

**A COMPARISON OF SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION,
LOCUS OF CONTROL ORIENTATION,
AND TWO OCCUPATIONAL VARIABLES**

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An Abstract
Presented to the
Graduate and Research Council of
Austin Peay State University

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

by
Nina Novich Smith

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to investigate three relationships: (a) the relationship between sex-role orientation as determined by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and locus of control orientation as determined by Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale; (b) the relationship between sex-role orientation and participants' anticipated mean salary ten years in the future; and (c) the relationship between sex-role classification (masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated) and the traditionality of anticipated future occupation. One hundred forty-three students ages 18-26 served as subjects. All persons were volunteers from undergraduate psychology courses. Subjects were administered three instruments: (a) a questionnaire to gather information about age, sex, and anticipated occupation and income ten years in the future; (b) the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI); and (c) Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. Twenty-eight subjects were eliminated from the results and analyses because they either exceeded the age limit or provided incomplete data. Valid questionnaires were scored and employment percentages were obtained from the U.S. Department of Labor. A multiple regression analysis and two chi-square analyses were performed. No significant relationships were found between sex-role orientation and locus

of control orientation, sex-role orientation and anticipated future mean income, sex-role orientation and age, or sex-role orientation and sex of subject. Also, no significant differences were found between sex-role classification and locus of control classification, or between sex-role classification and traditionality of anticipated occupation. These findings are equivocal in light of the contradictory findings reported in the literature.

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August, 1985

To the Graduate and Research Council:

I am submitting herewith a Thesis written by Nina Novich Smith entitled "A Comparison of Sex-Role Orientation, Locus of Control Orientation, and Two Occupational Variables." I have examined the final copy of this paper for form and content, and I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in Psychology.


Major Professor


Second Committee Member


Third Committee Member

Accepted for the
Graduate and Research Council:


Dean of the Graduate School

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The current literature on sex-role orientation suggests that a new concept is needed to indicate the possession of both masculine and feminine traits within the same individual. Bem (1975) has developed the psychological construct of "androgyny" to indicate this integration of both masculine and feminine characteristics in one individual of either sex. It is this androgynous orientation that is becoming associated with optimum mental health and the one toward which persons are being encouraged to strive (Bem & Lenney, 1976). However, for a concept that is being placed as the ideal sex-role orientation, relatively few well designed studies have been conducted to investigate the differences and similarities between personality characteristics of the androgynous individuals and the same characteristics of sex-typed individuals. Furthermore, many studies have methodological and conceptual problems that make the validity of their results questionable and the collection of a concise knowledge base problematic. This study will examine the relationship between sex-role orientation and locus of control orientation. It will also examine the relationship between sex-role orientation and the traditionality of anticipated future occupation and income. Sex-role orientation also

will be correlated with sex and age of subject.

The Concept of Psychological Androgyny

In an age where much emphasis is placed on the equality of men and women, it has become important for individuals to scrutinize their views on sex-role orientation. Human beings often appear to have a penchant for looking at the world and at life in terms of opposites. People are conceptualized as good and bad, young and old, big and little. The world is separated into light and darkness, birth and death, rational and irrational. Constantinople (1973) has pointed out that masculinity and femininity have also been viewed in terms of opposites. She states that masculinity and femininity are frequently treated as if they were two extreme points on a single continuum, with the majority of men falling at one end and the majority of women falling at the other end.

Placing masculinity and femininity at opposite poles has encouraged a dichotomous view of male characteristics and female characteristics, as well as promoting different socialization norms for the two groups. Behaviors which are said to be characteristic of females have been called "expressive behaviors" by Parsons and Bales (1955). Women are seen as nurturant, caring, intuitive, emotional, sensitive, and dependent. They are encouraged to become wives, mothers and caretakers. Bakan (1966) referred to the behaviors which are encouraged in females as "communal." Men, in contrast

to women, are associated with "instrumental behaviors" (Parsons & Bales, 1955) or "agentic" qualities (Bakan, 1966), such as independence, self-assertiveness, competitiveness and a success-orientation.

