance of gradual modification of behavior through positive and negative reinforcement, especially through the observation of the social consequences of particular acts.

Assumptions

One assumption was that the responses given by the subjects were his or her honest opinions. In dealing with self-report inventories, sometimes subjects choose answers to look more socially acceptable. However, the BSRI accounted for this tendency while developing the scale to insure answers would reflect actual responses. Second assumption was that these subjects were a representative sample of each generation. Each subject was placed in one of two groups according to his or her age. Third, the diverse backgrounds of the subjects occurred as often in each of the two generations accounting for these differences. Finally, since there are other scales that measure masculine and feminine characteristics, one must assume the BSRI was the most appropriate measure used.

Limitations

One limitation of this study was many of the subjects' environments were different while completing this inventory. This produced different extraneous variables to be considered. Second, while assuming these subjects were a representative sample, the generalizability must be limited to this area. Third, the researcher was not experienced with giving this inventory and therefore not an expert.

Overview

In chapter two, the literature will be reviewed. Many of the following articles have used the Bem Sex Role Inventory to determine gender roles among many issues. In

chapter three, the design of this study is discussed covering issues such as sample size, the type of measurement used and the particular design developed to test the hypothesis.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

The articles chosen for review incorporate ideas of gender, gender-stereotypes, influences on gender-roles as children and adults, implications of particular sex-types and studies assessing sex-types in individuals. This researcher chose to organize the literature accordingly, from association with childhood into adulthood. Each section is titled according to its pertinent topics. The final section reviewed bares most relevance to this researcher's current study.

Parental Influences on Gender-Role Identity

As was stated in the theory section, gender role development begins at a very early age. From the time children are born, parents have different expectations about their child based on whether the baby is a boy or a girl (Witt, 1997). Babies wear clothes with gender-specific colors and play with gender-specific toys. Children are encouraged by their parents to participate in sex-typed activities including, doll playing for girls and truck playing for boys (Eccles, Jacobs, Harold, 1990; as cited in Witt, 1997). As the child grows older, the chores also become sex-typed. Boys tend to do maintenance chores around the house and girls engage in domestic chores. This leads to the development of ideas in children that certain types of work are linked with gender. These messages established in childhood are often continued into adulthood.

When an infant is born, he or she forms an attachment to the parents. It is this attachment that some researchers believe there is a significant relationship between that behavior and gender-role identity. They feel it could be the physical and psychological safety experienced through the attachment behavior that generates the gender stereotypes into female and male concepts (Haigler, Day & Marshall, 1995).

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Numerous studies show the significance of a child's attachment to caregivers for his or her personality development. Researchers feel it is the warmth, nurturance and the caregiver's responsiveness that influence gender-role development (Haigler et al., 1995). The attachment relationship continues to be important throughout childhood, adolescence and adulthood (Ainsworth, 1989; as cited in Haigler et al., 1995). Attachment to parents in adolescence is associated with self-esteem, life satisfaction and adjustment to college (Haigler et al., 1995).

This study conducted by Haigler et al., (1995) looked at late adolescent male and female college students, gender-role identity and level of attachment to parents. It was predicted that there would be a difference in attachment to mother than to father; sex of subject would reveal no significant differences in attachment; there would be a significant difference between the sex-typed individuals and attachment; there would be more attachment between parent and same sex-typed child (Haigler et al., 1995).

The participants were 218 (females, n=130; males, n=88) college students. Subjects were given the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) which classifies individuals on the basis of their gender-role identity. It is a 60 item self-report measure, 20 items each represent stereotypical masculine and feminine characteristics and 20 items are neutral. Subjects indicate which characteristics are self-descriptive utilizing a 7-point Likert scale ((1) never or almost never true to (7) always or almost always true) (Bem, 1981a; as cited in Haigler et al., 1995). Subjects were also given the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment-Revised, utilizing a 5-point Likert scale, yielding attachment scores for mother, father and peers. Each section contains 25 items which subjects indicate how well the statement describes their relationship with mother, father and peers (Haigler et al., 1995).

The results indicated that there was a significant overall attachment to mother rather than father, $F(1, 120) = 13.83$, $p < .001$, but there was no significant difference in parental attachment between males and females (F (less than) 1.0). There was a significant difference for gender-role identity, $F(3, 210) = 3.79$, $p = .011$, revealing that androgynous

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and feminine groups scored higher on attachment than masculine or undifferentiated groups. The hypothesis stating that same gender-typed individuals would be more attached to the respective parent was not supported, $F(3, 210) = 1.41$, $p = .24$. The findings of this study suggest that there is a relationship between parental attachment and gender-role identity (Haigler et al., 1995).

Childhood Stereotypes

As previously stated gender stereotypes emerge in childhood, especially during play activities. Girls play with dolls and more pretend games and boys play with cars, construction toys and physical games (Colley, Griffiths, Hugh, Landers & Jaggli, 1996). This is a way for the child to incorporate gender into their social learning. It helps to reinforce gender-appropriate behavior and activities (Lever, 1976; as cited in Colley et al., 1996). Previous research shows that gender-appropriate behavior is more rigid for boys while they are younger and more rigid for girls in their adolescence. Siblings tend to influence play activities of an older or younger child. Same sex siblings tend to reinforce gender stereotyped interests and opposite sex siblings reduces gender stereotyping because of differences in play preferences (Colley et al., 1996).

The present study (Colley et al., 1996) looked at the relationship between same and opposite sex siblings, preferences for play and leisure activities and gender role identity. The participants were 115 female and 53 male undergraduates who answered whether they had siblings and amount of time spent with them. They also listed 5 activities during childhood and adolescence. The subjects also completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

Female respondents listed skipping and hopscotch and males listed soccer and tag as examples of childhood games. Females named shopping and movies and males named football and rugby as some activities during adolescence. The interaction for siblings during childhood and adolescence was found by using an ANOVA. It was found that females interacted more with female siblings than males (Females x=2.01, Males x=1.36,

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F (1,86) = 20.08, p < .001), but there was no significant difference in interaction with male siblings (Females x=1.73, Males x=1.78). A higher level of interaction was found for both male and female siblings during childhood than adolescence (Female siblings: Childhood x=2.17, Adolescence x=1.43, F(1,86) = 43.48, p < .001; Male Siblings: Childhood x=2.10, Adolescence x=1.40, F(1,101) = 46.06, p < .001) (Colley et al., 1996). Females showed significant correlation between their feminine score and their interaction with female siblings during childhood (r =.236, p < .01) and adolescence (r =.203, p < .05). The findings of this study show that sibling interaction does have implications for gender stereotyped play preferences (Colley et al., 1996).

As stated previously, gender-role development has many influences including adult stereotypes. These stereotypes may be perpetuated by parents who treat their child differently according to sex. Previous studies found that parents believed in differences between girls and boys and acknowledged these differences through activities not personality traits (Antill, 1987; as cited in Martin, 1995). Another study found parents try to socialize their children toward the same goals, but believe each child starts out with different characteristics according to their sex (Macoby and Jacklin, 1974; as cited in Martin,1995).

The present study (Martin, 1995) is a two-fold investigation assessing adults' stereotypes of gender-traditional and non-traditional children. This study proposed adults would have strong stereotypes for behaviors and stereotype traits according to typicality and desirability. Participants (57 women, 24 men) used a two-part questionnaire to assess desirability and typicality of characteristics for girls and boys (age 4-7). Characteristics were chosen from BSRI (Bem, 1974) and the "Expectation" and "Perception" scales by Rothbart and Maccoby (1966; as cited in Martin, 1995). Results indicated 11 characteristics were significantly more typical of boys (p< .01, two-tailed) and 13 characteristics were rated more typical of girls (p< .01). Six characteristics were more

desirable for girls and 4 characteristics were more desirable for boys (both p< .05). These results indicated there were different ideas about typical and desirable traits.

Study two used the ratio method to assess adults' stereotypes of girls and boys with ratios greater than 1.0 indicating more boys than girls possess that trait and less than 1.0 indicating more girls possess that trait. It also looked at stereotypes for traditional (feminine and masculine typed) and non-traditional children (sissies and tomboys). The participants (97 females, 57 males) filled out the same questionnaires as in study one with the addition of the trait "warm". Subjects indicated the percentages of traditional and non-traditional children with those traits. Results were similar to study one. New results demonstrated that adults perceived that tomboys and boys differ on 8 out of 26 characteristics and sissies and girls differed on 21 out of 26 characteristics (ps< .05). The study also revealed that adults believe more boys and tomboys have masculine characteristics and girls and sissies have more feminine characteristics (ps< .001). This study revealed that adults' stereotypes have an impact on how they perceive children which can affect how a child is viewed by that adult.

