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Self-Report of Depressive Symptomatology and Daily Hassles:
Effects of Instructional Set, Gender,
and Gender Role Orientation

by

Karen A. M. Holowaty

B. A. University of Manitoba, 1993

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the Department of Psychology
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
of Master of Arts at the
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ABSTRACT

Previous research has demonstrated that experimental cues, whether overt or subtle, intended or unintended, affect experimental behavior. More specifically, investigators from various research areas have shown that cues within a testing or experimental setting can affect responding to self-report instruments. Differences in the self-report of depressive symptomatology and daily hassles according to gender, gender role orientation, and manipulated instructional set were investigated. It was hypothesized that both depression scores and hassles scores would differ according to manipulated instructional set. It was also hypothesized that the depression and hassles scores of males and females would differ significantly, and that scores would differ according to reported gender role orientation. Undergraduate university students, 258 in total, in responding to a questionnaire, provided information regarding depressive symptomatology, daily hassles, and gender role orientation. The depression and hassles scores for males and females were not significantly different. Those individuals with a feminine gender role orientation and those classified as undifferentiated were found to have significantly higher depression and hassles

scores than individuals reporting either a masculine or androgynous role orientation. Manipulated experimental cues did not significantly affect self-reported experience, since neither depression nor hassles scores differed significantly among four instructional sets.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

They have been called demand characteristics, instructional sets, or role demands. No matter what researchers have named the phenomena, the effect is usually the same. Experimental cues, whether overt or subtle, intended or unintended, affect experimental behavior, sometimes in unintended ways (Kroger, 1967; Kroger & Turnbull, 1970; Orne, 1962; Rosnow & Davis, 1977; Rosenzweig, 1933; Stanton, Burker, & Kershaw, 1991; Weber & Cook, 1972). Although textbooks addressing experimental design often explain the importance of examining demand characteristics, subject effects, and experimenter effects (Kazdin, 1992), some have noted that this is an aspect of experimentation and an area of research that is now often neglected (Page, 1994). It was early investigations of participant and experimenter artifacts which initiated this research area that has been termed the "social psychology of the psychological experiment" (Orne, 1962; Rosnow & Davis, 1977).

Early Investigations of Experimental Cues - The "Social Psychology of the Psychological Experiment"

After World War II, when experimentation was the prevalent

methodology for social psychologists, the study of the social psychology of the psychological experiment "thus represented a voice of methodological dissent in contrast to the prevailing reverence toward experimentalism" (Page, 1994, p. 5). A key figure in the developments of this period, Kurt Lewin, recognized the value of examining the social psychology of the psychological experiment and emphasized that the psychology experiment is an interaction between participant and experimenter (Collier, Minton, & Reynolds, 1991). He recommended a conceptualization of the experiment that takes into account the gestalt of the situation. Ironically, even though Lewin is credited with establishing experimentation as the predominant methodology for the social psychology of the period, his specific view of experimentation was not adopted (Collier et al., 1991; Danziger, 1992). The concept of a complex social interaction between participant and experimenter seemingly did not fit well with the prevailing individualistic cultural context. In addition, behavioral scientists, who study human and animal participants, have generally adopted a traditional experimental model from the physical sciences, which usually study inanimate objects (Orne, 1962). It was concern about the inanimate model that contributed to researchers' interest in the social psychology of the psychological experiment.

Orne (1962) viewed the psychological experiment as a special

form of social interaction in which both experimenter and participant play out certain prescribed roles. Instead of focusing on what is done to the participant, one might do well to consider what the participant does in the interaction, in response to his/her motivations and perceptions about the research.

During this period, experimental cues were sometimes labelled role demands. These were defined as uncontrolled, subtle social cues which, in the context of a psychological experiment, can lead to unintended interpretations of what is expected of experimental participants, and then subsequently affect their experimental performance. Orne (1962) similarly stated:

The subject's performance in an experiment might almost be conceptualized as problem-solving behavior; that is, at some level he sees it as his task to ascertain the true purpose of the experiment and respond in a manner which will support the hypotheses being tested. Viewed in this light, the totality of cues which convey an experimental hypothesis to the subject become significant determinants of subjects' behavior. We have labeled the sum total of such cues as the 'demand characteristics of the experimental situation'. These cues include the rumors or campus scuttlebutt about

the research, the information conveyed during the original solicitation, the person of the experimenter, and the setting of the laboratory, as well as all explicit and implicit communications during the experiment proper.

(p. 779)

For instance, early studies have shown that when the unintended social cues found in most testing situations are manipulated, participants' endorsement of test items is affected in the direction of the manipulated cue (Kroger, 1967; Kroger & Turnbull, 1970). Kroger (1967) manipulated role demands by varying test titles, experimental setting, the purpose of testing, and the social position of the experimenter. Military students were randomly assigned to either a "military" condition, or an "artistic" one. After being exposed to different cues, all participants completed the same personality tests, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and the Welsh Figure Preference Test, and all were given identical instructions to "describe themselves." In the military condition, the setting was a military classroom, the test titles were changed to Military Interest Questionnaire, and Military Aptitude Test IV: Spatial Organization, the purpose of the study was described as being "to determine what makes a good military officer," and the experimenter was an instructor in naval science dressed in

uniform. In the artistic condition, the setting was a classroom in the psychology building, the test titles were changed to Artistic Interest Questionnaire, and Artistic Aptitude test IV: Spatial Organization, the purpose of the study was said to be "to determine what makes people artistically creative," and the experimenter was identified as a psychologist. Significant response differences in accordance with the manipulated cues were found, leading Kroger (1967) to conclude that in a testing situation, "individuals adapt their test responses to situational requirements, even though they are in no way instructed to produce responses other than self-descriptions" (p. 310).

In an extension of this study, Kroger and Turnbull (1970) employed a similar procedure to test the hypothesis that test responses are adapted to situational cues. Despite the fact that participants were instructed only to describe their actual personality, once again responses instead reflected the implicitly specified military or artistic roles. Kroger (1967) speculated that test scores from self-report measures are most likely a combination of the participants' actual characteristics, the method of measurement, and the testing conditions. Thus, the test score is not so simple or pure after all, but instead represents a "trait-method-role unit" (Kroger, 1967, p. 311).

Other Research Areas - Examining Experimental Cues and the Accuracy of Self-Reports

Experimental cues have been shown to affect testing or responding to self-report measures in other research areas as well. Specifically, menstrual symptom reporting is different when the participants do not know the true purpose of the study (AuBuchon & Calhoun, 1985; Paige, 1973; Parlee, 1982; Ruble, 1977). Ruble (1977) and Parlee (1982) concluded that learned beliefs about what types of symptoms women "should" have at menstruation, rather than actual experiences, are often reflected in data from commonly employed self-report measures.

Investigators have expressed concern that a similar process occurs in the self-report of menopausal symptomatology (Dickson, 1990; Kaufert & Syrotuik, 1981; Matthews, 1992). Kaufert and Syrotuik (1981) commented that when participants are aware of the purpose of the study, there is a good possibility that stereotypes will become operative, and affect responding to self-report items. While the accuracy/validity of self-report measures has been questioned by investigators in these specific research areas, it is not necessarily the measures themselves that are suspect. Rather, it is the manner in which they are presented to participants - the cues implicit within the experimental situation - that may unduly influence the accurate report of symptoms or experiences. If, as Kroger (1967) has concluded, participants adapt their test responses to situational requirements, then possibly by paying more serious

attention to those situational cues - verbal and written presentation of materials for example - researchers may circumvent this process and obtain more realistic results.

Gender Differences in Self-Report as a Function of Experimental Cues

As demonstrated by investigators in menstrual and menopausal research, individuals may unintentionally respond to test items in a manner consistent with learned beliefs, internalized stereotypes, or socially appropriate gender role behavior made salient by certain cues. Researchers have also demonstrated this phenomenon with regard to depressive symptom reporting by manipulating the cues of the testing situation. Page and Bennesch (1993) reported that males endorsed fewer items if a scale was labelled a "depression" measure, compared to when it was labelled as a measure of "hassles." These findings lend support to the view that gender differences in self-reported depressive symptomatology, with females reporting more than males, may be a function of reporting differences, with males less willing to admit to sad feelings. In their investigation of each gender's confidence in expressing different feelings, Blier and Blier-Wilson (1989) noted that females were significantly more confident in expressing fear and sadness than were males. Page and Bennesch (1993), and others (Chevron, Quinlan, & Blatt, 1978; Hammen & Peters, 1977; Oliver & Toner, 1990; Page, 1990;

Vredenberg, Krames, & Flett, 1986; Waisberg & Page, 1988; Warren, 1983) have suggested that the cognitive and emotional states that are cued by the word depression are interpreted by many men as gender role inappropriate, causing them to reject certain test items. Moreover, Cappeliez (1989) noted that social desirability response sets appear to account for elderly persons' underreporting of depressive symptomatology on the Beck Depression Inventory.

There is also evidence to suggest that men may be less willing to report depressive symptoms because of the negative social consequences involved. Rosenfield (1982) found that societal reaction to diagnosis of depression is more severe if the person diagnosed is male. Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, and Vogel (1970; see also Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972) found that there is a gender bias in the diagnosis of mental illness, with clinicians attributing many more negative characteristics to their description of the normal female. As well as confirming the results of this classic research, researchers have demonstrated that male patients with "feminine" symptoms (e.g., depression) were judged to be more disturbed than females with the same symptoms (Furlong & Page, 1990; Page, 1987; Waisberg & Page, 1988). In Hammen and Peters' (1977, 1978) studies, a depressed man was evaluated more negatively than a depressed woman. Borys

and Perlman (1985) found that men are less willing to report their loneliness because there are more negative social consequences for them than for women. This has also been considered as an explanation for males' lower neuroticism scores (Francis, 1993; Gove & Tudor, 1973). Avoidance of negative social consequences may thus be a significant factor in males' underreporting of depressive symptoms.

Gender Role Orientation

Closely related to the above explanation is Bem's (1974) idea that individuals strive to keep their behavior consistent with their internalized conception of gender role. Bem noted that this is often accomplished by suppressing behavior that is considered inappropriate for the gender role. This was apparently demonstrated by Page and Bennesch's (1993) participants. The reporting of depressive symptoms by participants receiving the "depression" cue in that experiment likely reflected the idealized male role instead of actual individual experience. Another potential explanation for males' underreporting is the possibility that men who identify with the stereotypical male gender role are less likely to self-focus or be introspective. Ingram, Cruet, Johnson, and Wisnicki (1988) found that men or women identifying with a stereotypically masculine role were less likely to self-focus than those

identifying with a feminine role.