In Western society sex-role orientation has been related to reported child-rearing practices of parents for both sexes (Kelly & Worrell, 1976), and dichotomous sex-role norms have translated into different socialization strategies for boys and girls. This can be illustrated by three examples: (a) female infants are talked to more and looked at more than male infants of the same age; (b) after the first year of life, boys are strongly encouraged to wander from their mothers and girls are not given the same degree of encouragement; and (c) male infants are encouraged to play more aggressively than female infants of the same age (Lewis, 1972). Furthermore, the socialization process differentially affects the personality development of males and females. For males, socialization seems to enhance more flexible and androgynous sex-role definitions because certain positive aspects of the feminine role (e.g., conscientiousness, interdependency) are emphasized, while some negative aspects traditionally associated with the masculine role are de-emphasized (e.g. opportunism, self-centeredness). For females, however, the socialization process emphasizes the traditional feminine aspects (e.g., conservativeness, submission) while renouncing self-assertiveness, independence and achievement

orientation, all of which are traditionally associated with the masculine role. Thus, the socialization process discourages stereotypical masculine characteristics in females and narrows sex-role definitions and behavioral alternatives for females, whereas for men the socialization process enlarges the sex-role definitions and behavioral alternatives (Block, 1973).

Constantinople (1973) argues that these differential behaviors and socialization strategies have no theoretical justification for the underlying assumption of a masculine-feminine bipolar continuum. She feels that "both theoretically and empirically [the terms masculinity and femininity seem] to be among the muddiest concepts in the psychological vocabulary" (p.390). She contends that masculinity and femininity should be conceptualized as separate dimensions with varying degrees in both men and women.

Bem (1975) also agrees with this contention and further suggests that a concept is needed to indicate the possession of characteristics of both sexes. This new conceptualization would be important in de-emphasizing high levels of sex stereotyping which have been shown to be detrimental to the personal well-being of men and women. It has been found that high femininity in females is correlated with a high amount of anxiety (Constantinople & Heilbrun, 1964; Gall, 1969; Gayton, Havu, Baird & Ozman, 1983), low self-esteem (Bem, 1975b; Hinrichsen, Follansbee & Ganellen, 1981) and low

self-acceptance (Bem, 1975b). Also, through the use of a battery of intercorrelated paper-and-pencil tests, Harford, Willis, and Deabler (1967) found that high masculinity is correlated with high anxiety, emotional dissatisfaction, toughness, aloofness, proneness to guilt and neurotic tendencies.

The separate dimension to which Constantinople is referring and the one which would help eliminate some of these detrimental effects of sex stereotyping is the psychological construct of "androgyny," which was developed by Bem in 1975. This term refers to the "relative equal development and flexible integration of both the traditionally labeled masculine and the traditionally labeled feminine characteristics in one individual of either sex" (Olds, 1981, p. xii). It has been proposed that in order for persons to become fully functioning human beings they should be "encouraged to be both instrumental and expressive, both assertive and yielding, both masculine and feminine depending upon the situational appropriateness of these various behaviors" (Bem, 1975, p. 634). Block (1973) writes that "both a redefinition of conventional sex-role and revamping of socialization practices are required if our societal goal is to encourage individuation and personal maturity for our young. If our aim can become, both collectively and individually, the integration of agency and communion, the behavioral and experimental options for men and women alike will be broadened and enriched and we

all can become more truly whole, more truly human" (p. 526).

According to Bem (1975b), the androgynous individual is slowly becoming the ideal sex-role model for optimum mental health. It is believed that by encouraging persons to be androgynous, they will be "more flexible in meeting new situations and will be less restricted in what they can do and how they express themselves" (p. 49).