Studies have revealed that many women stated they were tomboys as children. Tomboys are believed to engage in play behaviors of both boys and girls (Burn, O'Neil & Nederend, 1996). This leads to exposure of both instrumental (masculine) and expressive (feminine) behaviors. Tomboys are usually accepted because it is believed that the child will grow out of this type of behavior (Martin, 1990; as cited in Burn et al., 1996). Tomboys may conform more to female gender norms at the onset of puberty or perhaps due to peer and adult pressures (Hyde, 1991; as cited in Burn et al., 1996).

In the study conducted by Burn et al., (1996) it was predicted that androgyny and masculinity scores would predict tomboyism scores. Tomboyism would also be common with decline due to puberty and social pressure. The participants were 194 female college students who completed the BSRI, the Tomboy Index (questions regarding types of clothing and toys) and what age and why they stopped being tomboys. The results

indicated a greater relationship between masculinity and tomboyism (r = .43, p<.001) than for tomboyism and femininity (r = -.11, p> .05) and tomboyism and androgyny (r = .29, p< .001). Fifteen of the 40 adjectives on the BSRI were related to tomboyism (p=.05), with most of those referring to masculinity. Social pressure was the reason (3 out of 4 categories) most stopped being a tomboy. The reason that tomboyism is common may be due to the fact that male activities are most valued in society and these activities engaged in during childhood can lead to the possession of masculine traits in adulthood (Burn et al., 1996).

Sex-Roles and Influences on College Majors, Careers and Marriage

Students, in their young adult years, develop a sense of purpose in the direction of goals and their future (Chickering, 1969; as cited in Dawson-Threat & Huba, 1996). One way for this development to occur is choosing a major. This may occur differently for males and females especially now with new opportunities open to women. However, according to society, men are afforded a wider variety of career choices than women (Block, 1984; as cited in Dawson-Threat, et al., 1996). Another variable affected the development of purpose is a students' sex-role identification proposed by four categories: masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated (Bem, 1974).

The researchers in this study (Dawson-Threat et al., 1996) investigated the relationship between sex-role identification of males and females, choice of major, representativeness in their perspective majors, masculinity and femininity scores of those in (non)traditional majors and clarity of purpose in relation to these factors. It was predicted that males and students in male-dominated majors would have a higher clarity of purpose than females. The participants were 396 male and female college students who each filled out the 78 true-false items of the Establishing and Clarifying Purpose section of the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory Revised (SDTLFI) which assessed levels of

personal development (Winston & Miller, 1987; as cited in Dawson-Threat et al., 1996).

The students also completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

The results indicated that some traditional sex-role identification was found. For males: 44% were masculine identified, 9.2% feminine identified, 20.3% androgynous, and 26.1% undifferentiated. For females: 11.1% were masculine identified, 35.8% feminine identified, 33.8% androgynous and 19.3% undifferentiated. Both findings were significant, $x2$ (3)= 77.59, p< .0001. "Females in female-dominated majors described themselves as more feminine than females in male-dominated majors, t (241) = 4.14, p<.0001" (Dawson-Threat et al., 1996, p.302). Majors were dominated by males and females who saw themselves with traditional characteristics 76.5% and 80.5% respectively. Androgynous males (45.2%) selected female-dominated majors while androgynous females (23.2%) selected male-dominated majors, $x2$ (1) = 10.39, p <.01. Clarity of purpose showed a main effect for sex-role identification, F (3,380) = 15.53, p< .0001. Research showed that gender-role identity does have some influence on choice of major. This can also be influenced by society and how it deems masculine and feminine factors in choice of major. This research also showed that androgynous individuals had higher clarity of purpose scores than all other sex-role groups, maybe because they do not limit their possibilities by traditional views governed by society.

The ideas of a career are often formulated during adolescence. In one study conducted, it was found that career interests differed by gender, which was consistent with typical sex role stereotypes (Schulenberg, Goldstein & Vondracek,1991; as cited in Wulff & Steitz, 1997). Often high school curriculum is divided into two tracks: college preparatory and vocational education. The present study (Wulff et al., 1997) investigated the differences between high school girls in the vocational track (cosmetology) and girls in the college preparatory track (upper level math). The researchers hypothesized:(1) the choice of curricular track would reflect traditional sex-role stereotypes; the girls in the upper level mathematics course (stereotypically masculine domain) would be more androgynous than

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the girls in the cosmetology class (stereotypically feminine domain); (2) significant

difference on femininity scores (cosmetology girls scoring higher).

The participants were 20 girls each from the math class and the cosmetology class who

completed the short form of the BSRI. The results indicated that hypothesis 1 was not

supported. The girls in the cosmetology class were shown to be more androgynous and

the girls in the math class were feminine-typed. Hypothesis two was also not supported for

lack of significance t(38) = .63, p=n.s. These results were surprising due to previous

literature linking occupations to traditional sex-role stereotypes. Results may be explained

by the fact that cosmetology students have a narrow field, therefore have their career in

mind. Students in the math class have numerous possibilities for their future (Wulff et al.,

1997).

In continuing with the ideas of careers, women have reported being found increasingly

in managerial positions. However, the stereotypes of traditional sex-roles tends to limit the

career advancement of many women. Previous studies have shown that male subjects

viewed male targets as successful managers, where as women viewed both sexes as

successful (Massengil & DiMarco, 1979; as cited in Deal & Stevenson, 1998). Another

study demonstrated that women targets can be viewed as successful managers, but only

when viewed without a male target also (Heilman et al., 1989; as cited in Deal et al.,

1998).

The purpose of the present study (Deal et al., 1998) was to examine gender differences

in the perceptions of male and female managers. The participants were 702 (m=293,

f=409) introductory psychology students. Subjects completed the Schein Descriptive

Index (SDI), which is a checklist of 92 characteristics representing stereotypical

descriptions of men and women. Subjects indicated whether the items were characteristic

or not characteristic of managers (male, female, non sex-specified).

Results indicated that there was no difference for 31 items according to sex of subject.

"Sentimental" was considered typical of female managers and non sex-specified and

"Strong need for monetary rewards" was seen as characteristic for both sexes. Males were more likely than females to view female managers negatively. Male managers were viewed by both sexes in a positive light which enables the career progress of males. Little has changed over the years of the perceptions of males and females in managerial positions and gender stereotypes continue to persist (Deal et al., 1998).

A study conducted by Rowe and Snizek (1995) addressed the issue of work values for men and women. Gender socialization approach states that women place greater emphasis on relationships than on competition for rewards. Based on this theory, it was hypothesized that women's work values will be more strongly influenced by non work factors. It was also hypothesized that the longer the women are in the workplace, the more their values will resemble men's work values. The researchers analyzed data from 12 national samples. The data suggested there was no difference between men and women in their preference for work. Preference for work depended on age, education and prestige. These researchers found minimal differences on emphasis of gender (Rowe et al., 1995).

Past research has emphasized the link between gender-role attitudes and emotional well-being, satisfaction of life and intimate relationships (Snyder, Velasquez, Clark & Means-Christensen, 1997). This issue has become a prominent part of clinical therapy including family and marriage systems. Traditional gender-role attitudes inhibits flexibility in relationships and promotes irrational beliefs (Feldman, 1986; as cited in Snyder et al., 1997). Traditional gender-role attitudes have a negative impact for both males and females in their relationships. In therapy, gender-roles play an important part of the therapy process, therefore, it is important to determine gender-roles, their origins and views toward marital roles. Previous studies indicated there is a relationship between parents gender-role identity and their child's identity. Parents found to be androgynous had children who were more androgynous demonstrating individuation and emotional autonomy (Orlofsky, 1979; Henry & Hampton, 1992; as cited in Snyder et al., 1997).