As L'Abate (1980) comments, surely inexpressiveness and a tendency to be less introspective is not a universal condition in males, nor is it limited to them. According to some researchers (Ganong & Coleman, 1985; Lombardo & Lavine, 1981; Pearson, 1980; Sanfilippo, 1994) gender role orientation, as distinguished from biological sex per se, may be a better predictor of certain self-reported experiences. For example, Ganong and Coleman (1985) found that gender role was a better predictor of emotional expressiveness, with androgynous and feminine individuals attaining significantly higher scores on an emotional expression scale than masculine and undifferentiated individuals. As well, gender roles more accurately predicted reported self-disclosure (Lombardo & Lavine, 1981; Pearson, 1980). In addition, Sanfilippo (1994) found that gender role orientation, as compared to gender, was a better predictor of certain depressive experiences, with masculinity associated with lower levels of depression.

However, in light of evidence that males' lower depression scores can reflect a reporting bias, one must ask whether those individuals, male or female, with a masculine role orientation are truly less depressed, or whether this role leads them to underreport their depressive experience. Snell, Belk, and Hawkins (1986) note that those identifying with a masculine role

actually experience more distress, due to the fact that societal expectations do not allow for the healthy expression of bothersome feelings. Indeed, according to Ganong and Coleman (1985), it appears that those of either gender who identify with a masculine role are required to be "strong and silent" types. While gender role orientation has been shown to influence self-reported depressive experience, it has not yet been studied in an experiment directly investigating reporting biases or reporting differences.

Experimental Cues and the Self-Report of Daily Hassles

The accuracy of self-reports has also been a key issue within the area of stress measurement. Since the mid-1960s, investigators have examined the impact of major life events, such as a divorce or the death of a family member, and their contribution to the development of both physical and psychological symptoms (Holmes & Masuda, 1974; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Myers, Lindenthal, Pepper, & Ostrander, 1972). However, the evaluation of the impact of stress on health outcomes with self-reports of life events has been criticized from many angles. For example, items on life events scales have been criticized for resembling the very symptoms they are intended to predict (Brown, 1974; Dohrenwend, 1974). As well, life events have been found to correlate only very weakly with health outcomes (Rabkin & Streuning, 1976). This has led investigators to consider types

of stressors other than major life events which could account for the negative impact on health. Indeed, investigators discovered that more frequently experienced daily hassles, those "annoying practical problems such as losing things or traffic jams...as well as arguments, disappointments, and financial and family concerns" (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981, p. 3) appear to be better predictors of psychological symptoms than are major life events (De Longis et al., 1982; Kanner et al., 1981; Monroe, 1983; Zarski, 1984).

In many studies, hassles have thus been conceptualized as the independent variable, which can predict the occurrence of physical and mental symptoms (Fairbank & Hough, 1979; Monroe, 1983). However, in recent years a key self-report measure, the Hassles Scale developed by Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus (1981), has been criticized on the basis that its items resemble symptoms or responses to stress rather than predictors of stress (Burks & Martin, 1985; Dohrenwend, Dohrenwend, Dodson, & Shrout, 1984; Flannery, 1986; Kohn, Lafreniere, & Gurevich, 1990; Monroe, 1983). Examples of problematic items according to Burks and Martin (1985) are: "thoughts about death," "being lonely," "smoking too much," and "having a physical illness." The inclusion of severity ratings, wherein individuals rate each hassle as "somewhat severe," "moderately severe," or "extremely severe" has also been criticized, because it may lead those

individuals with existing psychological difficulties to overreact in their severity appraisal, or lead them to overreport the hassles they experience (Dohrenwend & Shrout, 1985; Kohn et al., 1990). The severity ratings, along with instructions that label hassles as "irritants," could represent cues which lead individuals to give inaccurate self-reports. While some have attempted to revise the original Hassles Scale (Holm & Holroyd, 1992), other researchers (Kohn et al., 1990) have developed an entirely new measure designed to circumvent the confounding labelled as a "contamination" in items and format.

The Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE) (Kohn et al., 1990) is a 49-item self-report hassles measure specifically oriented toward the university student population. Kohn et al. (1990) report that their measure avoids contamination in its items and format and "retains an indirect relationship to the stress-appraisal process which Lazarus and his associates maintain is a critical determinant of the adverse consequences of stress" (p. 621).

Thus, researchers in this area have been faced with reexamining the specific presentation of hassles items and scale instructions (Dohrenwend & Shrout, 1985). These aspects of a measure, along with beliefs about the purpose of the study, can act as cues similar to those described by Orne (1962) and thus possibly affect subjects' endorsement of hassles items. Thus,

Kohn et al. (1990) gave their scale a neutral title and eliminated from the instructions any mention of the word hassles.

Social desirability appears to influence responding to measures of both life events (Marshall, Kushner, & Phillips, 1978) and hassles (Koman, 1991). On the basis of results in which everyday hassles were underreported, with a significant negative correlation between hassles and social desirability scores, Koman (1991) concluded that "it is not socially desirable to indicate one is not able to handle daily hassles, for in effect this is saying that one cannot handle daily living" (p. 654). In a related vein, Weinman, Lorimor, Justice, and McBee (1978) concluded that a social desirability bias explained sex differences in the appraisal of life events, with the stereotypically masculine role leading males "to reduce their reports of the impacts of life events" (p. 1230).

Just as unintended cues emanating from the experimenter and the experimental setting can affect the results, so too can participants' expectations and state of mind. Cohen, Towbes, and Flocco (1988) induced either a depressed, elated, or neutral mood in participants and discovered that this manipulation had a significant effect on the number of self-reported negative life events and perceived social support. Specifically, participants induced to experience an elated mood reported the lowest number of negative life events, and those induced to experience a

depressed mood perceived the lowest amount of social support.

Experimental Cues and the Self-Report of Depressive Symptomatology

The situational cues that have been labelled as role demands or demand characteristics also appear to affect responses to widely used depression measures. For example, Stanton, Burker, and Kershaw (1991), by manipulating consent form information, discovered that in an experimental condition in which the most intrusive follow-up was described, participants were significantly less likely to report depressive symptomatology than were those participants expecting a less intrusive follow-up.

Demand characteristics have been shown to affect responding to the widely used Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Kornblith, Greenwald, Michelson, & Kazdin, 1984; Page & Bennesch, 1993). Kornblith et al. (1984) hypothesized that college students would be less willing to report depressive symptoms if they were told that the BDI was being used to measure "clinical depression" versus "everyday problems." Along with the influence of instructional set, they investigated the possible influence of item order upon responding. While the ordering of items did not influence participants' endorsement of items, the differing role demands, "clinical depression" versus "everyday problems," did affect their item endorsement, with participants in the "clinical

depression" condition endorsing fewer items.

A similar outcome for the BDI using a similar procedure was revealed by Page and Bennesch (1993). They utilized the manipulation of cues or instructional set in order to further investigate the reasons behind reporting differences in depression scores for males and females. Participants in the "depression" condition saw the title "Depression Inventory," were informed that they were part of a study of depression, and were instructed to describe "the way you have been feeling." Those in the "hassles" condition saw the title "Hassles Inventory," were informed that they were part of a study into the hassles of living, and were instructed to describe "how things have been going." All participants completed the BDI along with nine items from the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (HSCL). Similar to the results of Kornblith et al. (1984), Page and Bennesch discovered that participants in the "depression" condition endorsed significantly fewer items. Having investigated for possible gender differences, they found that the reporting of fewer symptoms was true for males only. These examples clearly demonstrate the effect that instructional sets can have on test responses.

Thus, the purpose of the present study was to determine if and how the reporting of hassles and depression differs according to manipulated instructional set. Concurrently, in light of the

evidence that one's internalized conception of gender role, rather than gender, may be a better predictor of self-reported depressive experience (Sanfilipo, 1994), emotional expressiveness (Ganong & Coleman, 1985), and self-disclosure (Lombardo & Lavine, 1981; Pearson, 1980), potential reporting differences as a function of gender role orientation were explored.

The title of the study and the purpose of the study were varied in creating four conditions.

Participants in the "depression" condition were informed that the purpose was to study clinical depression in university students.

Participants in the "hassles" condition were informed that the purpose was to study the hassles of living experienced by all people in everyday life.

Those in the "honesty" condition were informed that students sometimes overreport or underreport their experiences, and were encouraged to "please be as honest as possible."

Those in the "control" condition were informed only that the purpose of the experiment was to collect data that was part of an ongoing student survey.

Hypotheses - Depression (BDI) Scores

1. It was hypothesized that depression scores would differ according to manipulated instructional set. For instance, it was predicted that scores in the depression condition would

be lower than scores in the other three conditions.

It was additionally hypothesized that these reporting differences among conditions would interact with gender and gender role orientation.

2. More specifically, it was hypothesized that males' and females' scores would be significantly different, with males reporting lower depression scores than females.
3. Additionally, it was hypothesized that depression scores would differ according to gender role orientation, with for example masculine individuals reporting lower depression scores than feminine individuals.

Hypotheses - Daily Hassles (ICSRLE) Scores

4. It was hypothesized that hassles scores would differ according to manipulated instructional set.
It was additionally hypothesized that these reporting differences among conditions would interact with gender and gender role orientation.
5. More specifically, it was hypothesized that the scores of males and females would significantly differ, with males reporting lower hassles scores than females.
6. Additionally, it was hypothesized that hassles scores would differ according to gender role orientation, with masculine individuals reporting lower hassles scores than feminine individuals.

CHAPTER II

Method

Participants

Two hundred and sixty-one undergraduate students (74 males, 183 females, 4 gender not specified), most of whom received course credit for their participation, were recruited from psychology classes at the University of Windsor. Three participants were excluded from the analyses, including two who were still writing when the debriefing was given, and one who had previously completed the questionnaire in another class. Thus, 258 participants (72 males, 182 females, and 4 participants who did not answer the request for gender) were included in the analyses.