The Earliest Studies--Background

The earliest studies on sex-role orientation and androgyny were conducted by Bem (1975) to investigate the validity of the proposition that androgynous individuals are better adjusted than sex-typed individuals and that a non-androgynous sex-role may limit the range of behaviors available to a person at any particular time. Prior to the main experiments, the assumptions that independence from social pressure and kitten playing, physical interaction with a kitten, are representative of stereotypical masculine and feminine behaviors were validated using twenty-three male and nineteen female undergraduates. Following this validation, the actual experiment was performed. Nine masculine, nine androgynous, and nine feminine undergraduate psychology students of each sex were placed individually in sound proof booths and asked to rate a series of cartoons for funniness. Before rating each cartoon, the subject would hear what they believed to be three other students rate the cartoon. In reality they

were hearing a preprogrammed tape. In order to encourage conformity, this tape had a number of trials in which all three voices gave incorrect responses (e.g., all would agree that a funny cartoon was not funny). Two orthogonal comparisons were tested: (a) that masculine and androgynous subjects would both conform on fewer trials than feminine subjects; and (b) that masculine and androgynous subjects would not differ from one another in the amount of conformity. The results confirmed these predictions and indicated that masculine and androgynous individuals, regardless of sex, "remain independent from social pressure on significantly more trials than do feminine subjects" (Bem, 1975, p. 639).

A second experiment was conducted by Bem (1975) to test the hypothesis that feminine and androgynous subjects would perform better at a task which was rated stereotypically feminine than would masculine subjects. In this case feminine and androgynous subjects would be more likely to be playful or nurturant. Thirty-three male and thirty-three female undergraduate subjects participated; one-third of each group was masculine, one-third was feminine, and one-third was androgynous. All subjects were given a preliminary task to standardize their mood. A kitten in a closed playpen was brought in and subjects were instructed to interact with it for five minutes. Following this time all subjects were given a game of skill to play for five

minutes and then the kitten was returned. Subjects were instructed to do anything they wished. During the periods of forced and spontaneous play with the kitten, the subjects' behaviors were time sampled. A method of planned comparisons was used and two orthogonal comparisons were tested: (a) that feminine and androgynous individuals would display greater involvement with the kitten than masculine subjects; and (b) that feminine and androgynous subjects would not differ from each other in terms of their overall involvement with the kitten. However, contrary to the predicted outcome, feminine and androgynous females did not show significantly greater overall involvement than did masculine females. In actuality feminine females demonstrated significantly less overall involvement than androgynous females. It should be noted that Bem, Martyna and Watson (1976) were able to clarify this unpredictable finding that feminine females were low in nurturance toward a kitten by demonstrating that the low nurturance of the feminine females did not extend into interactions with humans.

In 1976 Bem and Lenney conducted one further study in order to investigate in depth the earlier finding that sex-typed individuals fail to exhibit high levels of "cross-sex" behavior. Specifically, the investigators wanted to show evidence for the hypothesis that cross-sex behavior is "motivationally problematic for sex-typed individuals and that they actually avoid it as a result"

(p. 48). Seventy-two subjects were asked to select one activity, from each of thirty pairs of activities, that they preferred to act out while being photographed. Each activity had a small payment placed on it, however, the less sex-typed activities always paid better. Results showed that males were more likely to pick the higher paying activity when no sex-role conflict was indicated, but males became less likely than females to pick the higher paying activity when sex-role conflict was evident. The results also indicated a significant effect of sex-role where sex-typed individuals were more stereotyped than androgynous or sex-reversed individuals. Overall, the sex-typed subjects preferred activities that were sex-appropriate.

All of these early studies lend support to the idea that stereotypical sex-typing restricts an individual's functioning in many situations, especially in the expressive or instrumental domains. It would appear that only the androgynous individual is capable of being "both independent and nurturant, both instrumental and expressive, both masculine and feminine depending on the appropriateness of the situation" (Bem, Martyna & Watson, 1976, p. 1822).

In contrast to Bem's proposal that the androgynous individual is psychologically healthier than the sex-typed individual, Jones, Chernovetz and Hansson (1978) point out that there is reason to question this conclusion. They state that many of the studies do not directly address the

issue of psychological health and, therefore, conclusions are based only on indirect data. Also, a number of Bem's earlier studies do not differentiate the person who scores below the median cut-off on both the masculinity and femininity scales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) from the person who scores above the median on both of these scales (undifferentiated vs. androgynous). In a study of five areas of psychological functioning, these authors suggest that optimal mental adjustment may be associated with masculinity rather than androgyny as put forth by Bem. Masculine males were described as being more confident and competent than other males and masculine females were described as more adaptive, secure and competent than other females. However, this study used the subtractive "t ratio" procedure which fails to distinguish between undifferentiated and androgynous subjects, thus making the results equivocal.

