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Adult Sex-Role Self-Concept as a Function of Age & Marital Status

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Linda L.

1980

Adult Sex-Role Self-Concept as a
Function of Age and Marital Status

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology
Western Kentucky University
Bowling Green, Kentucky

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

by

Linda L. Rogers

January, 1980

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Adult Sex-Role Self-Concept as a
Function of Age and Marital Status

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ADULT SEX-ROLE SELF-CONCEPT
AS A FUNCTION OF AGE AND MARITAL STATUS

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Literature on adult sex-roles and androgyny, the stages of adult personality development, and the effect of marital status on personality and sex-roles was reviewed. Since no research had been reported previously using the Bem Sex Role Inventory to measure differences in adult sex-roles related to age and life-situation, the present study was undertaken. The Bem Sex Role Inventory was administered to 69 men and 137 women who were enrolled in upper level education and psychology courses at Western Kentucky University. The subjects were classified into three age groups and two life-situations related to marital status. The results provided no support for the hypothesis that differences in adult sex-role self-concept are related to differences in age and suggested that adult sex-role may tend to vary as a function of life-situations, such as marital status. Possible interpretations of the data were suggested, and directions for future research were proposed.

Adult Sex-Role Self-Concept
As a Function of Age and Marital Status

While developmental psychologists have focused on personality changes and development during infancy, childhood, adolescence, and old age, until recently the period of early and middle adulthood has been neglected. Within the past decade, however, professional attention has been increasingly directed to the middle years of the lifespan, roughly between college years and retirement. Although several major studies have attempted to describe the stages of adult development (e.g., Gould, 1972; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Lowenthal, Thurner, and Chiriboga, 1975; Sheehy, 1977; Vaillant & McArthur, 1972), the science of adult developmental psychology remains in its infancy. Theory and convictions abound, but empirical investigations to test the theory are lacking.

Another area which has recently received renewed attention concerns the personality variables associated with masculinity and femininity. Due in part to the impetus from the women's movement, psychologists within the recent past have re-examined traditional bipolar conceptions of masculine and feminine personality attributes and have accepted a dualistic model of sex-role self-concept which

includes the concept of psychological androgyny. There is a growing body of research investigating sex-role self-concept in relation to various personality variables. The vast majority of this research, however, has focused on the responses of college-age students, and the results cannot be easily generalized to older populations.

Studies which have attempted to investigate masculine and feminine personality traits in adults, in addition to using the traditional bipolar view of sex-roles, have used a variety of psychometric instruments, and results are thus difficult to interpret and compare. Research is needed to provide data on the sex-role self-concepts of adults of various ages.

Sex-role self-concept is viewed by some theorists as a developmental phenomenon which changes with age and stage of development. Others argue that one's sex-role changes in response to the demands of current life-situations and is not strictly a developmental process.

The purpose of the following study was two-fold: to provide data on adult sex-roles using a validated sex-role measure, and to assess the effects of age and life-situation on sex-role self-concept. In order to provide the context for this study, research and theory on sex-role development, stages of adult personality development, and the effect of marital status on personality and sex-roles will be reviewed.

Sex-Role Development and Androgyny

Several theorists have attempted to describe the differences in male and female sex-roles and the process of sex-role development. In any discussion of sexual differentiation it is important to clarify the term "sex-role." Angrist (1969) declared that the term "sex-role" has been used as an all-purpose label to refer to all the ways males and females are thought to differ, including positions men and women occupy in the division of labor, relationships between the sexes, and differences in behavior, personality, ability, and preferences. Clearly when one label refers to such diversified concepts, it becomes mandatory that each author clarify his or her understanding of the word.

Spence and Helmreich (1978) made a distinction between sex-role behavior and the properties or traits of the behaving organism. They focused on the latter, investigating masculinity and femininity as aspects of personality, which they described as "self-variables or inner characteristics of the individual" (Spence & Helmreich, 1978, p. 12). Bem (1974) described personality traits as well as corresponding behaviors when she referred to masculine, feminine, or androgynous self-concept. Sex-role behaviors and sex-related personality traits may be highly related and difficult to differentiate. "Sex-role," for the purpose of this discussion, will refer only to the personality variables associated with masculinity and femininity and will not include other connotations such as behaviors, abilities, or

preferences.

The essential differences in sex-roles for men and women have been outlined by Erikson (1950), Gutmann (1970), and Parsons and Bales (1955). Erikson emphasized the biological determinants of sex-related personality variables when he described outer versus inner space. Studying the play constructions of 10 to 12 year-old boys and girls, he found that girls tended to build interior scenes with people and animals in static positions. Enclosures with low walls and gates were common. Boys, in contrast, erected high buildings and towers, with elaborate walls often ornamented with protrusions such as cones and cylinders, and with automobiles and animals moving actively through the scenes. Erikson concluded from this study that the somatic design of the human body determines identity formation. For a woman the inner space of her body leads her to value enclosure, protection and receptivity. The design of the male's body similarly determines the man's emphasis on erectile, projectile and active motifs.

Parsons and Bales (1955) described fundamental differences between the sexes in terms of instrumental versus expressive roles. Men were deemed responsible for being the family's representative in the outside world and for acting in its behalf. They were thus expected to be high in instrumentality, i.e., to develop independence, self-reliance, and other skills necessary for dealing with external forces. Women were accorded responsibility for

ministering to the physical and emotional needs of family members and for maintaining harmonious interactions between them. In order to perform these tasks women were expected to be high in expressiveness, i.e., to develop nurturant, affiliative characteristics.

Gutmann (1970) described sex differences in ego styles, distinguishing between allocentric and autocentric. The autocentric ego state, believed to characterize women, gives the individual the experience of being a focus or center of communal events and ties. In this state ego boundaries are diffuse and unclear, and the world is seen primarily only as it relates to self. The allocentric ego style, associated with men, conveys to the individual that sources of organization, social bonds, and initiatives are extraneous to him. The ego boundary is clear, and the outside world is seen as clearly separate and distinct.

Whether focusing on inner versus outer space, instrumentality versus expressiveness, or allocentric versus autocentric ego styles, the preceding theorists viewed masculine and feminine personality traits as bipolar opposites. That is, it was assumed that the appearance of masculine characteristics essentially precluded the appearance of feminine ones, and vice versa. Femininity was thus equated with a lack of masculinity. For example, women were described as not only concerned with others, but also as dependent and non-competitive. Conversely, masculinity was equated with a lack of femininity. Men, for example, were

seen as not only independent and competitive, but also as insensitive and lacking concern for others.

Research confirmed the existence of corresponding pervasive sex-role stereotypes within the general population. In several studies where individuals were asked to identify socially desirable characteristics which distinguish between men and women, researchers reported similar findings. The ideal woman was typically described as emotional, sensitive, and concerned with others, while the ideal man was depicted as competitive, active, and independent (Bem, 1974; Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Jekin & Vroegh, 1969; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974).