The present study (Snyder et al., 1997) examined specific attitudes toward marital, parental roles and non-specific gender-role attitudes. The participants were 171 college students and their parents. Subjects and their parents completed the Role Orientation (ROR) scale of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) which consist of 25 true-false items reflecting marital and parental role attitudes (Snyder, 1981; as cited in Snyder et al., 1997). They also completed the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), each scale containing 8 characteristics for males and females (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975; as cited in Snyder et al., 1997) and the GM (masculine gender role) and the GF (feminine gender role) scales of the MMPI-2 (Peterson & Dahlstrom, 1992; as cited in Snyder et al., 1997).

Results showed that young men's attitudes were strongly correlated with both their mothers' and fathers' score (rs = .51 & .59) respectively toward marital and parental role. Fathers' scores on the PAQ correlated significantly with their sons' scores on the GM and PAQ masculinity scales (p< .05). Females' scores correlated less (r=.37, p< .01) with maternal scores on attitudes toward specific marital and parental roles and even less with paternal ROR scores (r=.18, p< .05). If their mothers scored lower on the PAQ femininity scale and higher on M-F dimension, young women tended to have nontraditional views on marital role. This research lends support to the fact that there is parental influences in attitudes towards marital and parental role. This also lends support for the need of clinicians to determine gender-role attitude not only of the couples, but of their families when treating couples in therapy (Snyder et al., 1997).

Sex-Roles and Life Satisfaction

Sex differences have been linked to life satisfaction with conflicting reports stating men have greater life satisfaction, while other reports find the opposite to be true. Conflicting reports of gender-role orientation and the satisfaction of life also exist stating it is the

masculinity scores associated with greater life satisfaction, but findings also support it is the androgynous scores linked to satisfaction of life (Seybolt & Wagner, 1997).

The purpose of this present study (Seybolt et al., 1997) was to examine the extent of self-reinforcement, which is the process of establishing control over one's behavior, sex and gender-roles in the prediction of life satisfaction. The participants were 182 undergraduates (f=135,m=49) which completed the Frequency of Self-Reinforcement Questionnaire, a 30 true-false item measure questioning their efforts at encouraging and valuing themselves (Heiby, 1983a; as cited in Seybolt et al., 1997). Subjects also completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to classify their gender role (Bem, 1974) and the Satisfaction with Life Scale, a five item scale assessing global life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985; as cited in Seybolt et al., 1997). The results indicated that feminine gender-role reported greatest life satisfaction (M=25.3, SD=5.8). Both self-reinforcement (F=50.94, p<.0001) and gender-role (F= 3.43, p<.05) had significant main effects. The mean of life satisfaction was almost equal between men (M=23.6, SD=7.3) and women (M=23.5, SD=6.4). The sample of students which this study attained results might live in a cultural environment that reinforces traditional sex-typed traits, therefore they report higher levels of life satisfaction (Seybolt, et al., 1997).

As Bem has previously stated (1974) people high in androgyny are found to possess high masculine and feminine characteristics. They also possess skills to be more better adjusted, flexible and satisfied with life. The purpose of this study (Ramanaiah, Detwiler & Byravan, 1995) was to investigate the use of Bem's sex-role typology and satisfaction of life. It was predicted that those subjects who are androgynous will have higher satisfaction of life than other sex-typed individuals.

Two hundred and forty-five introductory psychology students took the PAQ (Spence et al., 1975; as cited in Ramanaiah et al., 1995) and the Satisfaction of Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985; as cited in Ramanaiah et al., 1995). The results indicated that the androgynous group had a significantly higher means on the Satisfaction of Life Scale

(M= 26.96 for males; M= 25.79 for females). These means were higher than males in masculine typed group (M=22,89) and higher than females in masculine typed group (M= 24.64). This supported the hypothesis that life satisfaction is reflected in androgynous individuals more than masculine typed individuals. Females indicated life satisfaction for androgynous and masculine typed individuals more than feminine and undifferentiated individuals (Ramanaiah et al., 1995).

Masculine Gender Role Implications

Since the feminist movement, gender roles have been redefined in American societies. For women, the adoptance of typical male gender-role leads to more acceptance, but males face the rigid role of masculinity. Men are typically punished for adopting less masculine roles where women are admired for less feminine roles (McCreary, Wong, Wiener, Carpenter, Engle & Nelson, 1996). Masculine gender role stress (MGRS) is an outcome of the rigidity of the male gender role. This stress becomes apparent when men feel they are not meeting societies expectations of masculinity. MGRS has been associated with poor physical health and psychological well-being (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987; as cited in McCreary et al., 1996).

MGRS theory states that even though women can experience stress in the same situations, it will not lead to the same negative outcomes as for men. The purpose of this study (McCreary et al., 1996) was to test the MGRS theory that responses to situations will have a different negative psychological outcomes for men than women. Participants were 105 male and 114 female students who responded to the Masculine Gender Role Stress scale, a 40 item, Likert scale measurement used to rate the amount of stress one would experience in a number of situations (Eisler et al., 1987; as cited in McCreary et al., 1996). Subjects also answered a Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist-Revised (Zucherman & Lubin, 1985; as cited in McCreary et al., 1996), a 132 item, true-false scale where

subjects agree/disagree with statements about their moods. The subscales used in this study were anxiety, depression and hostility.

The results indicated that men scored significantly higher than women on the MGRS scale (Males, M=97.57; Females, M=84.34). The MGRS was significantly and positively correlated with anxiety, depression and hostility (rs= .26, .22, .25, p< .01) respectively, but gender was not. These findings may be due to the lack of generalizability of the sample. College students may not have the social experience or life experience to understand masculine gender role stress (McCreary et al., 1996).

When referring to language, there is often a cognitive information processing bias which tends to make individuals attribute the male gender when the gender of the individual is unspecified (Merritt & Kok, 1995). This tends to elicit the peope=male bias (Silveira, 1980; as cited in Merritt et al., 1995). Male gender is viewed a prototype for all persons and males are viewed as the norm. In accordance with gender schema theory, sex-typed individuals (masculine, feminine) are more likely to be gender schematic, using their own gender to evaluate and respond to incoming information. Androgynous or undifferentiated individuals are thought to be gender aschematic, attending more to descriptive information about others (Bem, 1981; as cited in Merritt et al., 1995).

The present study "evaluated whether gender aschematic subjects were less likely than gender schematic subjects to attribute the male gender to a gender-unidentified person" (Merritt et al., 1995, p.148). The subjects were 82 female and 85 male college students randomly divided into 3 groups, each reading a different script: Business, Education and Interpersonal Scripts containing descriptive information about an individual named Chris. Each script was analyzed before with a different group and found to be gender neutral, thus providing a strict assessment of people=male bias. Subjects also completed the BSRI and asked if they thought the subject in the script was male or female.

The results indicated there was no significant correlation between BSRI classification in relation to the attribution of gender to the character in each script. As was predicted,

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male gender was attributed to the gender-unspecified character in the scripts by both males and females, $[X.sup.2]$ (1, N=167) = 50.99, p< .0001. People=male bias appears to affect the perceptions of males and females equally regardless of their sex-type. The reduction of masculine terms in the English language could help reduce the tendency toward people=male bias in our culture (Merritt et al., 1995).

Investigations of Stereotypic Masculine & Feminine Characteristics

Since the introduction of Bem's Sex Role Inventory, numerous studies have been conducted to investigate stereotypic gender roles. BSRI and other instruments could now be used to assess gender roles and their impact on psychological adjustment. The congruence model, which states that masculinity and femininity are at opposite poles, reports that psychological well-being stems from the fact that one's sex-role orientation is similar to one's sex (Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987). This means that males should possess high masculinity and low femininity and females should posses high femininity and low masculinity. The androgyny model asserts that psychological well-being occurs when the individual possesses high levels of both masculine and feminine characteristics. This allows the individual to possess better social skills (Orlofsky et al., 1987).

Researchers looked at the area of psychological adjustment in terms of behavioral adaptability and psychological well-being and found that androgynous individuals adapt their behavior to fit the situation. However, research has found that high levels of masculinity were associated with high levels of self-esteem (Orlofsky et al., 1987). The present study predicted that androgynous and masculine-typed men and women would exhibit better adjustment than feminine-typed and undifferentiated individuals. They also predicted androgynous individuals would score high on expressive and instrumental components of self-esteem. The participants were 200 male and 211 female undergraduates. Each student completed the following measures: (1)Sex Role Behavior Scale (SRBS), a 240 item inventory consisting of male, female, and sex-specific interests

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in four areas: leisure activity, vocational interests, social interaction and marital relationship behavior; (2) Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ); (3) Attitude toward Women Scale (AWS);(4) Monge Self-Concept Scale; (5) Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Orlofsky et al., 1987).