A second study that is inconsistent with findings that the androgynous individual is psychologically better adjusted than the sex-typed individual and a study which is consistent with Jones' et al. (1978) suggestion that masculinity might be most adaptive was conducted by Heilbrun (1963). Although not directly attempting to examine the issue in question because it preceded a definition of the construct androgyny, Heilbrun studied college adjustment for males and females and found that when comparing academic

achievers to academic nonachievers, male achievers demonstrated significantly more masculine attributes than male nonachievers. Heilbrun suggests that for males greater masculinity is related to better college adjustment, and that the more feminine females may experience greater difficulties than the less feminine females.

Other researchers also have found evidence for questioning Bem's idea that androgyny is the optimum sex-role. Rotheram and Weiner (1983) found that androgyny is related to increased work stress, but simultaneously related to personal satisfaction. Falbo (1977), upon obtaining peers' evaluations of androgynous, masculine, and feminine persons, found that androgynous and masculine individuals, regardless of gender, were viewed equally positive, and that feminine individuals were viewed least positively. These findings are questionable because undifferentiated and androgynous individuals were classified together.

Androgyny and Locus of Control

A minimal amount of research has been conducted specifically to examine the relationship between androgyny and locus of control, and those studies that directly have addressed the issue have produced ambiguous and contradictory results. Bem (1977), in her experiments to determine if there was a need to distinguish between high-high scorers on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) and low-low scorers on the BSRI, had ninety-five male and seventy-four female

undergraduates take the BSRI and Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. By using a one-way analysis of variance, she found that no significant differences in locus of control existed between the high-high scorers and the low-low scorers for either sex. However, she did not attempt to examine and analyze differences between the locus of control scores of masculine subjects and locus of control scores of androgynous subjects of either sex, nor did she investigate the differences in locus of control scores of feminine subjects and locus of control scores of androgynous subjects of either sex.

Lee and Scheurer (1983) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between locus of control and androgyny. Since it has been argued that the psychologically androgynous person "has developed a set of self-perceptions related to successful adaptations" (p. 291), these experimenters hypothesized that the androgynous individual's superior adaptability would be demonstrated in a "coping style characterized by high self-monitoring, internal locus of control and positive expectations for achievement and affiliation success" (p. 289). Two hundred thirty-six college students completed the BSRI and seven self-report measures. Using an analysis of variance, with subjects all categorized into sex-role classifications, and multiple regression analyses of the BSRI femininity and masculinity scale scores on all seven self-report measures, results

indicated that masculinity in either sex was the predominate variable related to self-monitoring and locus of control.

In contrast to Lee and Scheurer's (1983) finding that masculinity regardless of gender is associated with internal locus of control, Brehony and Geller (1981) obtained different results. One hundred forty undergraduate students served as subjects and were administered the BSRI and the Personal Opinion Survey. Through the use of multivariate analysis of variance, it was determined that androgynous females were more internal in terms of their locus of control orientation than stereotypic females on six out of seven factors from the Personal Opinion Survey. Subjects' scores on the Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control scale also were obtained and analyzed. The only reliable effect noted was that males scored more internal than females. No effect for the BSRI category was found.

There have been a few studies comparing androgyny and self-esteem whose results are worth noting since self-esteem and locus of control are correlated. Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975), Bem, Martyna, and Watson (1976), and Hinrichsen, Follansbee, and Ganellen (1981) have found that subjects, regardless of gender, who were classified as androgynous were highest in self-esteem, and those low in both masculinity and femininity and undifferentiated individuals were lowest in self-esteem. In addition, Hinrichsen et al. (1981) found that androgynous subjects

manifested the most uniform "positive self-concept and better psychological adjustment in general" than the other three sex-role groups (p. 590). Also, Bem (1977) while investigating the utility of differentiating between high-high BSRI scorers and low-low BSRI scorers found that feminine and undifferentiated subjects were significantly lower in self-esteem than were masculine and androgynous subjects. The only finding which was inconsistent with these was reported by Bornmann (1981). She found no relationship between self-esteem and androgyny, however, she posited that this was due to the homogeneity of her sample.