Consistent with the above theories and the popular view, many psychometric scales designed to measure sex-roles were bipolar, with women's scores clustered around the feminine pole and men's scores toward the masculine pole. Constantinople (1973), in a landmark review of these scales, criticized both the bipolar conception of sex-roles and the scales themselves, concluding that they were inadequate to assess the personality traits of masculinity and femininity. She strongly criticized procedures for item selection, pointing out that the criteria governing inclusion of items had been their capacity to distinguish between men and women, and, in some cases, between homosexuals and heterosexuals. Sex-role behavior, sexual orientation, masculine and feminine personality traits, and

other gender-related phenomena had thus been seen as bipolar, unidimensional and strongly correlated (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

The current trend is away from a bipolar conception and towards a dualistic theory of sex-role, which regards masculinity and femininity as separate constructs which co-exist to some degree in every individual, male or female. Additionally, dualistic theories of sex-role development stress a balance or integration of the masculine and feminine elements of the personality. This concept is not a new one. Jung (1933) distinguished between the feminine archetype in man (the anima) and the masculine archetype in woman (the animus) and proposed that as a result of these archetypes, each sex manifests characteristics of the other. The later stages of adult life were seen by Jung as a period of potential integration of sex-roles, when men often become more feminine in personality and women become more masculine.

Bakan (1966) described coexisting male and female principles, which he labeled agency and communion. The sense of agency, associated with masculinity, reflects a sense of self and is manifested by self-assertion, self protection and self-expansion. Communion, associated with femininity, implies selflessness, a concern for others and a desire to be at one with other organisms. Like Jung, Bakan emphasized the potential for an integration of sex-roles, declaring that agency and communion must be balanced

if the individual or society is to survive. Either agency or communion, unchecked by the other, was seen as destructive.

Two more recently developed sex-role theories include those of Block (1973) and Hefner, Rebecca, and Oleshansky (1975). Within a dualistic framework, Block (1973) proposed a stage model of sex-role development over the life-span. Extrapolated from Loevinger's (1966) work on stages of ego development, this model included six stages in an individual's conceptions of sex-role. While the first four stages concerned sex-role acquisition in children, the last two stages went beyond childhood and adolescence and seemed to imply adult concerns: differentiation of sex-role, coping with conflicting masculine-feminine aspects of the self; and achievement of an individually defined sex-role, an integration of both masculine and feminine aspects of self, and an androgynous sex-role definition.

Hefner et al. (1975) similarly stressed integration of masculine and feminine elements in their model of "sex-role transcendence." The authors proposed three stages of sex-role development: "Undifferentiated," "Polarized," and "Sex Role Transcendence." Stage I ("Undifferentiated") referred to the period of time in which the child was unaware of culturally imposed restrictions on behavior. As the child moved through this stage, he or she begins to differentiate, learning that there were behaviors and attitudes deemed appropriate or inappropriate on the basis

of one's gender. In stage II ("Polarized") there was thought to be an active acceptance of conventional sex-roles and strict adherence to the feminine or masculine role. Many individuals, according to the authors, remained in this stage into adulthood and throughout their lives. Some adults, however, moved into stage III ("Sex Role Transcendence"). This involved a transcending of the stereotypes and the achievement of an orientation to life in which assigned gender was irrelevant and in which behavioral and emotional expression were not determined by culturally sanctioned sex-role norms. The individual in this stage was thought to exhibit flexibility over time, over situation, and over personal moods.

The ideal of transcending sex-role stereotypes and achieving a balance or integration of masculine and feminine characteristics has also been labeled androgyny. Bem (1977) defined psychological androgyny as having both masculine and feminine traits: "The concept of psychological androgyny implies that it is possible for an individual to be both assertive and compassionate, both instrumental and expressive, both masculine and feminine, depending upon the situational appropriateness of these various modalities" (Bem, 1977, p. 196). In addition to the presence of both clusters of attributes, androgyny implied a relative balance of sex-typed characteristics. Bem conceived of the androgynous person as adaptive, flexible and effective (Bem, 1974, 1975, 1976). Furthermore, the

outcome of an androgynous orientation was thought to be "a high degree of alternative options for attaining interpersonal reinforcement in situations requiring culturally sex-typed behaviors" (Worell, 1978, p. 779).

The trend in the literature toward a dualistic approach led to the development of multiscaled psychometric instruments designed to measure masculinity and femininity as independently varying, coexisting attributes within an individual. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) appears to have been used most extensively in the research. Other instruments developed included the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence et al., 1974) and the PRF Andro Scale (Berzins, Welling, & Wetter, 1978).

The BSRI differentiates sex-typed individuals from androgynous persons by means of a classification system which categorizes individuals as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated (Bem, 1974, 1977). Androgynous individuals have been thought to be more flexible and, hence, more mentally healthy than sex-typed individuals. The validity of this concept has been investigated in the literature, in which androgynous subjects have been compared to sex-typed individuals in relation to flexible interpersonal behavior, self-esteem, and freedom from obvious pathology. Support for the contention that androgynous individuals are more flexible and effective in interpersonal behavior has been provided by Bem in a series of validation studies (Bem, 1975; Bem & Lenny, 1976; Bem,

Martyna, and Watson, 1976). The relationship between androgyny and self-esteem has been investigated but is at present unclear. Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) found that individuals classified as androgynous on the PAQ were judged highest on a measure of self-esteem, followed in order by those classified as masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated. Jones, Chernovetz, & Hansson (1978) found conflicting results. Using the BSRI and a different measure of self-esteem, they found that both male and female subjects scored highest on self-esteem when classified as masculine.

Freedom from pathology in relation to sex-role classification has been studied by Biaggio & Nielson (1976), Heilbrun (1976), & Jones et al. (1978). In a recent review, Worell (1978) concluded that research findings in this area remain equivocal, especially with regard to androgynous males.

While the dualistic concept has stimulated research, and although many have found it a very attractive alternative to the bipolar view, some major criticisms of the current sex-role research were advanced by Worell (1978). She maintained that much of the research on sex-roles had not been based on theory. This was seen as particularly true when a variety of tests were administered; often little consideration was given to the proposed relationship between constructs being measured and any sex-role theory. The result, according to Worell, was a plethora

of miscellaneous studies and unrelated information.

A second major criticism involved sampling procedures. By far most sex-role research has been done with adolescents and young adults. Worell argued that restricting all sex-role research to college students leaves many unanswered questions about adult populations (Worell, 1978).

Research specifically designed to investigate sex-role development in adult populations is sparse and has not utilized the recently developed sex-role inventories. Richard, Livson, and Peterson (1962) studied the attributes of activity and passivity in well-adjusted middle class men, ages 55 to 84. Their subjects were found to manifest both activity and passivity with neither trait dominating. The authors concluded that this integration of masculine and feminine elements may have been a factor in their subjects' high level of adjustment. Since there was no control group, this conclusion may be inappropriate. In addition, because of the wide age span, the study revealed little about the traits of activity and passivity in adult males.

Neugarten and Gutmann (1968) found indications of the acceptability of a reversal or integration of sex-roles. Using the Thematic Apperception Test (Murray, 1943), they found that their subjects expected older men to be more receptive to affiliation and nurturance needs as they aged, while older women were expected to reveal more egocentric and aggressive impulses. Similarly, Jewett (1973),

investigating the personality traits of especially long-lived individuals, concluded that their longevity was related to the integration of masculine and feminine elements. He stated that these individuals revealed an ability to combine independence, interest in work, activity, and strength with adaptability, nurturance, family concerns and acceptance of emotion. This would seem to provide some support for Hefner's (1975) ideal of sex-role transcendence.