Participants' ages ranged from 19 to 70 years ($M = 26.8$, $SD = 8.96$). In terms of year in university ($M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.44$), 12.8% of the total sample were first year students, 26.4% were in their second year, 38.0% were in their third year, and 18.6% were in their fourth year of studies (the remainder either did not specify their year of studies, or were beyond their fourth year).

Psychology was listed as the declared major for 27.9% of participants, 10.1% listed Business as their major, while 6.6%,

4.7%, 4.3%, 3.1%, and 3.1% listed Nursing, Social Work, Family Studies, Sociology, and Biology, respectively, as their majors.

Measures

Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire consisting of a separate consent form, a demographics information sheet, and three self-report instruments: the Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE) (Kohn, Lafreniere, & Gurevich, 1990), the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979), and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975) (see Appendix A).

Daily Hassles Measure

The Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE) is a 49-item self-report hassles measure specifically oriented toward the university student population. It covers areas such as academic demands, finances, and relationships. Included are items that represent hassles unique to the student population, such as, "conflict with professor," "disliking your studies," and "important decisions about your education." As well, there are items representing more general types of hassles, such as, "too many things to do at once," a lot of responsibilities," and "long waits to get service." Unlike the original hassles scales, there are no items referring to physical or psychological symptoms. A four-point response format

includes the following response options: "not at all a part of your life over the past month," "only slightly part of your life," "distinctly part of your life," and "very much a part of your life." When responding to items, individuals assign the numbers 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively, which represent the above response options. Scoring is accomplished by tallying these points for a total.

In terms of reliability, Kohn et al. (1990) reported alpha coefficients of .89 (n=100) and .88 (n=108) from two subsamples used for item selection and cross-replication purposes. For the two subsamples, correlations were .67 and .59 respectively, between the ICSRLE and the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), a widely used, reliable, and valid measure of subjectively experienced stress.

Depression Measure

The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979) is a 21-item self-report instrument designed to assess the severity of depression. The items cover many symptom categories and attitudes, including body image, pessimism, irritability, and somatic preoccupation. In responding to the BDI, individuals are asked to choose the statement in each group of statements which best reflects the way they have been feeling during the past week. Each statement represents a different intensity of a symptom, and is assigned a rating of 0, 1, 2, or

3. The total BDI score ranges from 0 to 63. The score is then compared to established cut-off ranges to estimate the severity of depression.

The BDI has demonstrated excellent psychometric properties with a variety of populations over many years (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988). In terms of reliability, researchers investigating the internal consistency of the BDI have found coefficient alphas ranging from .76 to .95, with an average of .86. In terms of validity, the BDI has been compared to clinical ratings, the Hamilton Psychiatric Rating Scale for Depression, and the depression scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, with resulting correlations of .60 to .72, .73, and .76, respectively.

Gender Role Measure

The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975) is a 16-item self-report instrument designed to assess personal gender role conception. Items from two major subscales, the F-Scale and the M-Scale, contain descriptors of personality characteristics typically associated with males and females. In responding to these descriptors, individuals are asked to rate themselves on a 5-point Likert-type scale. For example, one item asks individuals to rate themselves on a continuum ranging from "feelings not easily hurt" to "feelings easily hurt." Other items ask respondents to rate such

qualities as independence, kindness, aggressiveness, and helpfulness. Individual items are scored from zero to four. The total M and F subscale scores each range from 0 to 32. High and low scores from these subscales are combined to create four gender role categories. Details on this procedure are provided later in the results section.

In terms of reliability, researchers investigating the internal consistency of the PAQ have found coefficient alphas for each of the M and F subscales at .85 and .82 respectively (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Additional psychometric properties have been investigated (Helmreich, Spence, & Wilhelm, 1981; Lippa, 1991). For example, scores on the M and F scales have been found to be uncorrelated, and thus can be said to represent different constructs.

In terms of validity, the PAQ is frequently compared with, and is shown to correlate substantially with the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), a commonly used measure of gender role identification. For example, correlations between the BSRI and the M subscale of the PAQ for males and females were .80 and .74 respectively.

While factor analyses of the PAQ have led some to conclude that the PAQ is more accurately labelled as a measure of instrumentality (M-Scale) and expressiveness (F-Scale), rather than a measure of gender role identity (McCreary, 1990; Spence,

1984, 1991), these researchers note that they do not disregard usage of the PAQ as a measure of gender role orientation.

Conditions

Except for the following manipulations, participants in all conditions received identical questionnaires and answered the same questions from the three specified measures. Manipulation of the independent variable, instructional set, was accomplished by varying the study's title, which occupied the top right hand corner of all pages after the manipulation page, and by varying the ostensible purpose of the study, as explained in a short paragraph. All four written manipulations are briefly described below, and are also listed in detail elsewhere (see Appendix B).

1. Participants in the "depression" condition received an instructional manipulation page entitled "Depression Research Project." A short paragraph was included, explaining that the purpose of the experiment was to study clinical depression in university students. In this condition, the "clinical" aspect of the symptoms was emphasized to see if this might discourage endorsement of items.

2. Participants in the "hassles" condition received an instructional manipulation page entitled "Hassles Research Project." A short paragraph was included, explaining that the purpose of the experiment was to study the hassles of living

experienced by all people in everyday life. In this condition the clinical aspect was de-emphasized to see if this would encourage endorsement of items.

3. Participants in the "honesty" condition received an instructional manipulation page entitled "Student Response Project." A short paragraph was included, explaining that students sometimes overreport or underreport their experiences, and encouraging them to therefore "please be as honest as possible." In this condition, the emphasis was on both avoiding the clinical aspect of symptoms and truthfully informing participants of previous findings to see if this would encourage the endorsement of an even larger number of items.

4. Participants in the "control" condition received an instructional manipulation page entitled "Student Survey." A short paragraph was included which explained that the purpose of the experiment was to collect data that was part of an ongoing student survey. This condition, purposely sparse in detail, was intended as a control in comparison with the other three conditions, each of which supplied explicit cues about the study's ostensible purpose.

This manipulation was conducted in written form only, unlike that of Page and Benesch (1993), whose manipulation involved both verbal and written instructions. However, it was thought that this slight difference in procedure would not hinder

the replication, since the verbal component of their manipulation was very brief (only one to two sentences).

Design and Procedure

An experimental design was employed in testing a student convenience sample, with random assignment to four conditions. Permission was obtained from psychology instructors to conduct the experiment in each class during the last 25 minutes of regular class time. In all classes visited, the experimenter followed a script (see Appendix C) in which she introduced herself, requested participation, and briefly explained issues including: anonymity in responding, confidentiality, comments about ethical clearance, time required in completing the questionnaire, and the right to withdraw at any time. Before students received the questionnaire, they were reminded of issues of validity in experimentation, asked to refrain from talking to other participants, and instructed to request assistance from the experimenter if it was needed. Four different versions of the questionnaire randomly intermixed into one bundle were then distributed to participants, and this allowed random assignment to the four conditions. The first sheet of all four questionnaire versions was the consent form, while the second sheet requested participant gender, age, year in university, and declared major. The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) was always the first measure completed, and therefore located on the

third and fourth pages for all participants. The differences in the versions described in the measures section began on the questionnaire's fifth page, which was the instructional manipulation page. The BDI and ICSRLE measures followed, and their sequence was randomly determined. Upon completion of the questionnaires, participants returned them to the experimenter separately from the signed consent forms. When all of the questionnaires were returned to the experimenter, participants were informed of the actual purpose of the study, and it was explained that there were in fact four different conditions employed (see Appendix D). In asking them not to mention this information to students in other classes, it was emphasized that this had been a collaboration between students and researcher that was much appreciated. Lastly, since the analyses could not be completed by the end of their courses, they were informed that a report of the study could be obtained later, upon request.

CHAPTER III

Results

Reliability

The means, standard deviations and reliability coefficients of the Beck Depression Inventory, Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences, and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire used in the present study were assessed (see Table 1). Reliability coefficients indicating internal consistency were found to be within an acceptable range ($\alpha > 0.70$) for all scales.

Gender Role Categorization from PAQ Subscales

Before the hypotheses were analyzed, participants' scores on the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975) were categorized. A median-split procedure was used to form four gender role categories. The M and F subscales were divided into high and low scoring ranges based on the median score for each separate subscale. Different combinations of M and F high and low scores were considered to represent four gender role categories. Individuals with a high M score and a high F score were labelled as androgynous. Individuals with a low M score and a high F score were labelled as feminine.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients for the Beck Depression Inventory, Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences, and Subscales of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire

| Scale | M | SD | Alpha | Possible Range | Actual Range |
|------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|--------------|
| Depression | | | | | |
| BDI | 10.33 | 7.01 | 0.84 | 0 to 63 | 0 to 41 |
| Life Hassles | | | | | |
| ICSRLE | 95.50 | 20.05 | 0.91 | 49 to 196 | 58 to 157 |
| Gender Role (PAQ Subscales) | | | | | |
| F-Scale | 19.98 | 7.58 | 0.68 | 0 to 32 | 0 to 32 |
| M-Scale | 20.22 | 4.81 | 0.77 | 0 to 32 | 6 to 32 |

Note. Higher scores (above 9.00, since 0-9.00 = no depression) on the BDI indicate more severe levels of depression. Higher scores on the ICSRLE indicate a larger amount of life hassles. Higher scores on the F-Scale indicate a larger number of feminine traits. Higher scores on the M-Scale indicate a larger number of masculine traits.

Individuals with a high M score and a low F score were labelled as masculine. Those with a low M score and a low F score were labelled as undifferentiated in terms of gender role orientation.

Correlations among all variables were examined before initiating the main analyses. Some of these Pearson product moment correlations were significant (see Table 2). For instance, higher scores on the M subscale of the PAQ, indicating a masculine role orientation, were associated with lower BDI (depression) scores, $r = -.38$, $p < .001$. Higher scores on the M subscale were also associated with lower ICSRLE (hassles) scores, $r = -.25$, $p < .001$. Finally, a fairly high positive correlation was found between BDI and ICSRLE scores, $r = .57$, $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 1-3: Effect of Instructional Set, Gender, and Gender Role Orientation on Depressive Symptom Reporting

A 4 x 4 x 2 factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), with correction for unequal cell frequencies, of Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) total scores was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) MANOVA procedure. The independent variables examined were: Instructional Set (Depression, Hassles, Control, and Honesty), Gender Role Orientation (Androgynous, Feminine, Masculine, Undifferentiated), and Gender. Means and standard deviations for all conditions and combinations are presented in Table 3.