Androgyny and Occupation

A number of studies have investigated the relationships between sex-role identity and different variables associated with occupation and achievement. Segal (1981) looked at whether women in successful, yet nontraditional, occupations score androgynous on the BSRI and whether these women hold an androgynous self-concept. The sample consisted of forty successful professional women in Los Angeles who held non-traditional jobs. All subjects were given the BSRI. Those respondents who scored highest in each of three categories, androgynous, feminine and masculine, were interviewed. Segal found that 70% of the forty subjects scored in the masculine range on the BSRI and those respondents who were interviewed did hold an androgynous self-image.

Another study by Reeder (1980) tested the hypothesis that persons who are sex-typed have occupational expectations which are more sex-typed than persons who are androgynous, and that sex-typed individuals perceive a more restricted range of occupations as appropriate for themselves than do androgynous persons. Three hundred forty-nine students served as subjects for this research. The BSRI was used to measure sex-role self-concept. Occupational expectation referred to the respondent's sex-type orientation. These occupational expectations were coded as percentages of women involved in that occupation using the 1976 Current Population Survey. Results indicated four findings: (a) sex-typed persons have more sex-typed occupational expectations than do androgynous persons; (b) males have a larger number of occupational options but their choices are restricted to sex-typed occupations, while females have a smaller number of occupational options but display a tendency to select occupations which are nontraditional; (c) masculinity in females, as opposed to femininity, androgyny, and undifferentiation in females, is related to greater male-typed expectations which may be an indication that masculine females will be found generally occupying higher levels in the working world than women who fall into the other three categories; and (d) masculine and feminine males both chose significantly more male-typed expectations than did males who were androgynous or undifferentiated.

In 1979 a different study was designed to explore characteristics of women who hold nontraditional jobs (Moulliet). Seventy-seven women employed in nontraditional managerial positions and seventy-nine women employed in traditional clerical positions served as participants. All were given a questionnaire consisting of the Jobs Perception Scale, Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Scale, the PRF ANDRO Scale, and the Self-Esteem Questionnaire. Chi-square and analysis of variance were used to analyze the differences and similarities which existed between the two occupational groups. Results indicated that the women who occupied nontraditional managerial positions reported greater levels of career commitment and self-esteem than the women in clerical positions. Also, these women were significantly more likely to be classified as masculine on the PRF ANDRO Scale, while the women in the traditional occupations were more likely to be classified as feminine.

Lastly, Gereg-Bradley (1982) was interested in determining if certain correlates suggested by the literature, one of which was BSRI score, showed any relationship to the selection of nontraditional occupations by high school seniors. Career choices were labeled nontraditional for males if they had less than 50% males employed and were labeled nontraditional for females if they had less than 50% females employed. Eighty female high school seniors and fifty-four male high school seniors were used as

subjects. Results indicated that no relationship was found for the degree of androgyny in males and nontraditional career choices, but the correlation did show a significant relationship to nontraditional career choices for female seniors.

The Problem Under Investigation

In today's world it seems very important that individuals not lose sight of both the masculinity and femininity that lies within them. Androgyny, although far from a new concept, has re-emerged and become the sex-role orientation toward which one should strive according to Bem and Lenney (1976). It is becoming the sex-role model associated with optimum mental health (Bem & Lenney, 1976). However, for a concept that is being placed as an ideal, relatively little systematic research has been conducted on the differences and relationships between the balanced, integrated, and healthy androgynous person and the sex-typed person labeled typically feminine or typically masculine. In view of the current findings, many questions are left unanswered concerning the benefits and problems of falling into one sex-role class over another. Inasmuch as the utility of striving toward an androgynous sex-role orientation is a complex and controversial issue, the present study was designed to further investigate two specific relationships. First, it attempted to discover if a relationship exists between sex-role orientation and locus of control orientation.