Monge (1975) studied self-concept in 4,450 male and female subjects between the ages of 9 and 89. One factor studied was labeled "Masculinity-Femininity" and included the self-descriptions "rugged, hard, strong, delicate, soft, weak" (Monge, 1975, p. 282). On this factor the greatest difference between males and females occurred in adolescence. Men's self-concept as extremely masculine declined fairly steadily after adolescence, while women moved away from femininity from adolescence until the mid-thirties, with the age curve remaining essentially unchanged into late adulthood. The male-female differences declined progressively to minimum but still significant differences in late adulthood.

Monge's (1975) findings are interesting in that they support Jung's and others' theories of an increasing integration of masculine and feminine elements across the life-span. However, the results of this study are difficult to interpret for a variety of reasons. First, no reliability or validity studies were presented in support of the

instrument used. It is not known exactly what this instrument measures. Secondly, the study was a cross-sectional one and as such was confounded by the effects of generation. The data therefore may suggest differences in self-concept among various age groups and generations but do not indicate a developmental progression across the ages. Furthermore, no information was given regarding other possible confounding variables, such as socio-economic class or educational level of the subjects.

The major difficulty in attempting to draw conclusions based on these studies of adult sex-roles involves the use of a variety of psychometric instruments. It is difficult to know if the various instruments used are measuring the same variable. Thus, there is at this time no sound empirical support for the contention that sex-role self-concept changes over the adult life-span, and future research in this area should make use of a validated sex-role measure to provide data on adult sex-roles.

Adult Personality Development

While theorists and some researchers have dealt directly with adult sex-role development, others have done so indirectly. Developmental psychologists studying the life-cycle do not often refer directly to sex-role self-concept. However, they certainly describe attitudes and behaviors at various stages and ages which imply a masculine, feminine, or androgynous personality orientation. The following is a brief description of stages of the adult

life-cycle as described by various theorists and researchers and an indication of the development of masculine and feminine sex-roles within each stage.

Young Adulthood, Early Years. Erikson's (1950) delineation of the eight stages of life-cycle development included three stages of adulthood. In the first adult stage individuals were depicted as concerned primarily with the issue of intimacy versus isolation and were thus seen as occupied with an urge to establish meaningful bonds with others. Havighurst (1973) also described relationship development as the primary task of young adulthood. He listed selection of a mate, learning to live with a marriage partner, establishing an occupation, and finding a congenial social group as the major concerns. White (1975) emphasized slightly different concerns for college students. During college years he believed personal growth to consist of stabilization of identity, freeing of personal relationships, deepening of interests, humanization of values and expansion of caring for others.

The major theorists thus seem to agree on the central themes of young adult life, emphasizing the importance of intimacy, commitment, mastery, and the stabilization of identity. Although both men and women may face the same developmental tasks at this period, there appear to be differences between the sexes in life satisfaction, since men report being under more stress than women and have been found to have lower levels of life satisfaction during

early adult years (Campbell, 1975).

A study done by Levinson et al. (1978) suggested a possible explanation for this. From interviews conducted with forty men, ages 35 to 45, Levinson concluded that men have two primary yet antithetical tasks during the decade of the twenties. First, the young man needs to explore the possibilities for adult living, i.e., to keep his options open, avoid strong commitments, and maximize the alternatives. Secondly, he has a conflicting need to create a stable life structure, to become more responsible and make commitments. Levinson suggested that these tasks are not easily balanced. The stress of attempting to achieve both may be the cause of men's relatively greater discomfort during the young adult period.

Levinson's conclusions on young adulthood must be viewed somewhat cautiously since they were based on retrospective interview data. The findings were confounded not only by the usual problems of interview data (e.g., socially desirable responding and effects of the interviewer), but also by the problem of selective memory. The men interviewed were asked to remember and describe their personalities, concerns and conflicts of at least ten years in the past. The degree of accuracy of their memories was clearly a confounding variable.

Women's level of stress during early adulthood may be lower than men's because they do not feel the stress of choosing a work role as strongly as men. Frieze, Parsons,

Johnson, Ruble, and Zellman (1978) have suggested that if a woman's socialization has emphasized marriage as the central adult role, work choices may be viewed as provisional, temporary, and subordinate to future family functions.

Lowenthal, Thurner, and Chiriboga's (1975) study supported this contention in that women in the 22 to 28 year-old age group were found to maintain a tentativeness in their choices. In addition, women have been found to retain a stronger dependency on others for support, approval and direction at this stage in life (Bernard, 1976; Mischel, 1970).

Based on these findings, it appears that for the majority of men and women in the early adult period sex-roles are polarized. The primary tasks of men are seen as exploring possibilities, establishing a career, finding a mate and setting up a household. Achievement of these goals seems clearly to require agentic, traditionally masculine traits. The majority of women, in contrast, are concerned with marriage, children, and establishing a household. They often seem to refrain from developing as autonomous individuals and remain more dependent and flexible than men. This implies an emphasis on communal, traditionally feminine personality traits.

Young Adulthood, Later Years. Researchers agree that around the age of thirty most men and women enter a major transition point in the life-cycle (Gould, 1972; Levinson et al., 1978; Sheehy, 1977). By this time adult life has

assumed a familiar form, and life is now viewed as providing fewer rewards and higher demands than had been anticipated. As people begin to feel bound by the structure of their lives, freedom may assume a new value (Frieze et al., 1978).

For women, growth during the early thirties often means a shift from dependence to independence, from passivity to activity, from compliance to assertion (Bernard, 1975). Many return to school and/or the work force at this time (Neugarten, 1968). Sheehy (1977) pointed out changes for women in the decade of the thirties which are related to children and childbirth: age 35 is the age when the average mother sends her last child to school, and at age 35 to 40 a woman glimpses the end of her child-bearing years and decisions must be made on whether or not to have a first child, or to have another.

Levinson et al. (1978) reported that for men the "age thirty transition" often involves a change in life structure, as the provisional quality of the twenties ends and life becomes more serious. Readjustment for men in this period may involve new career choices or a reaffirmation of the old ones. Later in the thirties a man "settles down" and invests himself in the major components of his life (work, family, friendships, leisure, community). This appears to be a more stable time. The phase from about age 36 to 40 was described as "BOOM: Becoming One's Own Man" (Levinson et al., 1978, p. 55). Successful men become

independent of mentors at this time and direct their own future development (Vaillant & McArthur, 1972). Attaining seniority and some measure of success in his profession may be important as signs that one is becoming "a man," receiving new rewards and assuming new responsibilities.

Based on the available research, it appears that sex-role self-concept during the thirties may remain much the same for men and may begin to change for women. Most men, after a period of questioning and reassessing, seem to involve themselves even further in their careers and traditionally masculine behaviors and interests, thus maintaining the agentic traits of activity, independence, and competitiveness. Sex-roles for men would then appear to remain stereotyped. Women, on the other hand, are seen as moving rapidly away from their polarized, traditional sex-roles. Returning to school or work and becoming more involved in self-interest and self-determination imply a decrease in traditionally feminine personality traits and a corresponding increase in the more masculine ones.