Table 2

Correlations Among All Variables

| | (N = 258) | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| <u>Variable</u> | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1. Gender | 0.07 | -0.17* | -0.09 | 0.03 | 0.03 |
| 2. Instructional Set | ---- | -0.10 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.02 |
| 3. Gender Role (PAQ-F) | | ---- | -0.09 | -0.04 | -0.08 |
| 4. Gender Role (PAQ-M) | | | ---- | -0.38** | -0.25** |
| 5. Depression (BDI) | | | | ---- | 0.57** |
| 6. Life Hassles (ICSRLE) | | | | | ---- |

Note. * $p < .05$

** $p < .001$

Table 3

Depression (BDI) Means and Standard Deviations by Gender, Gender
Role Orientation, and Instructional Set

| Instr. Set | MALES | | | | FEMALES | | | |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Androgynous | | | | | | | | |
| M | 4.40 | 8.33 | 6.29 | 7.00 | 6.67 | 5.79 | 6.71 | 9.71 |
| SD | 3.66 | 3.05 | 5.99 | 1.83 | 3.43 | 4.94 | 3.77 | 6.42 |
| n | 10 | 3 | 7 | 4 | 9 | 10 | 7 | 7 |
| Feminine | | | | | | | | |
| | 10.18 | 14.33 | 11.67 | 10.80 | 12.25 | 14.27 | 13.65 | 11.71 |
| | 6.01 | 8.02 | 9.81 | 6.98 | 8.83 | 3.85 | 10.91 | 5.97 |
| | 7 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 14 |
| Masculine | | | | | | | | |
| | 6.00 | 10.50 | 9.00 | 9.00 | 8.22 | 8.88 | 9.76 | 7.25 |
| | 7.07 | 6.81 | 1.41 | 6.42 | 3.38 | 7.81 | 6.81 | 4.14 |
| | 2 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 15 | 17 | 12 |
| Undiff. | | | | | | | | |
| | 12.25 | 13.50 | 20.90 | 20.67 | 15.30 | 13.61 | 9.35 | 13.50 |
| | 11.15 | 3.54 | 12.24 | 10.50 | 8.36 | 7.27 | 5.92 | 4.62 |
| | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 11 | 10 | 17 | 10 |

Note. Undiff. = undifferentiated gender role category
Instructional Set 1=Depression, 2=Hassles, 3=Control, 4=Honesty

Hypothesis One was not supported. There was no main effect for instructional set. The effect of instructional set alone on depression scores was therefore not significant, $F(3, 220) = 0.95$, *ns*. Thus, no significant differences in depressive symptom reporting were found according to the four instructional sets.

Hypothesis Two was not supported. There was no main effect for gender, and thus no significant differences in males' and females' depressive symptom reporting, $F(1, 220) = 0.25$, *ns*.

A significant main effect for gender role orientation was found. In support of hypothesis three, differences in depressive symptom reporting were found among the four gender role classifications, $F(3, 220) = 12.69$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 1).

A post-hoc procedure was conducted to examine which of the four gender role categories had significantly different mean depression scores. Scheffe's test was used because it protects the alpha level, and therefore controls the Type I error rate, while allowing multiple t-tests. The depression scores of those with a feminine role orientation ($M = 12.51$) were significantly higher than the scores of those with an androgynous role orientation ($M = 6.71$), and those with a masculine role orientation ($M = 8.64$), but did not significantly differ from the depression scores of undifferentiated individuals ($M = 13.32$). The depression scores of the undifferentiated group ($M = 13.32$) were significantly higher than the scores of those with an

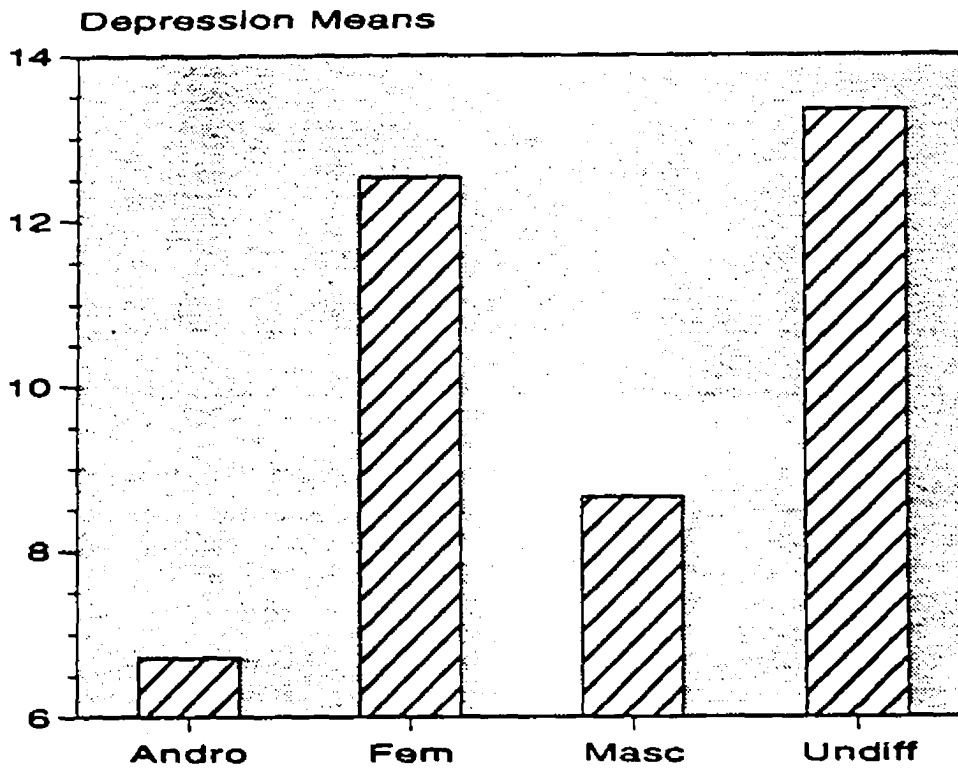


Figure I. Mean depression scores according to gender role orientation.

androgynous role orientation ($M = 6.71$), and those with a masculine role orientation ($M = 8.64$). The depression scores of masculine individuals ($M = 8.64$) did not significantly differ from those of androgynous individuals ($M = 6.71$).

No significant second order interaction was found among the three independent variables combined, $F(9, 220) = 0.74$, *ns*, nor were any of the first order interactions significant.

Specifically, the combined effect of instructional set and gender role orientation on depression scores was not significant, $F(9, 220) = 0.37$, *ns*, nor was the combined effect of instructional set and gender, $F(3, 220) = 1.01$, *ns*, or the combined effect of gender and gender role orientation, $F(3, 220) = 1.23$, *ns*.

Hypotheses 4-6: Effect of Instructional Set, Gender, and Gender Role Orientation on Hassles Reporting

A 4 x 4 x 2 factorial ANOVA of Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE) total scores was again performed using the SPSS MANOVA procedure. The independent variables and their various levels examined were the same as those from the first factorial ANOVA. Means and standard deviations for all conditions and combinations are presented in Table 4.

Hypothesis Four was not supported since no main effect for instructional set was found. The effect on hassles scores of instructional set alone was not significant, $F(3, 220) = 0.65$,

Table 4

Hassles (ICSRLE) Means and Standard Deviations by Gender, Gender Role Orientation, and Instructional Set

| Instr. Set | MALES | | | | FEMALES | | | |
|--------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|-------|-------|--------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Androgynous | | | | | | | | |
| M | 81.66 | 87.67 | 92.00 | 86.50 | 91.89 | 90.11 | 79.43 | 93.37 |
| SD | 16.97 | 3.05 | 18.24 | 24.36 | 23.80 | 12.97 | 12.59 | 15.06 |
| n | 10 | 3 | 7 | 4 | 9 | 9 | 7 | 8 |
| Feminine | | | | | | | | |
| M | 108.43 | 89.20 | 77.67 | 114.25 | 97.92 | 96.73 | 99.75 | 100.43 |
| SD | 26.79 | 17.72 | 3.51 | 11.06 | 24.73 | 14.72 | 22.40 | 22.46 |
| n | 7 | 6 | 3 | 4 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 14 |
| Masculine | | | | | | | | |
| M | 84.50 | 90.62 | 99.00 | 91.50 | 90.19 | 97.67 | 98.59 | 84.83 |
| SD | .71 | 5.03 | 16.97 | 16.22 | 14.94 | 24.67 | 19.15 | 13.78 |
| n | 2 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 15 | 17 | 12 |
| Undiff. | | | | | | | | |
| M | 88.31 | 117.50 | 120.00 | 118.33 | 105.91 | 96.90 | 95.82 | 103.40 |
| SD | 20.96 | 17.68 | 37.00 | 30.04 | 18.83 | 19.39 | 19.96 | 16.80 |
| n | 5 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 11 | 10 | 17 | 10 |

Note. Undiff. = undifferentiated gender role category
Instructional Set 1=Depression, 2=Hassles, 3=Control, 4=Honesty

ns. Thus, no significant differences in reported hassles were found according to the four instructional sets.

Hypothesis Five was not supported since no main effect for gender was found. Thus, no significant differences in hassles reporting were found between males and females, $F(1, 220) = 0.26$, ns.

A main effect for gender role orientation was found. In support of hypothesis Six, differences in hassles reporting were found among the gender role classifications, $F(3, 220) = 6.64$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 2).

Scheffe's test was conducted to examine which of the four gender role categories had significantly different mean hassles scores. The hassles scores of those with a feminine role orientation ($M = 98.91$) were significantly greater than the scores of those with an androgynous role orientation ($M = 88.20$), but did not significantly differ from the hassles scores of those classified as masculine ($M = 93.09$) or those classified as undifferentiated ($M = 101.45$). The hassles scores of those with an undifferentiated role orientation ($M = 101.45$) were significantly greater than the scores of those with an androgynous role orientation ($M = 88.20$), but did not significantly differ from the hassles scores of those classified as feminine ($M = 98.91$) or those classified as masculine ($M = 93.09$).