Locus of control has been defined as one's belief in his or her own ability to control reinforcements. Consequently, internals believe that they are responsible for the rewards and reinforcements that they are given, and externals believe that rewards or reinforcements are due to fate, luck, chance or people with whom they come in contact (Rotter, 1966). It is presumed that those persons who are internals are better adjusted, and if they are, may be more likely than externals to fall into an androgynous sex-role classification. However, in view of the contradictory findings reported throughout the literature, in this study a null hypothesis was tested. Specifically, it was hypothesized that no difference exists between the androgynous individual's locus of control classification and the sex-typed individual's locus of control classification. It was also hypothesized that no relationship exists between sex-role orientation and locus of control orientation.

The second relationship that was examined was one between an individual's sex-role orientation and two occupational variables: (a) the traditionality of an individual's anticipated occupation; and (b) an individual's anticipated salary level ten years in the future. Holloway (1978) found that internals had a tendency to achieve higher grades than externals and have a slightly greater expectation level for future success. Martin and Light (1984) found that as the desire for higher education increased in college

students, so did the number of students classified as masculine. This study hypothesized that no difference would be found between the number of traditional or non-traditional occupations selected by androgynous individuals and the number of traditional or non-traditional occupations selected by nonandrogynous individuals. It was hypothesized also that androgynous and masculine individuals do not differ significantly in what they anticipate their mean income to be ten years in the future from what feminine and undifferentiated individuals anticipated their mean income to be ten years in the future.

CHAPTER 2

Method

Subjects

One hundred forty-three undergraduate psychology students served as participants in this study. Their mean age was 20.76 years, and all subjects included in the analyses were between 18 and 26 years of age. Twenty-eight of the 143 subjects either exceeded the age limit or produced incomplete data and were eliminated from the data analyses and results. Seventy participants were volunteers who received credit for their participation and 73 participants were volunteers who did not receive extra credit for their participation.

Materials

Information relating to age of subject, sex of subject, subjects' anticipated future occupation, and subjects' anticipated mean income ten years in the future was collected using a questionnaire devised by the experimenter. All subjects provided their student numbers for identification purposes.

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) was administered to all subjects in order to gather sex-role orientation scores and sex-role orientation classifications. The BSRI contains sixty personality characteristics which fall into three

categories: (a) stereotypically masculine (e.g., self-reliant, independent, assertive); (b) stereotypically feminine (e.g., affectionate, gentle, understanding); and (c) filler (e.g., truthful, conceited, happy). Subjects are asked to indicate on a seven-point scale, where 1 is "never or almost never true" and 7 is "always or almost always true," the degree to which each descriptor is characteristic of them.

As reported in the BSRI test manual, internal consistency alpha coefficients range from .75 to .87 and test-retest correlation coefficients range from .76 to .94. No other validity or reliability data were found in the test manual or literature.

The Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale was also administered to all subjects in order to gather locus of control scores. This scale contains twenty-nine items where six are fillers. The subjects select from a pair of alternative statements the one alternative statement which they feel to be truer for them personally. Although the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale is widely used in research, no validity or reliability data were reported in the test manual or the literature.

Procedure

Subjects were tested in their psychology class or in a classroom-type setting on their own time. No more than 32 students were tested at one time.

Subjects were required to read and sign an informed consent statement prior to completing the questionnaires. Following the signing of the consent forms, subjects were administered the demographic sheet, BSRI and Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale in that order. All subjects received standardized instructions for completing each questionnaire. Following the completion of each testing session, valid questionnaires were scored.

Using the BSRI raw feminine and masculine scores, subjects were assigned to one of four sex-role categories on the basis of a median split, as recommended by Bem (1978). Persons scoring below the median cut-off on both the femininity and masculinity scores were classified as undifferentiated; persons scoring above the median cut-off on both the femininity and masculinity scores were classified as androgynous; persons scoring above the median cut-off on the femininity score and below the median cut-off on the masculinity score were classified as feminine; and persons scoring above the median cut-off on the masculinity score and below the median cut-off on the femininity score were classified as masculine. Classifications were made first for females and males separately in order to discount any significant sex difference. After eliminating the possibility that a sex-related difference existed between the males and females, classifications were made for females and males combined. All classifications were determined using the

median raw scores of Bem's normative sample (see Appendix A). It is noteworthy that only two individuals were reclassified when males and females were combined.