The results indicated that men and women differed on the PAQ, SRBS and AWS scales. "Correlations were found between the AWS and the SRBS sex-specific scale, r (198) = -.33, p< .001 and r (209) = .30, p<.01 for men and women respectively" (Orlofsky et al., 1987, pg. 1036). Masculinity was shown to be associated with general self-esteem for men and women. It was found that masculine traits were related to components of adjustment and self-esteem. Feminine traits were related to the congeniality/sociability scale of the Monge Self-Concept scale. Androgynous and masculine-typed women obtained higher adjustment scores than feminine-typed women. There was no support for the congruence model that states sex-typed men and women are better adjusted. This research demonstrates that sex-role traits, attitudes and behaviors are not as closely tied with sex-role phenomena. It also provides evidence on the effect of sex-role and behaviors. This study cannot be generalized to the population because of the age group. An older sample may have different sex-role interests. Other variables also can affect individuals adjustment besides sex-role patterns (Orlofsky et al., 1987)

Before Bem devised the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1974) masculinity and femininity were see as opposites on a single continuum. With the emergence of BSRI and Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), researchers' aim was to test the theory of bipolar sex-typing. Both tests are devised of desirable aspects of masculinity and femininity. This reasserts the reasoning behind the gender schema theory which states that gender-schematic men and women (masculine men and feminine women) have strong sex-role identification and display various attitudes and behaviors according to society's demands. Gender aschematic individuals, non-sex-typed men and women (androgynous and undifferentiated) are immune to gender stereotypes (Spence, 1993). Multifactorial

gender identity theory states that it is not only the gender of the individual that is an influence, but also attributes, attitudes and preferences. Peoples gender-roles and characteristics they possess at any given time contributes to their sense of masculinity or femininity (Spence & Sawin, 1985; as cited in Spence, 1993).

The hypothesis of the present study was that self-ratings on the BSRI and the PAQ would be correlated with responses on the Rules Questionnaire, a measure that gives a series of situations in which a man or a woman is violating a rule of social behavior (Frable, 1989; as cited in Spence, 1993). Males high in masculinity and low in femininity and reverse pattern for women, as determined by the BSRI, were expected to endorse more traditional sex-role attitudes. Participants, 175 male and 373 female students, were given the BSRI, PAQ, AWS, the Male-Female Relations Questionnaire (MFRQ) and the Rules Questionnaire (in the second session).

One result indicated the correlation between the MFRQ and the BSRI-M scale was $r = -.19$, $p<.01$ asserting men scoring high on the BSRI-M scale were more likely to have traditional sex-role preferences and behaviors. There was a significant correlation between the masculine and feminine items and the AWS which were $-.13$ and $.19$ for women and $.23$ and $-.26$ for men (both significant at $p<.05$). These results provide more support for the multifactorial approach to gender identity. Gender identity theory purported by Spence (1984; as cited in Spence, 1993) states that gender identity that is developed early in childhood continues into adulthood with men typically identifying their maleness as masculinity and women naming their femaleness as femininity. Understanding there are different models representing gender identity can help to clarify the way people attribute masculinity and femininity to themselves (Spence, 1993).

As stated previously, masculinity and femininity were now seen as independent factors of each other. Bem's Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) allowed the classification of those not only high in masculinity and femininity, but also androgynous and undifferentiated individuals as well (Major, Carneval & Deaux, 1981). Many studies have investigated the

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role of androgyny for psychological adjustment, self-esteem and behavior. Few studies have addressed the issue of gender-role characteristics of individuals and how they are perceived by others. Earlier studies looked at sex-appropriate -inappropriate interests of men and women and perceptions of the individual. Results indicated men and women with masculine interests were liked better than men and women with feminine interests. Other studies revealed that women with feminine personality and masculine interests were liked better than women with masculine interests and personality (Kristal et al., 1975; as cited in Major et al., 1981). Another study revealed that both men and women described the ideal man or woman as more androgynous than typical (Gilbert et al., 1978; as cited in Major et al., 1981).

This study had two parts each emphasizing different hypotheses. The first prediction was that androgynous individuals would be liked best and perceived as most adjusted, undifferentiated individuals would be liked the least and seen as less adjusted and masculine individuals would be liked more and perceived as adjusted more than feminine typed individuals. Participants in the first study were 87 male and 92 female undergraduates who were given a copy of PAQ measures previously filled out. The researchers constructed 4 types of PAQ stimuli (androgynous, masculine, feminine and undifferentiated). Each subject was asked to rate the stimulus person on 17 bipolar adjectives that measured attractiveness. These adjectives described 5 primary factors: social likability, adjustment, instrumentality, expressiveness and masculinity/femininity (Major et al., 1981).

The results indicated the construct of social likability revealed a significant main effect for sex type of stimulus person, $F_{(9, 391.98)} = 27.10$, $p<.0001$. This indicated that androgynous persons were seen as more popular and attractive than masculine and feminine persons. Undifferentiated were seen as the least popular and attractive than all types. The sex-type and sex of stimulus person was significant, $F_{(9,391.98)} = 2.59$, $p<.01$. Androgynous males were seen as more popular and attractive than androgynous

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females. Masculine males were more popular and attractive than masculine females. A significant effect for sex type and adjustment was found, $F(12, 423.61) = 30.19$, $p<.0001$. Androgynous persons were seen as more adjusted and intelligent than masculine persons. Androgynous and masculine types were also seen as more assertive, forceful and leaderly with a significant effect of sex-type and instrumentality, $F(12, 423.61) = 37.07$, $p<.0001$. Feminine typed persons were seen as more expressive than androgynous, who were seen as more expressive than both masculine and undifferentiated, $F(12, 423,61) = 56.80$, $p<.0001$. A significant effect for masculinity/femininity, $F(2, 162) = 47.89$, $p<.0001$, revealed male stimulus persons were seen as more masculine than female stimulus persons. These results confirm previous findings that androgynous persons are generally more liked and seen as better adjusted than other sex-typed individuals (Major et al., 1981).

The second study (Major et al., 1981) hypothesized that the androgynous stimulus person would be seen as instrumental as the masculine person and as expressive as the feminine person. The subjects were 80 male and 80 female undergraduates utilizing the same measures and procedures as the first study. The same finding occurred as in study one. There was significance for expressiveness and sex-type, $F(12, 373.34) = 16.26$, $p<.0001$. This study revealed that androgynous were seen as significantly more expressive than feminine type, undifferentiated and masculine type. These previous findings demonstrate that androgynous individuals may have advantages in all areas over other sex-typed individuals. These results must be taken with caution as their generalizability. We evaluate people on perceived traits that we witness through their behavior, which can result in different findings that these self-reports measure (Major et al., 1981).

Investigations into stereotypes have looked at cultural stereotypes. This is defined as when most members of society share the same set of beliefs about gender. Earlier measures used a checklist approach, but the measures that used percentage and ratio measures could address characteristics that exist between groups instead of the population as a whole (Brigham, 1971a; McCauley & Stitt, 1978; as cited in Martin, 1987).

Individual's stereotypes can also be computed through the ratio method. This investigation (Martin, 1987) completed two studies. The first study experimented with the development of a ratio measure for sex stereotyping to assess both cultural and individual's stereotypes. A measure was created by using various characteristics from the BSRI. Ratios greater than 1.0 indicated more men were believed to possess that trait and ratios less than 1.0 indicated more women were believed to possess that trait. It was hypothesized that masculine items and feminine items would be stereotypic of men and women, respectively. The researcher also looked at the degree to which men and women differ on the scales of the BSRI (Martin, 1987).