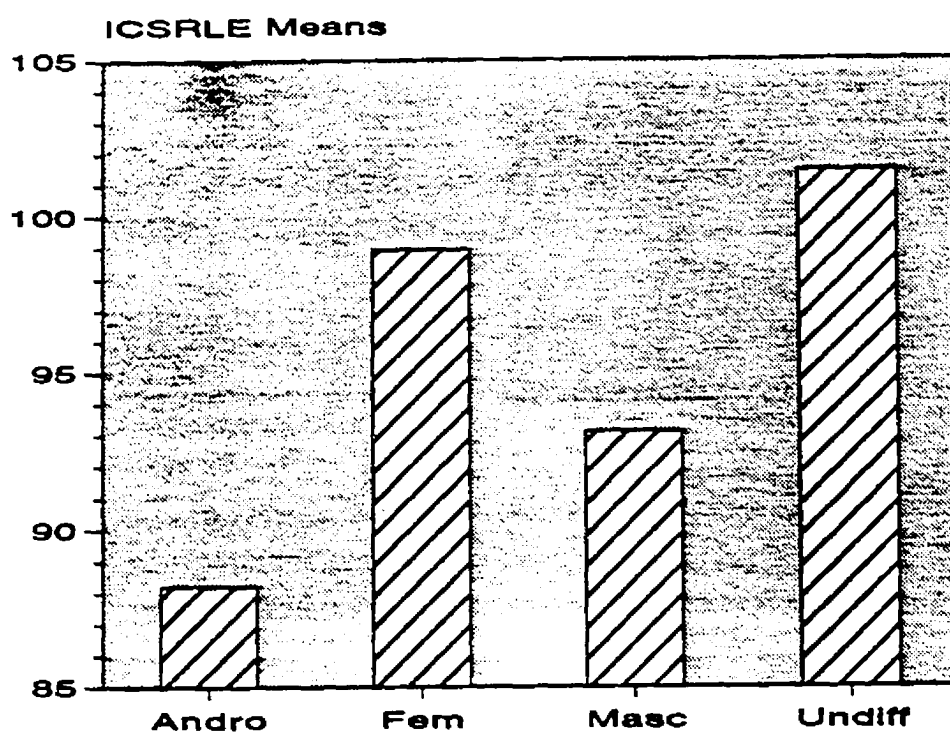


Figure 2. Mean hassles scores according to gender role orientation.

The second order interaction among the combined independent variables was not significant, $F(9, 220) = 1.73$, ns, nor were any of the first order interactions. Specifically, the combined effect of instructional set and gender role orientation on hassles scores was not significant, $F(9, 220) = 1.28$, ns, nor was the combined effect of instructional set and gender, $F(3, 220) = 0.92$, ns, or the combined effect of gender and gender role orientation, $F(3, 220) = 0.93$, ns.

Additional Analyses

In light of the significant correlation, $r = .57$, $p < .001$, between the dependent variables, BDI and ICSRLE scores, a $4 \times 4 \times 2$ multivariate analysis of variance was performed using the SPSS MANOVA procedure. This analysis yielded results which were consistent with those of the separate factorial univariate ANOVAS described above.

Using Pillai's criterion to evaluate multivariate significance, there was no main effect for instructional set, $F(3, 218) = 0.63$, ns. As well, there was no main effect for gender, $F(1, 218) = 0.21$, ns. However, there was a main effect for gender role, $F(3, 218) = 6.22$, $p < .001$.

There were no significant interactions. The combined effect of all three independent variables upon BDI and ICSRLE scores was not significant, $F(9, 218) = 1.40$, ns, nor was the combined effect of instructional set and gender role, $F(9, 218) = 1.19$,

ns, nor the combined effect of instructional set and gender, $F(3, 218) = 0.76$, ns, or the combined effect of gender and gender role, $F(3, 218) = 0.60$, ns.

Prevalence of Depression, Daily Hassles, and Gender Role Orientation

In the interest of examining the percentage of males and females in each of the four gender role categories, a chi-square analysis was performed. Gender was found to be significantly related to reported gender role orientation, $\chi^2(3, N = 254) = 8.38$, $p < .05$. Thus, the distribution for males across gender role categories was not the same as the distribution for females. Females were almost equally divided among all four categories, while most males reported either an androgynous role orientation (33.3%), or a feminine role orientation (29.2%) (see Figure 3).

An additional chi-square analysis was performed in the interest of determining the percentage of males and females occupying each of the commonly specified BDI ranges, which distinguish the number of symptoms endorsed, and thus the severity of the depression. Males and females did not differ in terms of reported depression severity, $\chi^2(4, N = 252) = 0.40$, ns, (see Figure 4). However, in another chi-square analysis, reported depression severity differed significantly among the four gender role categories, $\chi^2(12, N = 256) = 42.50$, $p < .0005$ (see Figure 5).

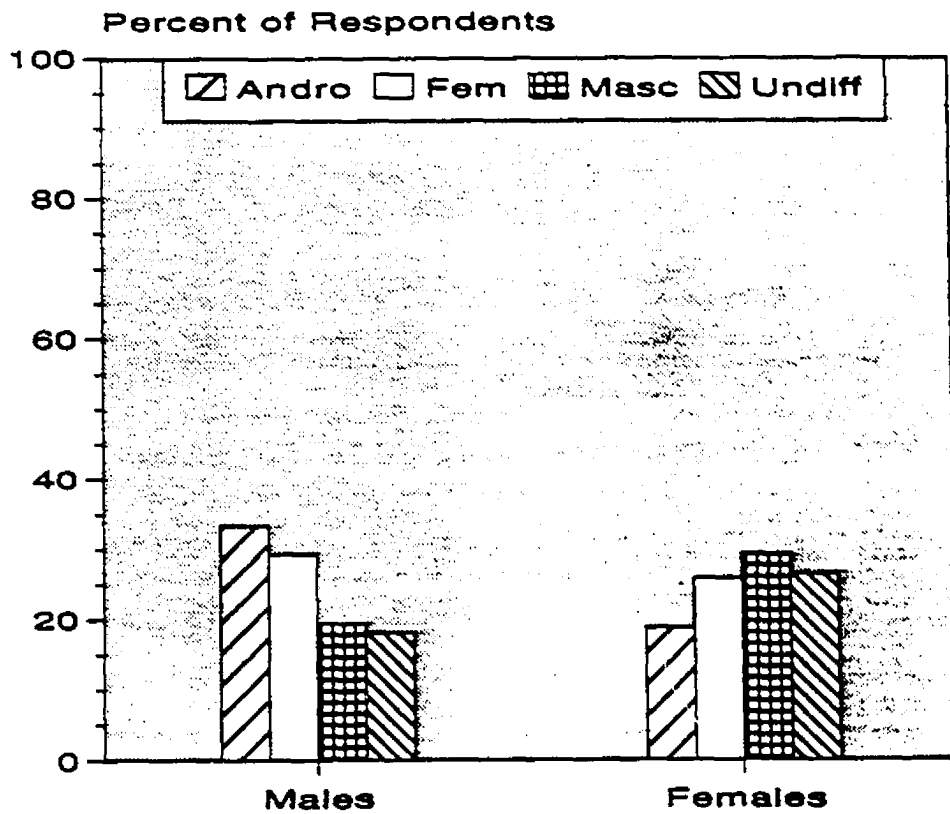


Figure 3. Percentage of males and females occupying four gender role categories.

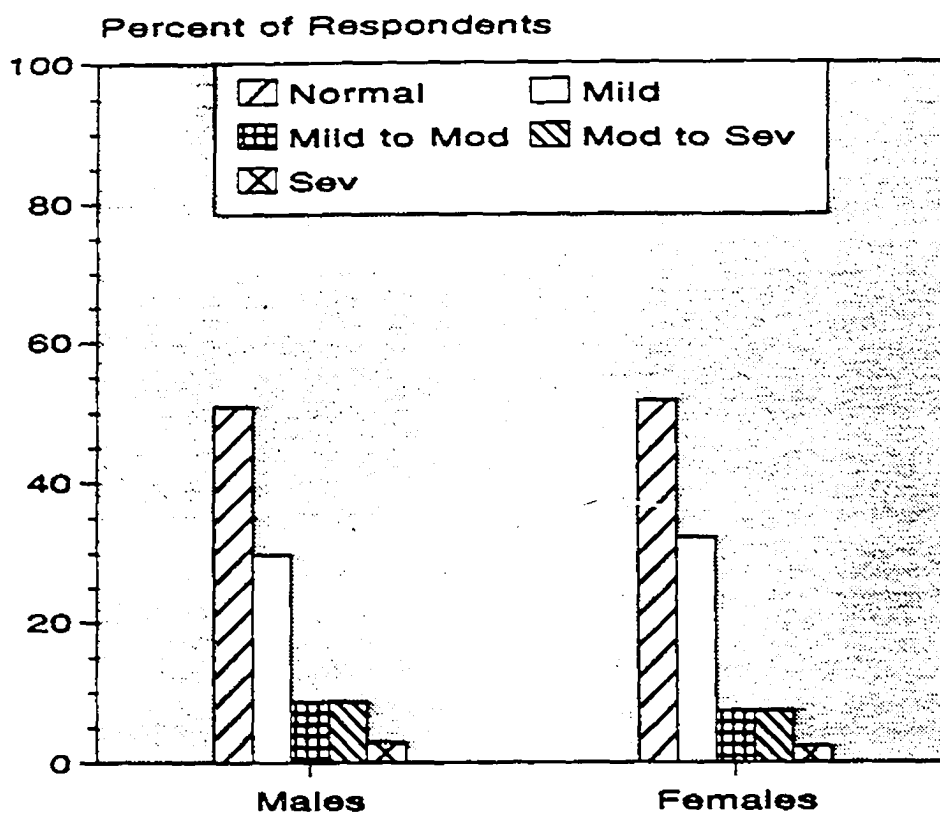


Figure 4. Prevalence of depressive symptoms by gender according to commonly specified BDI ranges.