Locus of control scores were determined using Rotter's answer key (Lefcourt, 1976). A subject's score could range from zero to 23, where the larger scores indicated increasing externality.

Subjects' anticipated future occupation was classified as traditional or nontraditional. This determination was made in two steps: (a) the experimenter classified each occupation according to her own judgment on stereotypical classifications; and (b) those occupations that were not clearly predominated by one sex or the other were double-checked against the U.S. Department of Labor's current employment percentages. All occupations with less than 50% female employment were classified as nontraditional for females. All occupations selected by male subjects were traditional occupations as defined by 50% or greater male employment (see Table 1). Subjects who did not complete all the required information or those who were older than 26 years of age were dropped from the analyses.

CHAPTER 3

Results

The data were analyzed by computer utilizing the multiple regression technique and chi-square analyses. No significant relationship was found between age and BSRI score for females alone ($r = -.134$, $p > .05$), males alone ($r = -.188$, $p > .05$), or females and males together ($r = -.126$, $p > .05$). No significant relationship was found between locus of control scores and BSRI scores for females separately ($r = -.021$, $p > .05$), males separately ($r = .175$, $p > .05$), or females and males combined ($r = .015$, $p > .05$). Also, no significant relationship was found between BSRI scores and mean anticipated future income for females alone ($r = 0.272$, $p > .05$), males alone ($r = -.102$, $p > .05$), or females and males combined ($r = -.287$, $p > .05$).

In addition to analyzing the data by multiple regression technique, a 4 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed to determine if significant differences existed between traditionality of anticipated occupation and BSRI classification as determined by the median split cut-off procedure. This analysis could only be performed on the female participants' choice of occupation because all male participants anticipated working in traditional occupations. Upon performing the chi-square analysis for females, no differences were

found between traditionality of anticipated occupation and BSRI classification, $\chi^2(3, N = 74) = 3.2, p > .05$. Also, since utilizing BSRI scores, instead of BSRI classifications, makes it impossible to distinguish between those individuals who score above the median cut-off on both the masculinity and the femininity scores and those who score below the median cut-off on both the masculinity and femininity scores, a chi-square analysis was conducted using BSRI classifications and locus of control classifications. As indicated by the multiple regression analysis, no significant differences were found, $\chi^2(3, N = 115) = 2.47, p > .05$.

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationships between sex-role orientation and locus of control orientation and sex-role orientation and mean anticipated salary. It also investigated the differences between sex-role classification and locus of control classification, and sex-role classification and traditionality of anticipated occupation. The results of this study indicate that no significant relationships or differences are found between any of these variables.

In this study it was hypothesized that no relationship exists between sex-role orientation and locus of control orientation, and that no differences exist between sex-role classification (androgynous, masculine, feminine and undifferentiated) and locus of control classification (internal and external). These null hypotheses could not be rejected. These findings are consistent with those reported by Bem (1977). In 1977 she conducted a study to determine if undifferentiated individuals' locus of control orientations differed from androgynous individuals' locus of control orientations. She found no differences in locus of control orientation between the two groups. However, the present research was more extensive than Bem's study and looked at

differences between androgynous individuals' locus of control orientations and sex-typed individuals' locus of control orientations.

Lee and Scheurer (1983) found that masculinity in both sexes was related to an internal locus of control orientation whereas, in contrast, Brehony and Geller (1981) found that androgynous females were more internal than females of the other sex-role groups. The findings in the present study are incongruent with this previous research. Through the use of Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, Brehony and Geller (1981) also found that males were reliably more internal than females. However, the present study found no such sex-related differences in locus of control orientation.

When examining the relationship between locus of control orientation and sex-role, too few systematic studies have been conducted to put forth even tentative reasons why the studies produce such conflicting results. Additional research using a number of locus of control scales and a greater diversity of subjects (e.g., senior citizens, as well as college students) is essential if some of these discrepancies are to be understood.