Middle Adulthood. The decade of the forties has been seen by most theorists as a time of productivity and achievement. Erikson (1950) discussed the central concern of middle age as generativity versus stagnation, with generativity's involving the establishment and nurturance of the next generation and "...the direction of one's creativity and energy in a way that produces a lasting accomplishment, a legacy." (Stevens-Long, 1979, p. 245).

Havighurst (1973) listed the developmental tasks of middle age as achievement of adult social responsibility and the establishment and maintenance of a standard of living. He further described the specific tasks of this period as the development of appropriate leisure time activities, learning to relate to one's spouse as a person, accepting the demands of physiological change, assisting children in becoming responsible adults and adjusting to aging parents.

Many researchers and theorists have described a major transition point in the life-cycle at about age 44 to 47 (e.g., Gould, 1972; Levinson et al., 1978; Sheehy, 1977; Vaillant & McArthur, 1972). Levinson labeled this the midlife transition; Sheehy referred to it as the midlife crisis. Brim (1976) noted the frequent description in literature of a crisis transitional point for men in the decade of the forties. One author described the experience in these terms:

The hormone levels are dropping, the head is balding, the sexual vigor is diminishing, the stress is unending, the children are leaving, the parents are dying, the job horizons are narrowing, the friends are having their first heart attacks; the past floats by in a fog of hopes not realized, opportunities not grasped, women not bedded, potentials not fulfilled, and the future is a confrontation with one's own mortality (Lear, 1973, p. 28).

The crisis seems to consist of (1) becoming aware of age-related changes in appearance and health and thus confronting the prospect of one's own death; (2) reevaluating one's life and achievements, becoming aware of discrepancies

between aspirations and actual accomplishments; and (3) integrating the masculine and feminine elements of the personality.

Levinson's (1978) subjects described the ages of 44 to 47 as a time of moderate to severe crisis, in which they tended to question nearly every aspect of their lives. They were described as increasing the feminine aspects of their personalities. This included changing their relationships with their mothers and the character of love relationships with peer women, increasing their interest in becoming mentors, reducing heavy involvement in the external world, and/or increasing time spent in introspection (Levinson et al., 1978).

Although these data were based on a rather small population ($n=40$), the men were reporting their present experiences, and the results were thus less biased by selective memory. The problems inherent in interview data, of course, remained.

A second study supporting the existence of a mid-life crisis for men, the Harvard Grant Study by Vaillant and McArthur (1972), presented data from a forty-year longitudinal follow-up on 268 graduates of Harvard University. These subjects admitted to much more overt depression in their forties than in young adulthood. They also reported feeling disenchanted and going through periods of painful self-appraisal.

Gould (1972) studied both normal and psychiatric

populations from age 16 through 60 with the use of observation and a questionnaire. He found that men and women ages 37-43 reported less personal comfort, a feeling of instability, and an increase in introspection and existential questioning. Gould's was a cross-sectional study, and it is therefore unclear to what extent the findings can be attributed to the developmental process or to the effects of generation.

The existence of a transition point in the decade of the forties has thus been supported by three major studies involving both longitudinal and cross-sectional data. While the underlying conflicts for men have been well delineated by both theorists and researchers, the conflicts facing women at this life stage are not as clear. Lowenthal et al. (1975) found in their cross-sectional study that middle-aged women reported greater absent-mindedness and unhappiness than any other group studied. These women were also found to be more likely than other age or sex groups to report an increase in marital problems and subjective feelings of stress.

The "empty nest" has been seen by some as the cause of this apparent discomfort. Chesler (1972) stated that many middle-aged women, finding their children to be independent (or nearly so), have much unstructured time and few sources of rewarding activity. She further believed that the feeling of being useless, barren, and unneeded may trigger a depression, sometimes requiring therapeutic

intervention. Lowenthal et al. (1975) disagreed. They stated that women in their sample were not distressed by the pending departure of their last child. In fact, in this study levels of life satisfaction and self-esteem were much higher among older women in this study whose children were no longer in the home. The middle-aged women frequently mentioned their husband's unhappiness as a cause of distress, suggesting that perhaps women who undergo a period of distress in the forties may be primarily reacting to their husbands' discomfort.

The latter half of middle adulthood, roughly including the ages from 48 to 60, has been seen by some as a comfortable period of mellowing. Neugarten (1968) described individuals in this age group as comfortable with themselves and confident in their ability to deal easily and competently with life events. She noted a shift to introspection and increased contemplation, and the majority of the 100 middle class subjects in her study were content with their age status. Very few expressed a desire to be young again.

During this age period behavior changes have been noted in both men and women which may correspond to a reversal or integration of sex-roles. Women between ages 45 and 60 have been found to become increasingly involved in outside activities, while men's activity sphere often becomes more limited (Lowenthal et al., 1975). Women have also been found to play a more dominant role in the marriage during

this age span. Neugarten (1968) found that both husbands and wives frequently consider the wife to be the dominant partner.

In summary, it appears that sex-role self-concept begins to reverse for both sexes during this middle adult period. Men seem to be turning away from activity, assertion, and competitiveness, and show more interest in passive introspection, in the welfare of others, and in the quality of relationships with others. There may therefore be a decrease in traditionally masculine personality traits and an increase in the feminine. Women, in contrast, may continue to experience a decrease in their interest in family and children and an increase in their involvement in outside interests. Women may thus be hypothesized to continue to show an increase in masculine personality traits and a decrease or stabilization in the feminine elements.

Effect of Marital Status on Sex-Roles

Changes in sex-role self-concept throughout the lifespan have thus been suggested by the research on adult development. Some researchers, however, have questioned whether these changes are primarily due to developmental processes or to adaptation to changing life-situations. Abrahams, Feldman, and Nash (1978) investigated sex-role self-concept in adult men and women ages 24-32. The authors believed that it would be possible to identify discrete life-situations which would require more or less stereotypically masculine or feminine behaviors.

Furthermore, they assumed that differences in behaviors would be reflected in differences in self-descriptions of relevant personality characteristics. Thus, they hypothesized that sex-role, as measured by the BSRI, would vary predictably among men and women in four life situations (cohabiting, married, expectant, and parents).

It was predicted that cohabiting couples would rate themselves high on masculine characteristics, since these individuals have been described as valuing individual achievement over intimacy and mutual commitment. Married couples, conversely, were seen by the investigators as valuing their relationship and giving up a certain amount of independence in exchange for intimacy and companionship. It was predicted that these individuals, both male and female, would emphasize traditionally feminine characteristics. Abrahams et al. (1978) further predicted that expectant couples would emphasize strongly both masculine and feminine characteristics, as a result of valuing both the relationship and their own autonomy. Finally, new parents were expected to assume very traditional roles, with men emphasizing masculine characteristics and women the feminine ones.

Abrahams et al. (1978) found that Masculinity and Femininity scores on the BSRI followed the predicted pattern across the four life-situations, and the authors concluded that sex-role self-concept is affected by the behaviors required in various life-situations, particularly those

involving marriage and children.