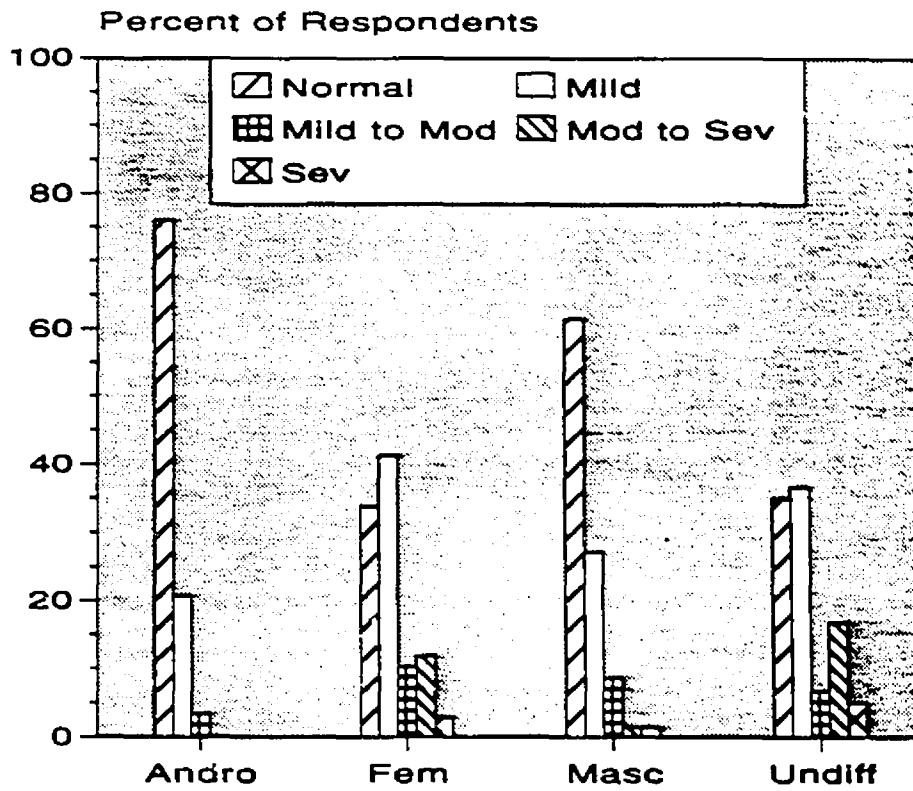


Figure 5. Prevalence of depressive symptoms by gender role orientation according to commonly specified BDI ranges.

In additional chi-square analyses, males and females did not differ in the number of reported hassles, $\chi^2(2, N = 252) = 0.54$, ns (see Figure 6). However, the number of reported daily hassles did differ according to gender role orientation, $\chi^2(6, N = 256) = 14.79$, $p < .05$ (see Figure 7).

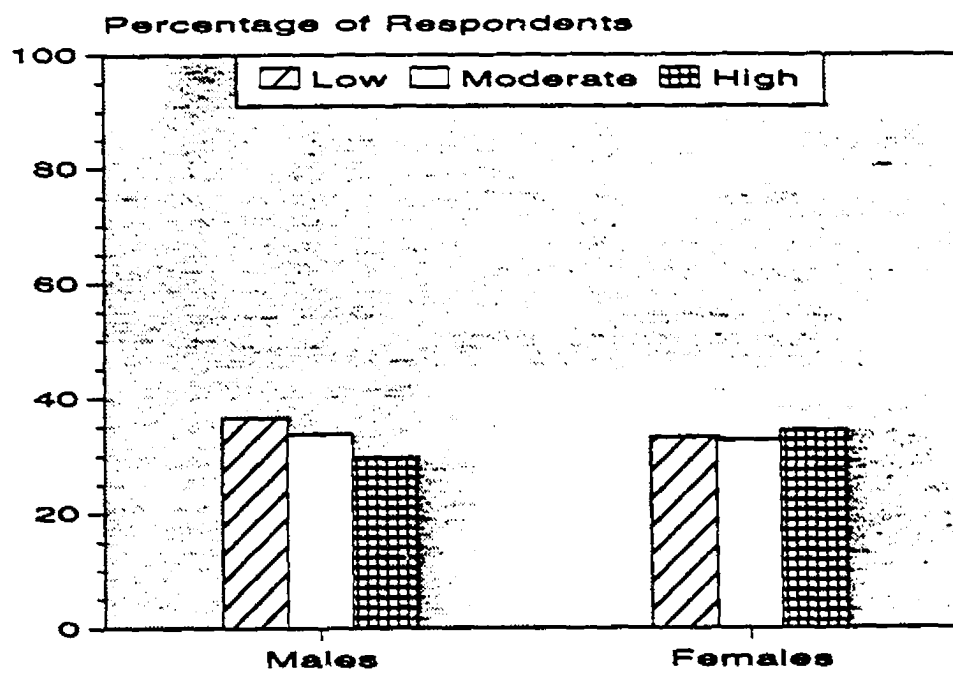


Figure 6. Number of hassles reported by males and females.

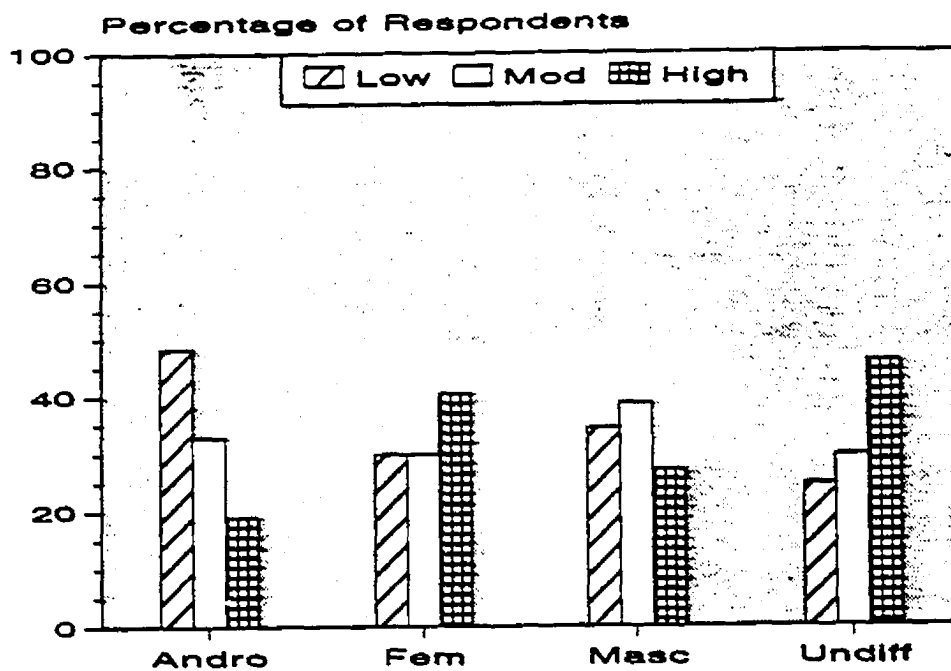


Figure 7. Number of hassles reported according to gender role orientation.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Unintended social cues found in testing situations have been shown to affect test item endorsement (Kroger, 1967; Kroger & Turnbull, 1970). The purpose of the present study was to determine if and how the reporting of daily hassles and depressive symptomatology differs according to manipulated instructional set. Potential reporting differences as a function of gender and gender role orientation were also explored.

Hypotheses 1-3: Depressive Symptom Reporting

It was expected that depression scores would differ according to manipulated instructional set. This was not found. Nor was there any significant interaction among instructional set, gender, or gender role orientation. The present findings are not consistent with those of either Page and Bennesch (1993) or Kornblith, Greenwald, Michelson, and Kazdin (1984), in which a "depression" instructional set, as compared to one emphasizing everyday hassles, resulted in lower depression scores. However, due to the use of random assignment the present study represents a methodological improvement over the quasi-experimental approach employed by Page and Bennesch (1993) in which there was

no random assignment to conditions. Kornblith et al. (1984) did not provide sufficient information regarding their experimental approach to judge the relative methodological merits or flaws of their study.

In the present study however, an examination of the mean scores for the non-significant interaction between instructional set and gender shows evidence of a trend in which males did report fewer depressive symptoms when the instructional set emphasized clinical depression as compared to when it emphasized commonly experienced daily hassles.

It was expected that males' depression scores would be significantly lower than those of female participants. However, no significant gender difference in depressive symptom reporting was found. This is consistent with the findings of other researchers studying depression in the university student population (Elpern & Karp, 1984; Feather, 1985; Padesky & Hammen, 1981).

In support of the third hypothesis, gender role differences in depressive symptom reporting were found. More specifically, those with a feminine or undifferentiated role orientation scored higher on the BDI than participants with either a masculine or androgynous role orientation. This finding converges with those of other researchers (Elpern & Karp, 1984; Oliver & Toner, 1990; Sanfilippo, 1994; Tinsley, Sullivan-Guest, & McGuire, 1984;

Whitley, 1984). The fact that gender role, but not gender, was significantly related to depression scores gives further support to an idea that the routine investigation of gender differences should be replaced or at least supplemented with an examination of gender role differences, since they appear to be a better predictor of various experiences than is gender alone (Elpern & Karp, 1984; Ganong & Coleman, 1985; Lombardo & Lavine, 1981; Oliver & Toner, 1990).

Hypotheses 4-6: Hassles Reporting

It was expected that hassles scores would differ significantly according to manipulated instructional set. This, however, was not found. As with the results of depressive symptom reporting, significant interactions among instructional set, gender, and gender role orientation were also not found with respect to hassles reporting.

Additionally, no significant gender difference in hassles reporting was found. Other researchers employing the ICSRLE hassles measure (Kohn, Lafreniere, & Gurevich, 1990; Osman, Barrios, Longnecker, & Osman, 1994) have however found gender differences in reported hassles, with females reporting a higher number of hassles than males.

Significant differences in hassles reporting were found with regard to gender role orientation. More specifically, those with either a feminine or undifferentiated role orientation scored

significantly higher on the ICSRLE than participants with an androgynous role orientation. Although the difference was not statistically significant, persons classified as feminine or as undifferentiated also scored higher than individuals with a masculine orientation.

Further Interpretation of Depression and Hassles Reporting

In attempting to understand the relation of hassles and depressive symptom reporting to one's gender role experience in the context of the present study, one can view these results with regard to the social psychology of the psychological experiment. Specifically, these results of the present study can be interpreted in terms of the influence of social cues on testing behavior.