The first study consisted of 150 adult (age 17-68) participants that were visiting the university for open house which evaluated the population rates of traits. These participants completed the short form of the BSRI that was modified to true-false format (T=item was self-descriptive, F= item was not self-descriptive). Undergraduate students (F=77, M=36) estimated trait incidences by using separate short forms of the BSRI and attributed percentages to each trait for males and females. The results of trait incidences indicated that masculine items had mean ratio greater than 1.0 (M= 1.73) and feminine items had a mean ratio less than 1.0 (M= .62). Nine out of 10 masculine items (i.e. aggressive, dominant) were significantly greater than 1.0 (p< .05, two tailed) indicating subjects perceived these characteristics to be associated with men more than women. All ten feminine items (i.e. gentle, tender) were attributed to females than males with ratios significantly lower than 1.0 (p<.05, two tailed). There was a significant correlation between stereotypic feminine items and stereotypic masculine items, r = -.42, p< .001, indicating stereotypic responses on one scale yielded stereotypic responses on the other scale. When comparing the scores of trait incidences to the self-report of traits, it was demonstrated that 8 out of 10 masculine items were significantly greater (p< .05, two tailed), reflecting that more people overestimated the trait in males. The same was true of feminine traits. In checking for discrepancies, it was found that masculine items were the

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least discrepant followed by feminine items to the actual percentages, F (2, 208) = 231.6, p< .001 (Martin, 1987).

The purpose of study 2 (Martin, 1987) was to replicate the findings from study one. In this study, 139 undergraduates completed the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ) (Spence et al., 1979; as cited in Martin, 1987) twice, once to estimate their stereotypes for other students and again to rate the traits as self-descriptive. The findings were indeed replicated, indicating that for the masculine and feminine items, subjects attributed the characteristics for men and women respectively. There was a discrepancy for those that actually possessed the trait and the estimate of those that possessed the trait. A significant main effect for sex was found, F (1, 79) = 14.3, p<.001, indicating traits were more overestimated for men. Both studies revealed that a ratio index is useful to assess stereotypes. These findings suggested that many stereotypes are exaggerations and the actual differences between men and women on some traits is small. It also follows that if stereotypes are like schemas, then those that are similar to our schema will be attended to more than those that are not, leading to the overestimates of stereotypic traits (Martin, 1987).

Since the development of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and the Personality Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) our society has gone through a dramatic cultural change. Women are increasingly entering the work force and majority are working mothers. According to when you were raised, gender roles reflect societies traditions at that time. Many factors led to influences on masculine and feminine trait scores such as women entering male-dominated professions, women receiving college degrees and working outside their home (Twenge, 1997).

The BSRI and PAQ are widely used measures of gender-stereotyped personality traits. Both measures contain scales that list traits that are considered more socially desirable for males and females. Many studies have used these scales to analyze differences in these

traits over time. Several studies indicated there was an increase in androgynous scores of both males and females between the initial printing of these measures and the 1980's.

The present study (Twenge, 1997) used a meta-analysis technique to examine changes in both the BSRI and PAQ scores over time from 1973 to 1994. The author used a time-lag study examining subjects (college students) of the same age at different points in time. Studies had to meet the following criteria to be included in the meta-analysis: (1) subjects were not preselected on any variable; (2) subjects "true" self was described; (3) subjects were undergraduates in the United States; (4) samples must have at least 20 males and females each; (5) study used long form of BSRI and short form of PAQ; (6) means were provided for masculine and feminine scales (Twenge, 1997). The result was 46 samples for men and 59 samples for women on the BSRI and 35 samples each for men and women on the PAQ.

Results (Twenge, 1997) indicated that women's scores on the BSRI-M scale showed an increase over time. Average SD for women's M score was .7 showing scores have shifted by .8 SDs over 20 years. Males also showed an increase in masculine scores and a slight increase in feminine scores. Androgyny scores were shown to have increased with women, according to year, $r = .69$, $p< .001$ and correlated weakly with year for men, $r = .32$, $p<.05$. When comparing findings with Bem's original 1973 sample, the average female score on the BSRI-M was 4.57 compared to 5.06 and 5.16 (with changes of .71 SD & .86 SD, both $p< .0001$) samples in 1992 and 1994 respectively, indicating women's M scores have changed. This illustrates that almost 50% of the women in the 1992 and 1994 studies chose masculine characteristics as compared to Bem's 20% of women in 1973. Men have showed similar means to those in Bem's 1973 sample. Similar results were found for the PAQM scores for women and men compared to the BSRI-M scores (Twenge, 1997).

These results could have occurred because of a cultural shift. These scores are basically from two generations, one grew up before and one after the development of BSRI. The

group raised before the test development grew up in a time of more conservative values where as the group raised after the test development experienced many transitions of a liberal society. The difference in masculine scores between the groups could reflect a changes in the work force and professional roles. More women work today than before, more enter college and become professionals acquiring some masculine (instrumental) traits in order to be successful (Twenge, 1997).

Men's feminine scores have not changed over time. While women have entered the work force, division of labor at home has remained the same with women still doing the majority of the work. These expressive traits haven't been acquired yet by most college age men in these studies, but studies show older men become more expressive (Eagly, 1987; as cited in Twenge, 1997). Since both the BSRI and the PAQ are self-report measures, it is unclear as to whether females are actually more instrumental or just describing themselves that way. The generalizability of the study is limited because of the use of only college students. These results do reflect an important social change which has encouraged more women to develop instrumental traits. It also demonstrates that subjects born at different times reflect different gender stereotyped personality traits (Twenge, 1997). These results could be an important determinant of the results of my research study. The subjects of my study also reflect different generations as well as different age groups. The culture could be reflected in the results of the different groups.

Summary

Throughout this review, many important implications of gender roles were found. Parental attachment was shown to reveal high numbers of androgynous and feminine typed individuals more attached to parents. Sex stereotyping of play preferences found that for both males and females who interacted with female siblings resulted in preferred female sex-typed activities. Adult stereotypes about how children are supposed to behave and what characteristics they have can influence gender role development.

It was found that as young adults sex-role identity had implications for college majors and careers. Females were more likely to choose traditional majors, even if they saw themselves as androgynous-typed. Also women in male-dominated majors viewed themselves as less feminine than females in female-dominated majors. Another study revealed differences in high school curriculum tracks and sex-role characteristics. Androgynous students were found in the vocational track and not the college preparatory track as hypothesized. Another study found that sex of the subject determined whether a male or female was seen as a successful manager. Male managers were viewed positively by both sexes, whereas males viewed female managers negatively.

Attitudes toward gender roles also has implications for marital attitudes and satisfaction with life. Men were correlated with their mothers' and fathers' scores on marital role scales. Another study found feminine gender-role group had the highest means on the Satisfaction with Life Scale. However, a different study revealed it was the androgynous group that reported the highest scores for satisfaction of life. These studies show how gender role can be determinants for life satisfaction. One study proposed that men can feel stress when they are not meeting society's standards for masculinity. Researchers found that men scored higher on the Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale than women. This finding can have implications for psychological well-being for males as well as females.

Another finding contributed to gender stereotypes. Often the male gender is attributed to unspecified individuals leading to stereotypic assumptions. One study conducted tested this hypothesis and found there wasn't a significant difference between one's BSRI classification and the attribution of gender. But both male and female students equally attributed people=male bias when reading a gender neutral script.

Many sex-role studies have conducted research by utilizing the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). Many wanted to know the relationship between masculine and feminine characteristics and many other variables. One such study predicted that androgynous and

masculine typed men and women would exhibit better adjustments than other sex typed individuals. Androgynous and masculine typed women scored higher on adjustment scales than feminine typed women. Masculinity was shown to be associated with more self-esteem for men and women. It was also hypothesized that men and women with traditional sex-role characteristics, as identified by the BSRI, would endorse more traditional sex-role attitudes. It was found that men scoring high on the BSRI-M scale were more likely to have traditional sex-role preferences. Peoples sense of gender leads them to behave accordingly and this has implications for stereotypic attitudes regarding others.

As stated previously, studies have been conducted addressing sex-roles and psychological well-being. The efforts of one study were to assess people's perceptions of those that are sex-typed. This was a two part study, the first study hypothesized that androgynous individuals and masculine individuals would be liked best and perceived as more well-adjusted than undifferentiated and feminine individuals respectively. Results indicated that androgynous individuals were seen as more popular and attractive than masculine and feminine typed individuals. Androgynous individuals were also seen as more adjusted than masculine persons. The masculine stimulus person was also seen as more masculine than female stimulus person. The second study hypothesized that androgynous individuals would be seen as expressive as feminine typed and instrumental as masculine typed individuals. The results indicated androgynous were seen as more expressive then the other sex types. The results indicated that others perceive androgynous individuals as well-adjusted, more popular and more attractive providing advantages to being androgynously typed.