Since marital status has thus been shown to affect sex-roles in young adults, similarly it may be assumed to affect sex-roles in an older adult population. In particular, the experience of marital separation and divorce would seem to have a profound effect on sex-role self-concept since self-reports of married and divorced subjects have revealed significant differences in life-style and personality attributes (Brown, Feldberg, Fox, & Kohen, 1976; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1976; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978). Brown et al. (1976) studied thirty divorced mothers, ranging in age from 24 to 45. Results of their interviews revealed that the most pressing problem of the divorced mothers involved the lack of sufficient energy and time to cope with child care, work, and household responsibilities. Closely related was the reported feeling of being totally responsible for the physical, social, and psychological care of children. Two-thirds of the respondents mentioned this increased responsibility as a major concern. Benefits arising from the marital separation were described as freedom from restrictive domestic routines revolving around a husband's needs and schedules, the chance to mold a parent-child relationship without interference, and an increased feeling of personal autonomy and sense of competence (Brown et al., 1976).

Reactions and coping skills of divorced fathers, particularly those who chose to maintain close contact with

their children, were examined in a 1978 study done by Keshet and Rosenthal. A total of 128 divorced men having children under the age of 7 participated in a structured interview and responded to a questionnaire. Out of this sample ten men were selected for intensive study. Without exception all subjects described the period immediately following the divorce as one of severe stress. Feelings of depression, anger, guilt, loneliness, anxiety, and severe and frequent mood changes were reported. The major problem for these fathers involved setting up child-care schedules and organizing work and recreation to allow time to be spent with their children (Keshet and Rosenthal, 1978).

Hetherington et al. (1976) conducted a two-year longitudinal study of 48 divorced parents and their pre-school children and a matched group of 48 intact families. Observation, interview, self-report, rating scales, and standardized test measures were used at two months, one year, and two years following divorce. Variables investigated included activity levels of both parents; social interaction; intimacy; stress; practical, economic, and interpersonal problems encountered; parent-child relations; and changes in self-concept.

Results of the study done by Hetherington et al. (1976) indicated that immediately following divorce the family system was in a state of disequilibrium. Disorganization and disrupted functioning seemed to peak at about one year after the divorce, and the family began to

stabilize by two years following the divorce. Divorced subjects one year after the divorce reported significantly higher levels of economic distress, lower levels of happiness and social interaction, and a decline in feelings of competence. At the two-year stage responses reflected an increase in happiness, self-esteem, and competence. Divorced parents who had not remarried at the end of two years following divorce reported more continuing distress than parents in intact families, but the distress had greatly diminished from the previous year.

Investigating self-concept, the authors concluded that there were greater initial changes for men, while the effects were longer lasting for women. In addition, feelings of loss, anxiety and depression were greatest in men who were older or who had been married longer. Weiss' (1974) contention that divorced individuals experience initial feelings of euphoria was also supported by this study. At two months following the divorce about one-third of the men reported an "ebullient sense of freedom" which alternated with and was replaced at one year by depression, anxiety, or apathy (Hetherington et al., 1976).

The available research on divorce has indicated differences in the behaviors and attitudes of divorced men and women which may be reflected in differences in sex-roles. Behaviors required of divorced women, as described by Brown et al. (1976) and Hetherington et al. (1976), include assuming financial and emotional responsibility for a

household. In addition, divorced women have reported increased feelings of competence and autonomy. These findings imply that divorced women may have a more masculine, agentic orientation than married women.

Divorced men, while they may become more involved with their children and domestic chores than married men, have been found to remain primarily concerned with career and interests outside the family (Hetherington et al., 1976; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978). This suggests that divorced men may maintain their rather masculine sex-role.

In summary, theorists have proposed that there are predictable sex-role changes over the life-span. While this contention has been indirectly supported by studies of adult personality development (Gould, 1972; Levinson et al., 1978; Lowenthal et al., 1975; Sheehy, 1977; Vaillant & McArthur, 1972), little research has been designed specifically to measure differences in adult sex-roles. Investigations which have been attempted have failed to control for important variables such as socio-economic class or level of education and have not used an accepted sex-role measure. Recent related research on sex-roles has included the development of psychometric instruments such as the BSRI (Bem, 1974), the PAQ (Spence et al., 1974), and the PRF Andro Scale (Berzins et al., 1978). These instruments, while used widely in studies of adolescents and young adults, have not been employed to investigate sex-roles in older adult subjects. What seems clearly needed is a

preliminary study which makes use of a validated sex-role measure to investigate differences in the sex-role self-concepts of adults of various ages.

Furthermore, if differences in adult sex-roles are found among various age groups, the question arises as to whether these differences are attributable to age/generation or to life-situation. Since Abrahams et al. (1978) have indicated that life-situations related to marital status significantly affect sex-roles in young adults, it would be expected that these variables would also significantly affect sex-roles in an older adult population.

The intent of the present study was to provide data on adult sex-roles by investigating the effects of age and life-situation on sex-role self-concept as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). Subjects were classified into three age groups (ages 25-32, 33-38, and 39-60) and two life-situations (married for one year or more and divorced for one year or more).

It was anticipated that age and life-situation would significantly affect sex-role self-concept. Specifically, it was predicted that (1) men would score higher on the Masculinity scale of the BSRI and lower on the Femininity scale than women, (2) divorced subjects would reveal higher Masculinity scores and lower Femininity scores than married subjects, (3) Masculinity scores for men would be lower in the oldest age group than in the two younger age groups, while Masculinity scores for women would be higher in the

older two age groups than in the youngest, (4) Femininity scores for men would be higher in the oldest age group than in the two younger groups, while Femininity scores for women would be lower in the two older age groups than in the youngest one, (5) Masculinity scores for married men would be the same as those for divorced men, while women's Masculinity scores would be higher in the divorced group than in the married group, (6) Femininity scores for men would similarly remain the same across situations, while women's Femininity scores would be lower among those divorced, (7) for men, a significantly larger proportion of subjects would be classified as Androgynous in the oldest age group, while in the other two age groups men would show a larger proportion of subjects classified as Masculine sex-typed, (8) for women, a significantly larger proportion of subjects would be classified as Androgynous in the oldest two age groups, while the youngest age group would show a larger proportion of subjects classified as Feminine sex-typed.

Method

Subjects. The subjects included 69 males and 137 females enrolled at Western Kentucky University during the summer and fall sessions, 1979. The students were enrolled in upper level education and psychology courses on campus and at extended campus locations. Subjects participated voluntarily and were classified into three age groups (25-32; 33-38; 39-60) and two life-situations (married for one year or more; divorced for one year or more). Among the 206 subjects there were 163 married individuals and 43 divorced. In the 25-32 year-old age group there were 113 individuals, in the 33-38 group there were 48, and 45 subjects were between the ages of 39 and 60.

Instrumentation. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) (Appendix B) was used to assess sex-role self-concept. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) consists of a list of sixty personality characteristics. It contains a Masculinity scale and a Femininity scale, each of which consists of twenty personality characteristics selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability, and twenty neutral characteristics which are filler items. Subjects were asked to rate themselves on a scale of one (never or almost never true) to seven (always or almost always true)

(Bem, 1974).