The present study also looked at sex-role orientation and its relationship to traditionality of occupation and anticipated mean income. It was hypothesized that no

differences would be found for the number of traditional/nontraditional occupations selected by individuals in each of the sex-role groups. Upon analysis a sex-related difference was found where all the male subjects selected traditional occupations. This finding is congruent with Reeder's (1980) results that males have a larger number of occupational options than do females, but their choices are more restricted to sex-typed occupations. It also concurs with prior results that found no relationship between the degree of androgyny in males and non-traditional career choice (Gereg-Bradley, 1981). Upon analysis to investigate if differences exist between different sex-role groups and traditionality of anticipated occupation for females, no differences were found. This is inconsistent with a number of previous studies. Gereg-Bradley (1982) found a significant relationship between androgyny level and nontraditional career choice in female high school seniors. Moulliet (1979) found that women in traditional occupations were more likely than those in nontraditional occupations to be classified as feminine. However, this discrepancy might be due partially to the differences between anticipating what occupation a person will hold ten years in the future and what occupation that individual actually occupies at that point in his/her life.

Lastly, Reeder (1980), when examining the relationship between sex-type and occupational expectation, found that masculinity in females, in contrast to femininity, androgyny or undifferentiation in females, is associated with greater male-typed expectations. However, no such relationship was seen in this study; the four female sex-role groups did not differ in their occupational expectations for the future.

No previous studies have been conducted which specifically address the relationship between individuals' sex-role orientation and their anticipated mean income. In view of the conflicting information exhibited in the literature, the implications of the results found in this study are unclear. Our society is experiencing new pressure to conform to an androgynous orientation, and as a result, the need for further research in this area is essential. Investigations of the following factors would assist mental health professionals and laypersons to better understand the relationships in question:

1. the relationship between sex-role orientation and locus of control orientation in persons of all ages;
2. the comparison of young, nonworking individuals' anticipated mean income and the same individuals' actual mean income at that time in the future; and
3. the comparison of married and single individuals' sex-role orientation and their corresponding locus of control orientation.

It would also be advisable that future research be conducted using volunteers who all receive course credit. Although the experimenter believes subjects' answered in an honest and objective fashion, there exists a possibility that some students did not answer in a serious manner.

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TABLES

Table 1

Traditional and Nontraditional Occupations for Male and Female Subjects

Male		Female	
Traditional	Nontraditional	Traditional	Nontraditional
Army Officer		Elementary School Teacher	Accountant
Coach		Fashion Consultant	Army Officer
Certified Public Accountant		Housewife	Business Executive
Engineer		Kindergarten Teacher	Computer Programmer
Computer Programmer		Mother	Corporate Executive
Corporate Executive		Nurse	Industrial Supervisor
Engineer		Secretary	Lawyer
Financial Analyst		Surgical Nurse	Marketing Supervisor
Financial Consultant		Social Worker	Media Consultant
Hospital Administrator			Medical Doctor/ Researcher
Land Surveyor			Optometrist
Lawyer			Psychologist
Medical Doctor			Radiologist
Minister			
Oral Surgeon			
Pharmacist			
Radiologist			

APPENDIX A

RAW-SCORE MEDIANS FOR THE FEMININITY
AND MASCULINITY SCORES ON THE BSRI

These are the median raw scores of the 1978 normative sample of the Stanford University students presented by Bem in the BSRI Professional Manual.

	Sexes Combined	Females (n=340)	Males (n=476)
Femininity	4.90	5.10	4.60
Masculinity	4.95	4.80	5.10

APPENDIX B

Demographic Questionnaire

PLEASE COMPLETE THESE QUESTIONS IN THEIR ENTIRETY.

Student Number _____

Age _____

Sex: Male Female (please circle)

What occupation do you anticipate you will be working in ten years from now (please include housewife, househusband, etc. if this applies)?

What do you anticipate your salary range will be ten years from now?

0 (none)	_____
\$1 - \$9,999	_____
\$10,000-\$19,999	_____
\$20,000-\$29,999	_____
\$30,000-\$39,999	_____
\$40,000-\$49,999	_____
\$50,000-\$59,999	_____
\$60,000-\$69,999	_____
\$70,000-\$79,999	_____
\$80,000-\$89,999	_____
\$90,000-\$99,999	_____
over \$100,000	_____