Another study conducted was two-fold in which the researcher addressed ratio measures of sex stereotyping. The researcher predicted the masculine and feminine typed items would be found stereotypic of men and women. She also addressed how many traits were perceived to be possessed by men and women. Study 1 revealed masculine items had a greater mean ratio and feminine items had a lower mean ratio. People also overestimated

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the amount of masculine typed characteristics individuals possessed. The second study revealed the same findings as the first. Again traits were overestimated for men. This study proved the usefulness of using ratio measures when addressing sex roles and people's stereotypes.

The final study chose to use a meta-analysis to address the changes in sex role characteristics scores over the years. Society has been through many changes which in turn, affect the way a person sees oneself. The researcher gathered 49 samples for men and 59 samples for women on the BSRI scale and 35 samples each for the PAQ scale. The scores ranged over the twenty years. According to the analysis, women's scores were shown to have increased over the years on the BSRI-M scale, however, males scores on the Bem's 1973 scale have remained the same over the years. Similar results were found with the PAQ measure. The reasons behind these results could be the cultural differences of the groups. Society is now filled with working women and professionals possibly changing the typical stereotypes of gender. This study's findings certainly have implications for my research study, which utilizes two different age groups who have experienced cultural changes in various ways. It will be interesting to obtain the results of my study.

Chapter 3: Design of the Study

Sample

The sample in this study consisted of 90 participants. There were 24 males and 22 females from one generation. Their ages ranged from 22-37 (M= 29.5). There were 19 males and 25 females from the second generation. Their ages ranged from 47-70 (M= 58.5). The population of this sample consisted of members from various church, social and service organizations. All subjects completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

Measure

The instrument utilized in this study was the Bem Sex Role Inventory. It was developed by Bem (1974) to measure masculine, feminine and androgynous characteristics of an individual. It is a 60 item self-report measure which includes a Masculinity and Femininity scale each containing 20 personality characteristics and a Social Desirability scale, with 20 items that are neutral with reference to sex. Of the 20 masculine items, 17 are socially desirable and the remaining three reflect different kinds of content. Eleven of the twenty items on the feminine scale are socially desirable traits with the remaining considered undesirable traits (Spence, 1993). Ten undesirable and ten desirable characteristics completed the Social Desirability scale (Bem, 1974).

The subjects indicate, on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never or almost never true) to 7 (Always or almost always true), how well each personality characteristic describes him or herself. Three scores are calculated: masculinity and femininity, reflected by the extent to which a person endorses one of these traits more than the other, and an

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androgyny score determined by an equal endorsement of both masculine and feminine traits (Bem, 1974).

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) normative data is based on 723 students from an introductory psychology class at Stanford University and 194 students at a Junior College. It has high internal reliability with regards to the normative samples: coefficient alphas computed indicated scores for Masculinity = .86 and .86, Femininity = .80 and .82 and Social Desirability = .75 and .70. The reliability score for Androgyny was .85 and .86 for the samples respectively. The Masculinity and Femininity scores are independent of one another, male $r = .11$, female $r = -.14$; male $r = -.02$, female $r = -.07$ for Stanford and the Junior College respectively.

The Masculinity and Femininity scores were correlated with Social Desirability, males $r = .38$, females $r = .19$ and males $r = .28$ and females $r = .22$ respectively, for both normative samples. The Androgyny score, however, does not measure the tendency to respond in a socially desirable way, males $r = .08$ and females $r = .04$, for both normative samples combined (Bem, 1974). A product-moment correlation's revealed that BSRI has high test-retest reliability (Masculinity $r = .90$; Femininity $r = .90$; Androgyny $r = .93$; Social Desirability $r = .89$). The BSRI is moderately correlated with the California Psychological Inventory for Masculinity (males $r = -.42$, females $r = -.25$), Femininity (males $r = .27$, females $r = .25$) and Androgyny (males $r = .50$, females $r = .30$). The mean scores for Masculinity (males = 4.97, females 4.57), Femininity (males = 4.44, females = 5.01) and Androgyny (males = -1.28, females = 1.10) demonstrate males scored higher than females for Masculinity, females scored higher than males for Femininity and males scored on the masculine side of zero and females scored on the feminine side of zero for Androgyny (Bem, 1974).

Design

This was a quasi-experimental study indicating that subjects were preassigned to treatments (Bordens & Abbott, 1991). Two variables were varied in a 2 x 2 between-

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subjects factorial design. It is a between-subjects design because different groups of subjects were assigned to the levels of the independent variable. This was a factorial design because there were two independent variables and a separate group was assigned to each level of the independent variable (Borden et al., 1991). The independent variables in this study were generation and gender. The dependent variable was the responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics.

Testable Hypotheses

The following hypotheses reflect the main effect for both generation and gender and an interaction effect involving both independent variables:

Ho: There were no differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between two different generations.

H1: There were differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between two different generations.

Ho: There were no differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between males and females in each generation.

H1: There were differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between males and females in each generation.

Ho: There was no interaction effect between generation and gender in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics.

H1: There was an interaction effect between generation and gender in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics.

Analysis

This factorial design utilized an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test the hypotheses. The model provided information on the reliability of the main effects and the interaction effect (Bordens et al., 1991). The data was entered into the SPSS statistical package located at Rowan University. The mean scores for the Bem Sex Role Inventory were found for Scale A, the femininity scale and Scale B, the masculinity scale by scoring the items endorsed by the subjects. The T-score was found by subtracting the differences in the Raw Scale Scores. The subjects were also identified as Feminine, Masculine, Androgynous or Undifferentiated based on the median split of their raw score.

Summary

This study utilized 90 subjects to determine whether stereotypical gender roles would be endorsed on the Bem Sex Role Inventory. This is a 60 item self-report measure that yields three classifications: Masculinity, Femininity and Androgyny. A 2 x 2 between-subjects factorial design was used because there were two independent variables, generation and gender with two levels. There were two main effects, as well as, an interaction effect. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 4 - Analysis of Results

Introduction

This study utilized the Bem Sex Role Inventory to determine whether there were differences in responses regarding male and female characteristics. The test yielded a Raw Score A, the femininity scale; a Raw Score B, the masculinity scale; a T-score and a classification for each subject: Feminine, Masculine, Androgynous and Undifferentiated. The following are the results from the restated hypotheses:

Restatement of Hypothesis I

Ho: There were no differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between two different generations.

H1: There were differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between two different generations.

In the present study, there were 19 males and 25 females from the older generation and 24 males and 22 females from the younger generation (Figure 4.1). As seen in Table 4.1, the older generation had higher means for Raw Score A ($M = 5.03$; $SD = .72$) than the younger generation ($M = 4.85$; $SD = .63$) and lower means for Raw Score B ($M = 4.91$; $SD = 1.05$) than the younger generation ($M = 5.02$; $SD = .79$). A between-subjects ANOVA revealed there was not a significant difference between generation and scores on the BSRI (Table 4.2). This researcher failed to reject the Null Hypothesis for Hypothesis I.

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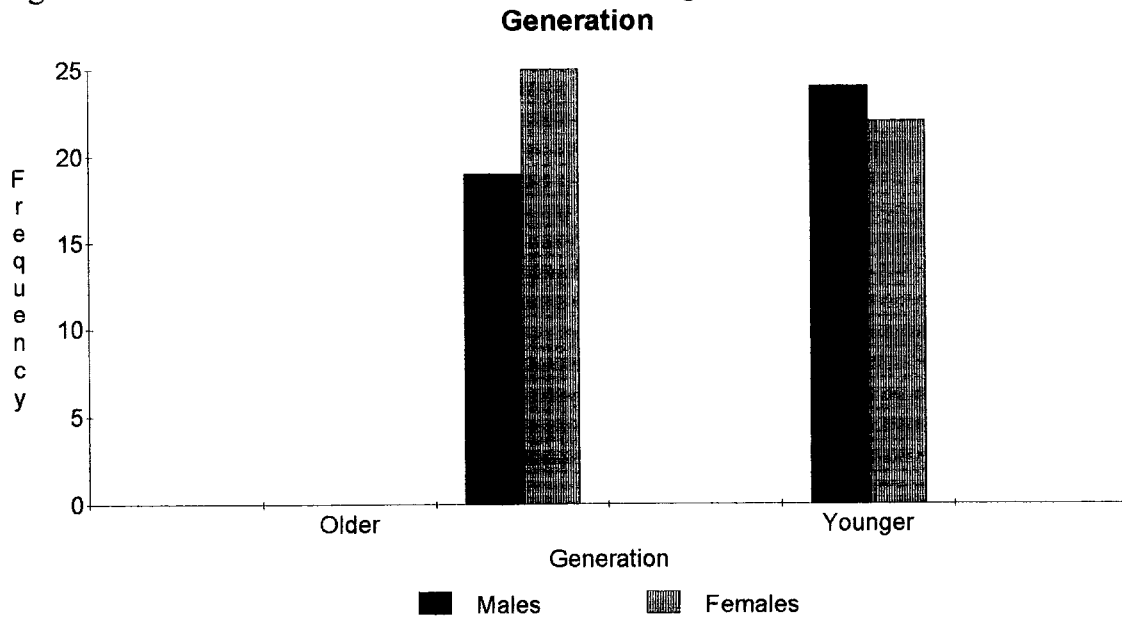Figure 4.1: The number of males and females in each generation.