On the basis of these responses each subject received two scores, a Masculinity raw score and a Femininity raw score, each of which may range from 20 to 140. Raw scores were used in data analysis as suggested by Bem (1977) and Kelly, Furman, and Young (1978). Further analysis was done using the scoring system developed by Spence et al. (1975) and adopted by Bem (1977), in which raw scores are converted to mean self-ratings and each subject classified as Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, or Undifferentiated.

The BSRI has been shown to be internally consistent, with a test-retest reliability of .93 and an alpha reliability of .86. The instrument has been found to be uncorrelated with socially desirable responding, $r = -.06$ (Bem, 1974).

Procedure. The BSRI was administered to each class as a group, and instructions were read to them (Appendix A). Students were asked to read the instructions on the cover sheet and to complete the inventory (Appendix B). Any individual who had previously taken the inventory was eliminated from the study.

Following administration of the inventory, the participants completed a demographic information form (Appendix C), and the experimenter presented a description of the study to the class.

The study was identified as research for a master's thesis, and subjects were assured of their anonymity.

Subjects were also provided with a mailing address to which they could send requests for results of the project.

Results

The effect of three independent variables on sex-role self-concept was investigated in a 2 (sex) x 2 (situation) x 3 (age) factorial analysis of variance design within a general linear model. Life-situation was defined as married for one year or more, or divorced for one year or more. The age variable consisted of three groups, ages 25-32, 33-38, and 39-60 years. Sex-role self-concept was defined by two measures, the Masculinity and Femininity raw scores of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1974).

The results of the analyses of variance are summarized in Tables 1 and 2. As hypothesized, sex was found significantly to affect Masculinity scores ($F=12.98$, $p=.0004$), with women scoring higher than men on Femininity and men scoring higher than women on Masculinity (mean scores are presented in Appendix D).

Although the effects of two other variables approached significance, none of the other main effects or interactions was found to be significant. Age, as predicted, was not a significant factor affecting sex-role self-concept. It was predicted, however, that age would interact significantly with sex in affecting Masculinity and Femininity scores, and this hypothesis was not supported. It

Table 1
 Analysis of Variance of Sex, Age, and Situation for
 Masculinity Scores on the BSRI

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
Sex	1	2358.57	12.98	.0004
Age	2	58.55	0.16	.85
Sex x Age	2	594.95	1.64	.20
Situation	1	564.80	3.11	.08
Sex x Situation	1	643.07	3.54	.06
Age x Situation	2	383.90	1.06	.35
Sex x Age x Situation	2	146.74	.40	.67

Table 2
 Analysis of Variance of Sex, Age, and Situation for
 Femininity Scores on the BSRI

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
Sex	1	1525.27	12.87	.0004
Age	2	148.52	0.63	.54
Sex x Age	2	454.83	1.92	.15
Situation	1	0.06	0.00	.98
Sex x Situation	1	34.59	.29	.59
Age x Situation	2	189.90	.80	.45
Sex x Age x Situation	2	485.31	2.05	.13

is interesting to note that the differences in mean Masculinity scores followed the predicted pattern, as shown in Figure 1.

Contrary to the hypotheses, life-situation was not found significantly to affect Masculinity or Femininity scores. However, the effect of life-situation on Masculinity scores approached significance ($F=3.11$, $p=.08$), with divorced subjects tending to score higher on Masculinity than married subjects, as predicted.

Life-situation was not found to interact significantly with sex in affecting Masculinity or Femininity scores, contrary to expectations. The effect of this interaction on Masculinity scores, however, did approach significance ($F=3.54$, $p=.06$), and the interaction followed the predicted pattern, as shown in Figure 2.

Raw Masculinity and Femininity scores were converted to mean self-ratings as proposed by Bem (1974), and each subject's score was classified according to the median split method (Bem, 1977; Spence et al., 1975). The median Masculinity score obtained for this sample was 5.0, while the median Femininity score was found to be 5.1. The percentages and numbers of men and women classified as Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, and Undifferentiated are depicted in Tables 3 and 4.

A chi-square analysis was performed to compare the distribution of frequency of subjects in each classification according to age and sex. This analysis revealed

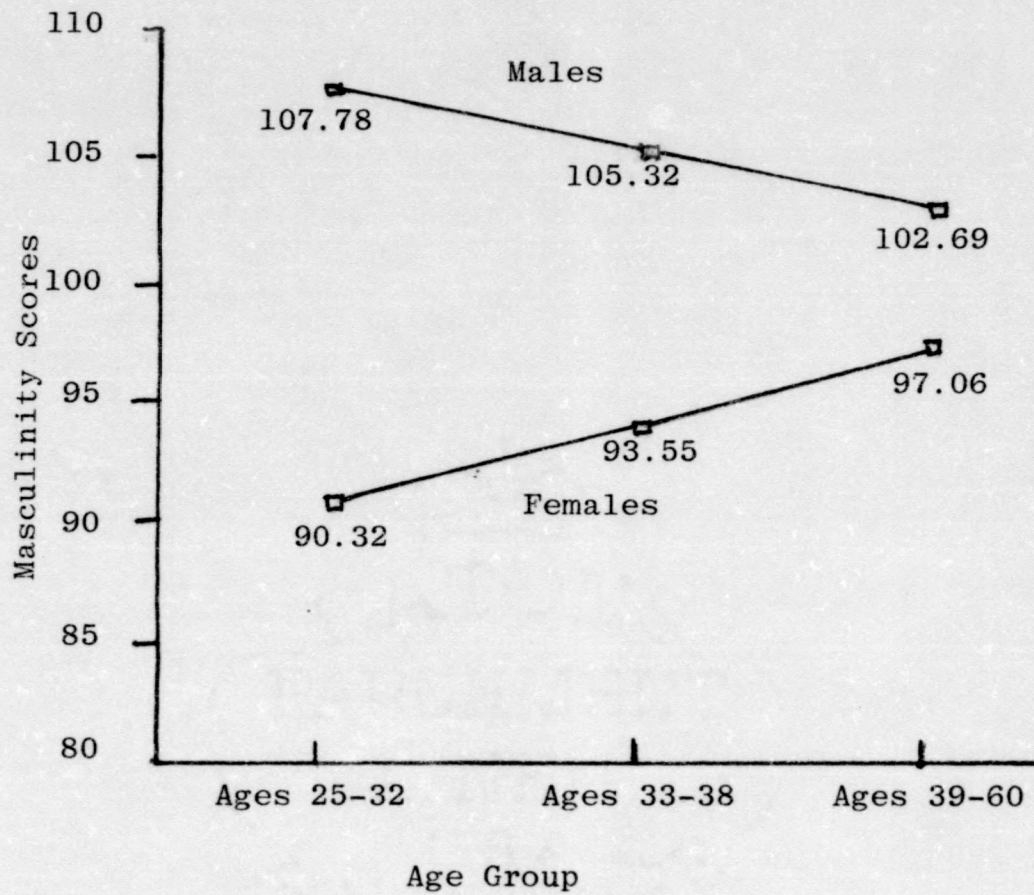


Figure 1. The pattern of mean Masculinity scores on the BSRI for males and females in three age groups.