In considering earlier experiments investigating the effect of experimental cues, experimenters created situations in which experimental cues created a demand for performance of a particular role. For instance, in studies conducted by Kroger (1967) and Kroger and Turnbull (1970), even though participants were asked to describe their own personality, the cues within the military and artistic manipulations influenced participants' responses to reflect the manipulated military or artistic role instead of their actual personality. One could venture that gender roles, which are often strongly prescribed by society for a group of individuals, and which are similar to any roles that

could be manipulated or induced in an experiment, could have a similar effect upon self-reported experience. That is, self-reporting of depressive symptoms, for example, would reflect what is expected as part of that role instead of the symptoms that one is actually experiencing at that point in time.

This is consistent with Bem's (1974) notion that individuals strive to keep their behavior consistent with their internalized conception of gender role. Bem noted that one accomplishes this by suppressing behavior which society considers inappropriate for the gender role. This relates to the findings which demonstrate the presence of negative societal consequences for males who violate their gender role prescription by "admitting" to depression (Rosenfield, 1982; Hammen & Peters, 1977).

Following from the view of the psychological experiment as a form of social interaction (Orne, 1962), and from Kroger's (1967) idea that test scores are never objective "truths" about a person's characteristics, but instead should more accurately be viewed as "trait-method-role units" (p.310), then the finding that gender role orientation influences the reporting of hassles and depressive symptoms could be used as evidence that one's internalized gender role enters into the equation of the "trait-method-role unit" theory of the test score. One might conceptualize internalized gender role as a type of cue that one always carries with them, which consequently influences

experimental behavior. This idea relates to, and may explain why gender role orientation is a better predictor than gender of many types of self-reported experiences, including depressive symptom reporting (Sanfilipo, 1994), emotional expressiveness (Ganong & Coleman, 1985), and the ability to be introspective (Ingram, Cruet, Johnson, & Wisnicki, 1988). It appears to be a factor whose influence is well worth further investigation.

Individuals with either a feminine or undifferentiated gender role orientation reported having to deal with a larger number of daily hassles (see Figure 7), and reported more severe levels of depression (see Figure 5) than did masculine or androgynous individuals. One line of interpretation has suggested that a predominance of feminine-typed characteristics by their very nature leads one to greater distress (Sanfilipo, 1994). Similarly, undifferentiated individuals are said to experience greater distress because they cannot delineate a clear gender role for themselves. However, another interpretation suggests that something inherent in the feminine and undifferentiated roles leads them to report the daily hassles or stresses they experience, while characteristics of the androgynous and masculine individuals lead them to underreport certain experiences. For example, greater expressiveness is associated with feminine individuals, and possibly leads them to be more open about current feelings and life circumstances than

masculine or androgynous individuals are willing to be. Indeed, research has shown that the masculine role is often very stressful and not very "healthy" (Snell, Belk, & Hawkins, 1985), partly due to the fact that society does not readily accept the expression of feelings by these individuals. Androgynous persons on the other hand, are considered by many to be the "most healthy" of the four orientations, because they are more balanced in terms of stereotypically feminine and masculine characteristics (Bem, 1975). Depression and hassles reporting were, in the present study, expected to differ according to instructional set. This finding would have provided evidence for the interpretation that certain characteristics of gender role orientations, such as expressiveness, lead some to readily admit the circumstances and feelings they experience, and others to keep these experiences private.

Considering the significant relationship found between depression and hassles scores, one could theoretically combine the gender role findings to provide additional explanations. For instance, since daily hassles are considered to be predictors of physical and mental symptoms (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981; Monroe, 1983), then it follows that those with a feminine gender role reporting a greater number of hassles would also report higher depression scores as compared to the masculine and androgynous groups. Dealing with a greater number of everyday

stressors may very well lead to a sense of being overwhelmed, which could then possibly lead to distress in the form of physical or psychological depressive symptoms.

In considering the severity of depression experienced by today's university students, in the present study mean scores for both female and male students were just in the range usually considered as indicating mild depression (mean BDI = 10.00). These scores are much lower than those typically found with clinical samples (Beck & Steer, 1984). Some researchers (Gotlib, 1984; Tanaka-Matsumi & Kameoka, 1986) have indicated that in student populations, since the BDI has been found to correlate with other measures of psychopathology, even high scores on the BDI are not always indicative of depression alone. There is evidence to suggest that in this population, BDI scores might best be interpreted as representing general psychological distress (Watson & Clark, 1984). Watson and Clark (1984) found that a number of different personality scales thought to be measuring separate traits such as anxiety and neuroticism may all be measuring the same stable trait which these researchers call "negative affectivity." Individuals with this trait are purported to be more introspective and are often upset and distressed with a negative view of themselves and the world. High correlations among measures of anxiety, neuroticism, and the BDI have been found (Watson & Clark, 1984). These researchers

speculate that within the university student population, the BDI may be more accurately called a measure of negative affectivity.

Limitations of the Present Study

A number of issues must be addressed with regard to the present study. First of all, reasons can be given for why different instructional sets had no effect on the reporting of either depression or hassles. It may be that the results found by Page and Bennesch (1993) and Kornblith, Greenwald, Michelson, and Kazdin (1984) are unique to those quasi-experimental studies and cannot be replicated. However, the specific nature of the manipulation used in the present study was slightly different from these previous studies.

The written manipulation employed in the present study was perhaps not by itself strong enough to create a clear difference among the four instructional sets. For instance, following the debriefing, a couple of participants, when asked for their comments regarding the present study, commented that they had not read the questionnaire instructions, but instead went ahead quickly in answering the questions. Thus, if some participants paid little attention to what they read, then the manipulation might not have been fully effective. It is possible that incorporating a verbal component as did Page and Bennesch (1993), might have resulted in significant differences according to instructional set. Kornblith et al. (1984) did not fully specify

the details of their instructional set manipulation. Kroger (1967) and Kroger and Turnbull (1970) included four components in their manipulation of experimental cues: test titles, the ostensible purpose of testing, the setting, and the experimenter. Kroger commented that it would be useful to know the effect of each of these components separately. The results of the present study suggest that a written manipulation alone may not sufficiently represent the social cues found in testing situations and experimental settings.

Another issue which must be addressed is that of generalizability. The results of the present study do not necessarily apply strongly beyond a university student population. Researchers examining the effects of experimental cues would do well to test or replicate their results with clinical or community samples.

Finally, it might have been desirable to have a larger number of male participants in order to fully test some of the effects in this study. Even from a recruitment sample of 261 students, only 72 were males.

Suggestions for Future Research

Not only could the specifics of the manipulation be improved, but a similar study could be conducted using entirely different measures of depression and hassles. Older hassles scales such as that developed by Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer and

Lazarus (1981) might be more susceptible to outside influences and cues in the experimental situation because of the inclusion of severity ratings and the fact that some items resemble symptoms, leading participants to overreport hassles.

The effects of experimental or test-taking cues on self-reported experience could be tested with any number of different self-report instruments. For instance, it has been suggested that females may be less willing to admit to aggressiveness or substance abuse because such behaviors are not consistent with a stereotypically female role (Page, 1985; Rosenfield, 1982).

As well, with regard to the findings in which feminine and undifferentiated individuals reported more daily hassles than did masculine or androgynous individuals, it would be valuable in future studies to examine whether different types of hassles are consistently experienced by the different gender role orientations.

Research which addresses the "social psychology of the psychological experiment" not only has important, yet often neglected, implications for all domains of psychological research, but also applies directly to clinical practice in situations where the accuracy of self-report screening instruments is paramount.

APPENDIX A
Questionnaire

RESEARCH INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

This study is being conducted by Ms. Karen Holowaty and Dr. Kathryn Lafreniere of the University of Windsor Psychology Department.

Participating in this study involves responding to a number of personality-related questions in a questionnaire package that will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Your participation is completely voluntary. You may discontinue your participation at any point in time. All information collected from you will be handled by Karen Holowaty and Kathryn Lafreniere, and only summarized results of group data will appear in the feedback report.

A summary of the results of this investigation will be available in late August upon request from Karen Holowaty, Psychology Department, University Of Windsor, (519) 256-5098.

Any concerns regarding the procedures or ethics of this investigation may be directed to:

Dr. Roland Englehart, Chair
Psychology Dept. Ethics Committee
University of Windsor
(519) 253-4232 ext.

I have read the information above and I voluntarily consent to be a participant in this investigation.

Signed _____ Date _____

INFORMATION SHEET

Please complete the following:

GENDER: (circle) Male
Female

AGE: _____

YEAR IN UNIVERSITY: _____

MAJOR: _____

This page consists of a series of 5-point scales which describe a variety of psychological characteristics. For each one, you are to rate yourself on that characteristic.

For example, how artistic are you? On the scale below, "very artistic" is indicated at the far right, and "not at all artistic" is indicated at the far left:

Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very
artistic artistic

If you think you are moderately artistic, your answer might be D; if you are very unartistic you should choose A, etc.

For each scale, CIRCLE the letter on the scale that best describes you. (Always choose a letter, and do not circle the space between letters). Please be sure to answer every item.

1. Not at all kind A....B....C....D....E Very kind
2. Very little need A....B....C....D....E Very strong need
for security for security
3. Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very independent
independent
4. Very home oriented A....B....C....D....E Very worldly
5. Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very emotional
emotional
6. Feelings not A....B....C....D....E Feelings easily hurt
easily hurt
7. Not at all able A....B....C....D....E Able to devote
to devote self self completely
completely to others to others
8. Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very understanding
understanding of others
of others

9. Never cries A....B....C....D....E Cries very easily
10. Not at all excitable A....B....C....D....E Very excitable
in a major crisis in a major crisis
11. Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very self-confident
self-confident
12. Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very competitive
competitive
13. Indifferent to A....B....C....D....E Highly needful of
others' approval others' approval
14. Feels very A....B....C....D....E Feels very superior
inferior
15. Very submissive A....B....C....D....E Very dominant
16. Very passive A....B....C....D....E Very active
17. Very rough A....B....C....D....E Very gentle
18. Can make decisions A....B....C....D....E Has difficulty
easily making decisions
19. Not at all A....B....C....D....E Very aggressive
aggressive
20. Goes to pieces A....B....C....D....E Stands up well
under pressure under pressure
21. Not at all aware of A....B....C....D....E Very aware of
feelings of others feelings of others
22. Not at all helpful A....B....C....D....E Very helpful
to others to others
23. Gives up very A....B....C....D....E Never gives up
easily very easily
24. Very cold in A....B....C....D....E Very warm in
relations to others relations to others

Hassles of Everyday Life

Following is a list of experiences which many students have some time or other. Please indicate for each experience how much it has been a part of your life over the past month. Put a "1" in the space provided next to an experience if it was not at all part of your life over the past month (e.g., "trouble with mother in law - 1"); "2" for an experience which was only slightly part of your life over that time; "3" for an experience which was distinctly part of your life; and "4" for an experience which was very much part of your life over the past month.