Generation

Table 4.1: Means and Standard Deviations of BSRI for males and females in two different generations.					
Generation:		**Raw Score A**	**Raw Score B**	**T-score**	**Class.**
Older	Mean	5.03	4.91	52.72	2.34
N = 44	Std. Deviation	.72	1.05	12.48	1.09
Younger	Mean	4.85	5.02	49.63	2.10
N = 46	Std. Deviation	.63	.79	12.51	1.03

Table 4.2: Univariate ANOVA between generation and scores from the BSRI.				
Source	**Scores**	**F**	**Significance**	
Generation	Raw Score A	1.14	ns	
	Raw Score B	.01	ns	
	T-Score	.66	ns	
	Classification	2.40	ns	

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Restatement of Hypothesis II

Ho: There were no differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between males and females in each generation.

H1: There were differences in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics between males and females in each generation.

There were 43 males and 47 females from both generations (Figure 4.2). As seen in Table 4.3, the males had the following means and standard deviations: M = 4.57, SD = .68 for Raw Score A; M = 5.44, SD = .82 for Raw Score B. The females had the following means and standard deviations: M = 5.27, SD = .48 for Raw Score A; M = 4.53, SD = .79 for Raw Score B (Table 4.3). This demonstrates the females had higher means for Raw Score A, the femininity scale, and lower means for Raw Score B which is the masculinity scale. Males revealed the opposite, with lower Raw Score A scores, the femininity scale and higher Raw Score B scores, the masculinity scale. An ANOVA revealed a significant effect between gender and the three scores. As shown in Table 4.4, there was a significant effect between gender and Raw Score A, F = (1,89) = 30.21, gender and Raw Score B, F (1,89) = 27.58, gender and the T-score, F (1,89) = 69.36, and F (1,89) = 20.960 for gender and classification all significant at p < .0001.
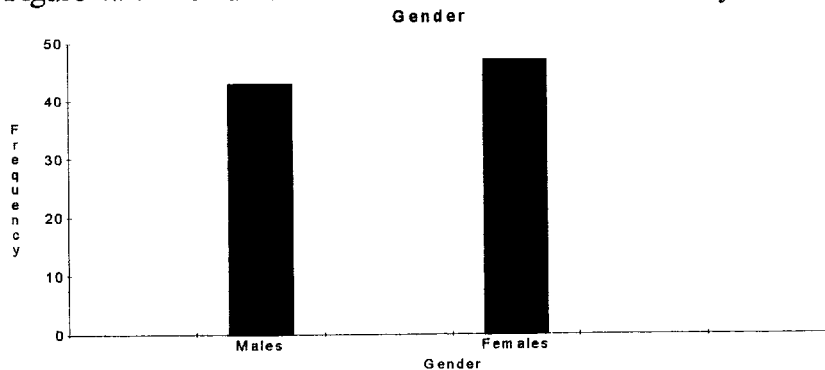
Figure 4.2: The number of males and females in the study.

Table 4.3: Means and Standard Deviations of BSRI for males and females.					
Gender:		Raw Score A	Raw Score B	T-score	Class.
Males	Mean	4.57	5.44	42.39	2.69
N = 43	Std. Deviation	.68	.82	9.54	.83
Females	Mean	5.27	4.53	59.14	1.78
N = 47	Std. Deviation	.48	.79	9.12	1.08

Table 4.4: Univariate ANOVA between gender and scores from the BSRI.				
Source	Scores	F	Significance	
Gender	Raw Score A	30.21	.000	
	Raw Score B	27.58	.000	
	T-Score	69.36	.000	
	Classification	20.96	.000	

Subjects were identified as Feminine, Masculine, Androgynous and Undifferentiated based on the median split of the raw scores from Scales A and B. As shown in Table 4.5 and Figure 4.3, 1 male and 29 females were classified as feminine; 20 males and 3 females were classified as masculine; 13 males and 11 females were classified as androgynous and 9 males and 4 females were classified as undifferentiated. The mean scores for each classification are shown in Table 4.6.

As expected those classified as Feminine had higher Raw Score A scores, the femininity scale: M = 5.40, SD = .30 and lower Raw Score B scores, the masculinity scale: M = 4.21, SD = .58. Those classified as Masculine had lower Raw Score A scores and higher Raw Score B Scores: M = 4.23, SD = .45; M = 5.72, SD = .49, consecutively. Those classified as Androgynous had similar means on both Raw Score A and B: M = 5.40, SD = .40; M = 5.67, SD = .51 respectfully. Finally, those classified as Undifferentiated had equally low means on both Raw Score A and B: M = 4.27, SD = .38;

M = 4.10, SD = .50 respectively. As shown in the means and demonstrated by the significance of the ANOVA, the Null Hypothesis was rejected and the Alternative Hypothesis was accepted.

Figure 4.3: Number of males and females classified as feminine, masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated.

Classification

Table 4.5: Number subjects identified as Feminine, Masculine, Androgynous and Undifferentiated.
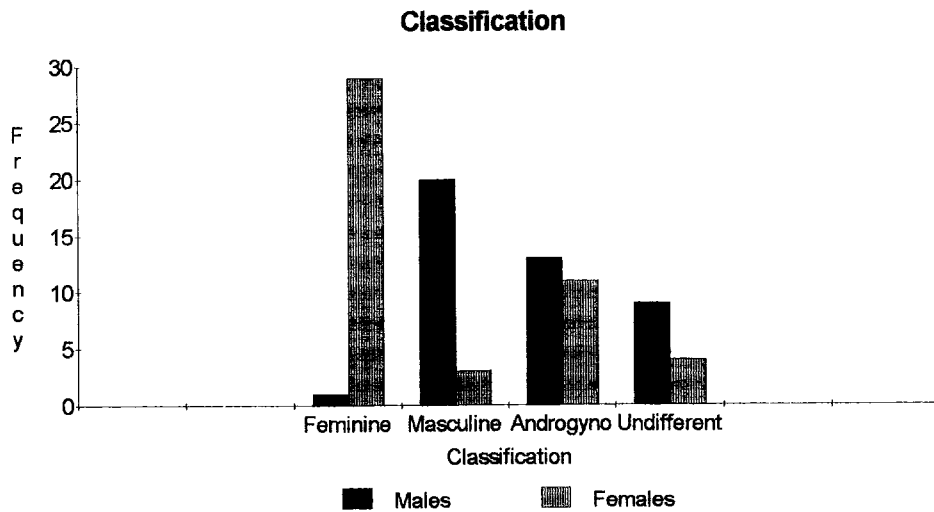
Classification:	Gender				
	Males	Females	Total		
Feminine	1	29	30		
Masculine	20	3	23		
Androgynous	13	11	24		
Undifferentiated	9	4	13		
	43	47	90		

Table 4.6: Means and Standard Deviations of BSRI for males and females classified as: Feminine, Masculine, Androgynous and Undifferentiated.					
Classification:		Raw Score A	Raw Score B	T-score	
Feminine	Mean	5.40	4.21	63.70	
N = 30	Std. Deviation	.30	.58	6.97	
Masculine	Mean	4.23	5.72	35.95	
N = 23	Std. Deviation	.45	.49	7.25	
Androgynous	Mean	5.40	5.67	49.45	
N = 24	Std. Deviation	.40	.51	5.75	
Undifferentiated	Mean	4.27	4.10	52.15	
N = 13	Std. Deviation	.38	.50	6.54	

Restatement of Hypothesis III

Ho: There was no interaction effect between generation and gender in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics.