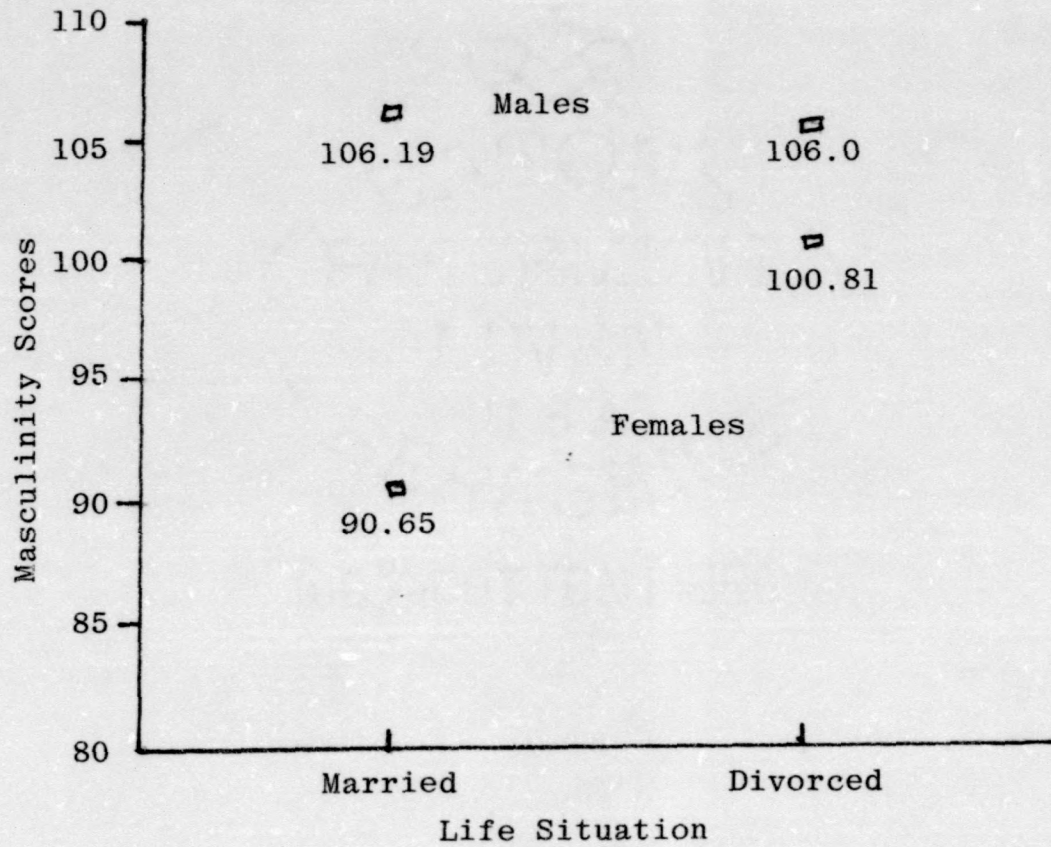


Figure 2. The pattern of mean Masculinity scores on the BSRI for males and females in two life-situations.

Table 3
 Percentages and Numbers of Men in Three Age Groups
 Classified as Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous and
 Undifferentiated on the BSRI

Age	Masculine	Feminine	Andro.	Undiff.
25-32	31.9% <u>n=22</u>	0% <u>n=0</u>	14.5% <u>n=10</u>	7.2% <u>n=5</u>
33-38	11.6% <u>n=8</u>	5.8% <u>n=4</u>	4.4% <u>n=3</u>	5.8% <u>n=4</u>
39-60	13.0% <u>n=9</u>	2.9% <u>n=2</u>	1.4% <u>n=1</u>	1.4% <u>n=1</u>

Table 4
 Percentages and Numbers of Men in Three Age Groups
 Classified as Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous and
 Undifferentiated on the BSRI

Age	Masculine	Feminine	Andro.	Undiff.
23-32	2.9% <u>n=4</u>	24.1% <u>n=33</u>	13.1% <u>n=18</u>	15.3% <u>n=21</u>
33-38	3.6% <u>n=5</u>	6.6% <u>n=9</u>	5.8% <u>n=8</u>	5.1% <u>n=7</u>
39-60	2.9% <u>n=4</u>	7.3% <u>n=10</u>	8.8% <u>n=12</u>	4.4% <u>n=6</u>

no significant difference among the age groups in the proportion of men in each of the four classifications ($\chi^2(4)=11.40$, $p < .10$). Similarly, the analysis indicated no significant differences among the age groups in the proportion of women in the four classifications ($\chi^2(4)=7.31$, $p < .40$).

Discussion

The results of this study did not support the hypothesis that adult sex-role self-concept, as measured by the BSRI, varies significantly among men and women of differing ages, and, thus, suggested that age may not be a significant factor affecting adult sex-roles. It had been anticipated that age-related stages of adult development as described by theorists (Erikson, 1950; Havinghurst, 1973) and researchers (Gould, 1972; Levinson et al., 1978; Lowenthal et al., 1975; Sheehy, 1977; & Vaillant & McArthur, 1972) would be reflected in differences in the Masculinity and Femininity personality factors measured by the BSRI. The lack of support for this prediction may indicate that, contrary to adult developmental theory, adults do not experience specific age-related stages of growth. The available research data, although generally supportive of the theories, are not conclusive. Therefore, an interpretation of the data from the present study must include the possibility that personality variables in adulthood do not differ as a function of age, but rather remain relatively constant. Personality differences among adults may occur as a function of other factors not related to age, or it may be that they are attributable solely to individual differences.

Alternative explanations for the lack of age-related findings involve questions about the instrument's use in measuring sex-role self-concept. Masculine and feminine personality variables that are thought to differ among adults of various ages may not be adequately measured by the BSRI. Theories of sex-role development and integration, such as those of Bakan (1966), Block (1973), Hefner et al. (1975), and Jung (1933), as well as theories of adult personality development, do not clearly specify which constructs are thought to vary with age. Thus, it may be that the theories are correct, but that the BSRI does not measure the appropriate variables. Kaplan (1979) has suggested that there is a discrepancy between the theoretical and empirical definitions of androgyny: although the dualistic conception of sex-role emphasizes behavior, the BSRI and other sex-role measures investigate personality variables. It may be that differences in adult sex-roles related to more integrated androgynous behavior are not reflected in differences in Masculinity and Femininity scores on the BSRI.

Furthermore, it is not certain at this time that the BSRI is appropriate for use with a general adult population. Investigations of socially desirable response sets, as well as reliability and validity studies on the BSRI, have utilized younger adult, college subjects. Older adult subjects may be less naive and may easily discern the purpose of the instrument, or they may be more or less

susceptible to socially desirable responding than younger adults. In addition, the perception of what constitutes socially desirable characteristics may differ for older adults. The BSRI has been found to be easily faked (Fisher, 1979), and it may be that adult subjects are more likely, intentionally or unintentionally, to bias their self-descriptions by responding either positively or negatively to the perceived values of the experimenter.

Alternatively, the age divisions used in the present study, although based on theory, may have been inappropriate. The decision to classify subjects into the three specific age groups was based on the available theory and research. Since few data are available on age-related adult development, particularly for females, the age divisions chosen may have been inappropriate and may have masked age-related sex-role differences which were present.