Intensity of Experience over Past Month

- 1 = not at all part of my life
 2 = only slightly part of my life
 3 = distinctly part of my life
 4 = very much part of my life

1. Conflicts with boyfriend's/girlfriend's/spouse's family _____
2. Being let down or disappointed by friends _____
3. Conflict with professor(s) _____
4. Social rejection _____
5. Too many things to do at once _____
6. Being taken for granted _____
7. Financial conflicts with family members _____
8. Having your trust betrayed by a friend _____
9. Separation from people you care about _____
10. Having your contributions overlooked _____
11. Struggling to meet your own academic standards _____
12. Being taken advantage of _____
13. Not enough leisure time _____

Hassles of Everyday Life

Intensity of Experience Over Past Month

- 1 = not at all part of my life
2 = only slightly part of my life
3 = distinctly part of my life
4 = very much part of my life

14. Struggling to meet the academic standards of others _____
15. A lot of responsibilities _____
16. Dissatisfaction with school _____
17. Decisions about intimate relationship(s) _____
18. Not enough time to meet your obligations _____
19. Dissatisfaction with your mathematical ability _____
20. Important decisions about your future career _____
21. Financial burdens _____
22. Dissatisfaction with your reading ability _____
23. Important decisions about your education _____
24. Loneliness _____
25. Lower grades than you hoped for _____
26. Conflict with teaching assistant(s) _____
27. Not enough time for sleep _____
28. Conflicts with your family _____
29. Heavy demands from extracurricular activities _____
30. Finding courses too demanding _____
31. Conflicts with friends _____

Hassles of Everyday Life

Intensity of Experience Over Past Month

- 1 = not at all part of my life
 2 = only slightly part of my life
 3 = distinctly part of my life
 4 = very much part of my life

32. Hard effort to get ahead _____
33. Poor health of a friend _____
34. Disliking your studies _____
35. Getting "ripped off"/cheated in purchase of services _____
36. Social conflicts over smoking _____
37. Difficulties with transportation _____
38. Disliking fellow student(s) _____
39. Conflicts with boyfriend/girlfriend/spouse _____
40. Dissatisfaction with your ability at written expression _____
41. Interruptions of your school work _____
42. Social isolation _____
43. Long waits to get service (e.g. at banks, stores, etc.) _____
44. Being ignored _____
45. Dissatisfaction with your physical appearance _____
46. Finding course(s) uninteresting _____
47. Gossip concerning someone you care about _____
48. Failing to get expected job _____
49. Dissatisfaction with your athletic skills _____

Hassles of Everyday Life

This part of the questionnaire consists of 21 groups of statements. After reading each group of statements carefully, circle the number (0, 1, 2, or 3) next to the one statement in each group which best describes the way things have been going the past week, including today. If several statements within a group seem to apply equally well, circle each one. Be sure to read all the statements in each group before making your choice.

50. 0 I do not feel sad.
1 I feel sad.
2 I am sad all the time and I can't snap out of it.
3 I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it.
51. 0 I am not particularly discouraged about the future.
1 I feel discouraged about the future.
2 I feel I have nothing to look forward to.
3 I feel that the future is hopeless and that things cannot improve.
52. 0 I do not feel like a failure.
1 I feel I have failed more than the average person.
2 As I look back on my life, all I can see is a lot of failures.
3 I feel I am a complete failure as a person.
53. 0 I get as much satisfaction out of things as I used to.
1 I don't enjoy things the way I used to.
2 I don't get real satisfaction out of anything anymore.
3 I am dissatisfied or bored with everything.

Hassles of Everyday Life

54. 0 I don't feel particularly guilty.
1 I feel guilty a good part of the time.
2 I feel quite guilty most of the time.
3 I feel guilty all of the time.
55. 0 I don't feel I am being punished.
1 I feel I may be punished.
2 I expect to be punished.
3 I feel I am being punished.
56. 0 I don't feel disappointed in myself.
1 I am disappointed in myself.
2 I am disgusted with myself.
3 I hate myself.
57. 0 I don't feel I am any worse than anybody else.
1 I am critical of myself for my weaknesses or mistakes.
2 I blame myself all the time for my faults.
3 I blame myself for everything bad that happens.
58. 0 I don't have any thought of killing myself.
1 I have thoughts of killing myself, but I would not carry them out.
2 I would like to kill myself.
3 I would kill myself if I had the chance.
59. 0 I don't cry any more than usual.
1 I cry more now than I used to.
2 I cry all the time now.
3 I used to be able to cry, but now I can't cry even though I want to.

Hassles of Everyday Life

60. 0 I am no more irritated now than I ever am.
1 I get annoyed or irritated more easily than I used to.
2 I feel irritated all the time now.
3 I don't get irritated at all by the things that used to irritate me.
61. 0 I have not lost interest in other people.
1 I am less interested in other people than I used to be.
2 I have lost most of my interest in other people.
3 I have lost all of my interest in other people.
62. 0 I make decisions about as well as I ever could.
1 I put off making decisions more than I used to.
2 I have greater difficulty in making decisions than before.
3 I can't make decisions at all anymore.
63. 0 I don't feel I look any worse than I used to.
1 I am worried that I am looking old or unattractive.
2 I feel that there are permanent changes in my appearance that make me look unattractive.
3 I believe that I look ugly.
64. 0 I can work about as well as before.
1 It takes an extra effort to get started at doing something.
2 I have to push myself very hard to do anything.
3 I can't do any work at all.

Hassles of Everyday Life

65. 0 I can sleep as well as usual.
1 I don't sleep as well as I used to.
2 I wake up 1-2 hours earlier than usual and find it hard to get back to sleep.
3 I wake up several hours earlier than I used to and cannot get back to sleep.
66. 0 I don't get more tired than usual.
1 I get tired more easily than I used to.
2 I get tired from doing almost anything.
3 I am too tired to do anything.
67. 0 My appetite is no worse than usual.
1 My appetite is not as good as it used to be.
2 My appetite is much worse now.
3 I have no appetite at all anymore.
68. 0 I haven't lost much weight, if any, lately.
1 I have lost more than 5 pounds.
2 I have lost more than 10 pounds.
3 I have lost more than 15 pounds.
- I am purposely trying to lose weight by eating less.
Yes _____ No _____
69. 0 I am no more worried about my health than usual.
1 I am worried about physical problems such as aches and pains; or upset stomach; or constipation.
2 I am very worried about physical problems and it's hard to think of much else.
3 I am so worried about my physical problems that I cannot think about anything else.

Hassles of Everyday Life

70. 0 I have not noticed any recent change in my
interest in sex.
- 1 I am less interested in sex than I used to be.
- 2 I am much less interested in sex now.
- 3 I have lost interest in sex completely.

APPENDIX B

Written Manipulations of Instructional Set

Participants in each of the four conditions received different explanations of the purpose of the experiment, communicated in a short paragraph on the fifth page of the questionnaire:

"Depression" condition:

The purpose of this experiment is to study the extent of clinical depression experienced by university students. Please answer the questions on the pages that follow.

"Hassles" condition:

The purpose of this experiment is to study the hassles or problems experienced by all people in everyday life. Please answer the questions on the pages that follow.

"Honesty" condition:

The purpose of this experiment is to study students' responses to questionnaires. It has been found in research that sometimes students will overreport their experiences, while at other times they will underreport them. In answering the questions on the pages that follow, please be as honest as possible.

"Control" condition:

The purpose of this experiment is to collect data as part of an ongoing student survey. Please answer the questions on the pages that follow.

APPENDIX C

Instructions to Participants

VERBAL INTRODUCTION/EXPLANATION (approx. 5 mins)

"Good morning to you all. My name is Karen, and I'm a graduate student from the psychology department. The study I'm conducting today is for my masters thesis. Your instructor was kind enough to let me come into your class to ask for your participation.

Your participation is completely voluntary. As well it is anonymous and all information is kept strictly confidential - you sign a consent slip but this is kept separate from your questionnaire. You will receive one bonus point for participating. It only takes about 15 mins to fill out. Remember to respond quickly to the questions, and not to linger too long on any one question, since there are no right or wrong answers. As well, you may skip any question.

If you have a question, put up your hand and I will come to your seat to answer it - I would politely ask that you please refrain from talking to your neighbors, as this could compromise the validity of the study.

When you hand in the questionnaire, rip off the first page - give me the bottom half, and you keep the top half. After handing this in, I would ask that you please go back to your seat and wait until everyone is finished. There are a few things I need to say to wrap things up.

I thank you for your time today - people like myself depend a great deal on you folks to help with our studies - your participation is much appreciated."

APPENDIX D

Debriefing

VERBAL DEBRIEFING (approx. 3 minutes)

"Now that everyone is finished, I need to say a few things to wrap things up before I leave. I wanted to tell you more about the purpose of the study.

There were actually four different versions of the questionnaire completed today - each had different instructions and titles. All of you responded to the same list of questions.

So, why am I conducting such a study? Well, I wanted to see what would happen if I changed the titles and instructions in the questionnaire, - see how that would affect your responses. For instance, previous research has shown that changing one small thing in a questionnaire can affect one's responding to the questions. I am basically continuing this work.

Right now I can answer any questions that you may have - it is more likely they will come to you later after I leave! Thus, please feel free to call me @ 256-5098 - this number is listed on the page that you keep.

The results will not be ready for a while yet. However, in early September you can contact me by phone or department mail to request a copy of the results. Thanks once again for all your help today - it is much appreciated."

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VITA AUCTORIS

Karen Anne Marie Holowaty was born on September 23, 1971 in Brandon, Manitoba. She received her high school diploma from Miles Macdonell Collegiate (June, 1989) and her Bachelor of Arts degree from the University of Manitoba (May, 1993). Since September, 1993 she has been enrolled in the doctoral programme at the University of Windsor.