H1: There was an interaction effect between generation and gender in responses to the Bem Sex Role Inventory regarding male and female characteristics.

As demonstrated by the ANOVA, (Table 4.7), there was not a significant interaction effect between generation and gender in responses to the BSRI. Therefore, this researcher failed to reject the Null Hypothesis for Hypothesis III.

Table 4.7: Univariate ANOVA between generation and gender and and scores from the BSRI.				
Source	Scores	F	Significance	
Generation * Gender	Raw Score A	1.09	ns	
	Raw Score B	.43	ns	
	T-Score	.04	ns	
	Classification	.02	ns	

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Summary

There was a significant difference between males and females in each generation, $F(1,89) = 30.21$, $F(1,89) = 27.58$, $F(1,89) = 69.36$, $F(1,89) = 20.96$ all significant at $p < .0001$ for Raw Scores A, B, T-score and Classification respectively. There was no significant difference found between generations in their responses to the BSRI. There was no interaction effect between generation and gender regarding responses to the BSRI.

Chapter 5: Summary and Conclusions

Summary

This researcher was compelled to examine gender characteristics. Previous studies have indicated that males and females endorse what is a typical male characteristics for males and what is a typical female characteristic for females (Martin, 1987). These endorsements lead to gender stereotyping. Gender stereotypes exist throughout our society and typically favor masculine traits over feminine traits, thereby perpetuating the stereotype.

As the role of a female in society changed, so did some of the stereotypes. Men and women, both at home and in the workplace, were completing the same tasks or jobs. Society seemed to shift into becoming more contemporary and adopting different perspectives on gender roles. However, research has found that typical masculine and feminine traits were endorsed for males and females respectively. The need for the present study was to determine whether this would be found today between males and females in two different generations.

To understand why people endorse characteristics the way they do, it's important to understand how gender roles are learned. At a very young age, children adopt ways of behaving based on those who model the behavior for them. They learn from parents, teachers and their peers. Social learning theorists state children learn gender roles through direct reinforcement. They receive approval for engaging in appropriate gender behavior and disapproval for inappropriate gender behavior. Cognitive theorists believe children learn masculine and feminine behaviors as they develop cognitively and adopt appropriate behaviors for each (Baron et al., 1994, Chap.5, p. 198).

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Masculinity and femininity were once thought to be on opposite ends of a continuous spectrum. Bem (1974) purported that an individual can possess both masculine and feminine characteristics, termed androgyny. Different studies have indicated that androgynous individuals are more socially skilled (Kelly et al., 1977; as cited in Orlofsky et al., 1987) and can adapt their behavior to fit the situation more easily than a masculine or feminine typed individual (Bem, 1974). The Bem Sex Role Inventory was developed to measure gender characteristics and support the concept of androgyny. Each characteristic on the scale was chosen by societies' sex-typed standards.

The present study utilized 90 participants. There were 46 males and females from one generation and 44 males and females from a second generation. Each subject completed the BSRI. This is a 60 item self-report measure the yields three scores: femininity, masculinity, and androgyny. A 2 x 2 factorial design was used because of the two independent variables: gender and generation, each with two levels. The three null hypotheses were: there were no differences in responses to the BSRI regarding male and female characteristics between two different generations; there were no differences in responses to the BSRI regarding male and female characteristics between males and females in each generation; there was no interaction effect between generation and gender in responses to the BSRI regarding male and female characteristics. An analysis of variance was used to find the main effects as well as an interaction effect.

There was a significant difference between males and females in each generation, $F (1,89) = 30.21$, $F (1,89) = 27.58$, $F (1,89) = 69.36$, $F (1,89) = 20.96$ all significant at $p < .0001$ for Raw Score A, Raw Score B, the T-score and Classification respectively. There was no significant difference found between generations in their reponses to the BSRI. There was no interaction effect between generation and gender regarding responses to the BSRI.

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Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were significant differences in attitudes about gender roles between two generations. The following hypotheses were considered: the differences in scores for the BSRI between two different generations, between males and females and an interaction effect between gender and generation and score for the BSRI.

The first hypothesis was developed in accordance with research discussing the emergence of women's roles in the work force (Baron et al., 1994, chap.5, p. 202). Society had undergone a cultural change and working women became the norm. Trait scores were changing as women entered male-dominated professions and as they received college degrees (Twenge, 1997). It was hypothesized there would be a difference in scores between the generations because of the recent trends in society. Perhaps the differences in generations would understand or tolerate the changes in society. This researcher felt that a difference in scores would be found due to the cultural change changes each generation had lived through.

However, results indicated there were no differences in scores on the BSRI between the two generations. There can be several factors that have contributed to this finding. This may be due to the fact that gender roles are established as children and despite the changes society may go through, one may still perpetuate the values and ideas learned in childhood. Traditional gender roles are still seen as the norm, despite the idea that there may be changes. One must consider the limitation of the measure being a self-report and assume that the subjects answered truthfully.

Consistent with previous research, hypothesis two was supported, which indicated differences for the BSRI scores between males and females. As demonstrated in the results, males had higher means on the masculinity scale and females had higher means on the femininity scale. More males were classified as masculine and more females were classified as feminine. The ANOVA revealed significant differences on all scores of the

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BSRI between males and females. A factor in these findings may be what Martin (1987) purported that masculine items are typically endorsed to describe males and feminine items are typically endorsed to describe females.

In accordance with the study conducted by Twenge (1997), males scores have consistently remained highly masculine while female scores have gradually changed endorsing masculine as well as feminine items, contributing to the differences in scores. As stated in previous studies (McCreary et al., 1996), women have adopted more male gender roles with the emergence of women in the work force. It is accepted in society for women to adopt these roles, but it is less accepted for men to adopt more feminine roles. This leads to the males adhering to more stereotypical roles and women having more freedom in choosing roles. That study's findings may have contributed to the results of the present study demonstrated by the high masculinity scores for the males.

The high scores on both scales for males and females may be explained by the gender identity theory (Spence, 1993). This theory states that gender identity is learned in early childhood. In adulthood, males identify their maleness as masculinity and females identify their femaleness as femininity. Perhaps this theory has contributed to the finding of this study. A limitation one must consider is the type of measure utilized in this study was a self-report. High scores on each scale may be do to the subjects trying to appear socially acceptable. Another limitation is the generalizability of these findings. Assuming the subjects were a representative sample, the findings must be limited to this area.

There was no support for hypothesis three in this study. There was no interaction effect for scores on the BSRI between gender and generation. The reason may be similar to the reason the first hypothesis was not supported. The levels of generation had no effect on the scores on the BSRI as in hypothesis one and this contributed to the interaction not succeeding. Other limitations of this study, may be the BSRI was not the most appropriate measure used to determine these hypotheses. It was a self-report measure which may have

affected some responses given. The extraneous variables were different for many subjects do to the different environments the test was administered.

Conclusion

In conclusion, typical gender role stereotypes exist and characteristics are endorsed by subjects as either typically male or typically female. Several finding indicate differences in attitudes concerning gender roles. First, there was not a significant difference found for scores on the BSRI between two generations. This may suggest that the cultural change occurring in society, women in the workplace, may not have an impact on how one views male and female characteristics. Second, there was a significant difference for scores on the BSRI between males and females. Consistent with previous research, subjects endorsed typical masculine and typical feminine items for males and females respectfully. Also contributing to different scores was the previous finding indicating male scores have not changed over time while females scores have. Finally, there was no interaction effect between gender and generation. The levels of one independent variable had no effect on the second independent variable.

Implications for Future Research

It is important to understand the results obtained were based on the administration of the BSRI. Future research may want to use a different personality questionnaire to determine the differences in male and female characteristics. Future research may want to look at the area of generations, but utilize family members in the study. It would be interesting to see if society's standards or familial standards effect subjects responses when administered this type of questionnaire. The area of gender roles is an important one and further research may benefit the types of stereotypes and generalizations made when encountering societal values.

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