Limitations of the sample may have affected the findings, since the subjects included only adult college students in the fields of education and psychology. Adults of different educational levels, working in different fields, and not involved in an academic setting may have responded much differently. Men's scores may have been particularly affected by their fields of study, since it would seem to be socially desirable for men in education and psychology to exhibit more stereotypically feminine characteristics, such as compassion and warmth.

Other limitations include geographic region and socio-cultural influences. Research on adult development has generally involved subjects from areas other than the mid-south. Levinson's subjects, for example, were from an Eastern urban area; Gould's were Western urban; the subjects participating in the present study were drawn from a rural area of western Kentucky, and could be assumed to differ in their values and attitudes from individuals in other areas. Furthermore, there may have been other subject-variables such as those related to parenting, work experience, or socio-economic class, which were not controlled for and which affected the results.

Given the findings of this study, life-situation appears to be a better predictor of adult sex-role self-concept as measured by the BSRI. While the main effect of situation on Masculinity scores and the interaction of sex by situation on Masculinity scores were not significant, both approached significance. This finding suggests that life-situation may be a more promising variable to investigate in relation to sex-role changes. Since age does not appear to be a significant factor affecting adult sex-roles, other factors not highly related to age may be more important than age. This would be consistent with the findings of Abrahams et al. (1978), who concluded that sex-role self-concept is not age-related, but rather changes in response to the demands of current life-situations.

While Abrahams et al. (1978) found that life situations affected both Masculinity and Femininity scores, in the present study life situation tended to affect Masculinity scores but not Femininity scores. It could be that for women the marital status of divorce affects the traits associated with masculinity more strongly than those associated with femininity. This would be consistent with other research, since the literature on divorced women describes them as generally self-reliant and autonomous (Brown et al., 1976; Hetherington et al., 1976).

Alternatively, the lack of significance effects of any variable (other than sex) on Femininity scores may suggest problems with the instrument. Gross, Batlis, Small, and Erdwins (1979), who recently reported a factor analysis study of the BSRI, indicated that the Masculinity scale includes both a masculine factor related to dominance and another factor apparently related to maturity or competence. The Femininity scale, however, was found to have seven inappropriate items; two loaded negatively on the femininity factor, two loaded on the masculinity factor, and three were unrelated to any factor found. Based on these findings, it appears that the Femininity scale may not clearly include the expressive, communal qualities that it was designed to measure, and this may explain the lack of significant or nearly significant effects on Femininity scores in the present study.

The lack of significant results may also have been due to methodological limitations, since the problems of unbalanced data and small sample size were thought to limit the data analysis of the present investigation. Had the study involved balanced data, a simple analysis of variance could have been employed as opposed to the general linear model, and the power of the analysis could have been increased by obtaining a greater number of subjects. In addition, the factors mentioned previously, such as educational level, socio-economic class, field of study and cultural background of the subjects, limited the generalizability of the study and may have been confounding factors.

Future researchers should focus on the effects of various life-situations on adult sex-roles, since life-situation appears to be more directly related to adult sex-role self-concept than age/generation. It may be that different situation variables are more critical than the one investigated. Life-situations related to careers or parenting, for example, may be more relevant than marital status. An analysis using data from the present study revealed that the presence of children in the home had a significant effect on Femininity scores ($F=4.21$, $p=.04$). Thus, factors related to parenting appear to be important and should be investigated.

In addition, a further analysis of the BSRI is needed before this instrument is utilized extensively in adult sex-role research. Researchers need to determine if the

BSRI may be used effectively with general adult populations by further studying the issues of reliability, socially desirable responding, and response set simulation as they relate to adult subjects. The findings of Gross et al. (1979) indicate that a thorough analysis of the Femininity scale would also be an important step in the research process.

In summary, the results of the present study did not support theories of age-related differences in adult sex-role self-concept. Possible explanations for these findings include errors in the theory itself, problems inherent in the instrument used, and methodological limitations of the present investigation. Adult sex-roles may vary as a function of other factors not highly related to age such as marital status and other life-situations. Future sex-role research should focus on the effects of various life-situations, particularly those related to children and parenting.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Oral Instructions

I am conducting research for a master's thesis in Psychology, and would like for you to take a short personality test which can be completed in about twenty minutes. Briefly, what I am interested in is personality traits in adults, and I am not looking at individual responses, but rather at the averages. Your name will not be attached to the test and all test materials will be kept completely confidential.

Please do not put your name on the inventory so that you may remain anonymous. Read the first page of instructions and see if you have any questions. If you have taken this before, please do not do so again.

Do not leave any items blank and try to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Now turn to the test itself and complete it. After you have finished, please complete the brief questionnaire on the last page.

If you would like to receive a copy of the results of the study, send a note including your name and address to Linda Rogers, in care of the Psychology Department, Western Kentucky University.

Appendix B

The Bem Sex Role Inventory

Instructions:

On another page you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like for you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale of 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Example: sly

Mark a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly

Mark a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 4 if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 5 if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 7 if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly," never or almost never true that you are "malicious," always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible," and often true that you are "care-free," then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3	Irresponsible	7
Malicious	1	Carefree	5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE	USUALLY NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE	OCCASION- ALLY TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	USUALLY TRUE	ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE

Self reliant	
Yielding	
Helpful	
Defends own beliefs	
Cheerful	
Moody	
Independent	
Shy	
Conscientious	
Athletic	
Affectionate	
Theatrical	
Assertive	
Flatterable	
Happy	
Strong Personality	
Loyal	
Unpredictable	
Forceful	
Feminine	

Reliable	
Analytical	
Sympathetic	
Jealous	
Has Leadership abilities	
Sensitive to the needs of others	
Truthful	
Willing to take risks	
Understanding	
Secretive	
Makes decisions easily	
Compassionate	
Sincere	
Self-sufficient	
Eager to Soothe hurt feelings	
Conceited	
Dominant	
Soft-spoken	
Likable	
Masculine	

Warm	
Solemn	
Willing to Take a Stand	
Tender	
Friendly	
Aggressive	
Gullible	
Inefficient	
Acts as a leader	
Childlike	
Adaptable	
Individualistic	
Does not use harsh language	
Unsystematic	
Competitive	
Loves children	
Tactful	
Ambitious	
Gentle	
Conventional	

Appendix C
Personal Information

Age: _____

Sex: _____

Academic degree you are currently pursuing: _____

Occupation: _____

Marital Status (Check one);

_____ Never married

_____ Married less
than one year

_____ Married one year or more

_____ Divorced less
than one year

_____ Divorced one year or more

_____ Remarried

_____ Widowed

Number of children: _____

Ages of children: _____

Do the children live with you? _____

Comments:

Appendix D
 Mean Masculinity and Femininity
 Scores on the BSRI for Men and
 Women in Three Age Groups and
 Two Life-Situations

	Men		Women	
	Masculinity	Femininity	Masculinity	Femininity
Total Sample	106.14	95.32	92.58	103.38
Age 25-32	107.78	95.02	90.32	104.13
Age 33-38	105.32	94.26	93.55	102.83
Age 39-60	102.69	97.69	97.06	102.93
Married	106.19	95.40	90.65	103.61
Divorced	106.00	95.06	100.81	102.38