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Androgyny and Its Relationship to Time Competence and Inner-Directedness in a College Sample

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Androgyny and Its Relationship to Time Competence
and Inner-directedness in a College Sample

(TITLE)

BY

Margaret A. Padula

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
Master of Arts

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1976

YEAR

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS THESIS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING
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ANDROGYNY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO TIME COMPETENCE
AND INNER-DIRECTEDNESS IN A COLLEGE SAMPLE

BY

MARGARET A. PADULA

B.S. in Ed., Eastern Illinois University, 1971

ABSTRACT OF A THESIS

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for the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology at the Graduate School
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Abstract

It has been shown that there is a tendency to ascribe different stereotyped sex-roles to men and women (Breecher, 1969; Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Chafetz, 1974; Bem, 1974) and that these sex-roles were previously thought to be the ideal of mental health for both (Broverman, et al., Chesler, 1971). Recent investigation shows that this is not necessarily the case. It was found that a high degree of sex-role typing is not only personally limiting, but also correlated with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and lower overall intelligence (Gray, 1957; Maccoby, 1966; Fasteau, 1974). Bem (1974) has developed the Bem Sex Role Inventory, an instrument that differentiates between sex-role types. She classifies these types as masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated. Bem demonstrated that masculine and feminine sex-typed individuals avoid cross-sex behaviors while androgynous individuals do not, therefore, androgynous individuals are able to engage in whatever behavior they desired or was most effective for a particular situation regardless of its stereotype as masculine or feminine. In developing the Personal Orientation Inventory Shostrom (1966) used the theories of Perls (1951), Maslow (1961), and Rogers (1966) concerning fully functioning or self-actualizing individuals. Such individuals are described as

utilizing and developing all of their unique potentialities without yielding to social influences, or meeting the expectations of others.

It was hypothesized that androgynous individuals as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory would tend to score higher on the Time Competency and Inner-directed scales on the Personal Orientation Inventory than sex-typed individuals.

Three hundred undergraduate students from Eastern Illinois University were given the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the Personal Orientation Inventory. They were classified into the appropriate sex-role categories of masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated according to their endorsements of factors on the Bem Inventory. The raw scores were then obtained from the time competence and inner-directed scales on the Personal Orientation Inventory. A Chi square analysis was used to determine the degree of sex-role stereotyping in the population. A two factor analysis of variance for unequal cell sizes, and the Dunnett Test for multiple comparisons (Keppler, 1973) were used to analyze the data.

The results of the Chi square analysis showed a significant degree of sex-role stereotyping ($p < .001$). The hypothesis investigated was only partially substantiated. Androgynous individuals scored significantly higher on the inner-directed scale than did the feminine and undifferentiated subjects ($p < .01$ and $p < .01$ respectively). There was no

significant difference found between the androgynous and masculine subject's scores on the inner-directed scale.

There were no significant differences between androgynous and non androgynous subject's scores on the time competence scale.

A significant difference between male and female subject's scores were found on both the time competence scale ($p < .006$) and the inner-directed scale ($p < .014$) with the female subjects scoring consistently higher. No significant differences were found between the androgynous and masculine subjects on the inner-directed scale, and the androgynous and non androgynous subjects on the time competence scale. The tendency for androgynous subjects to score higher than non androgynous subjects on both scales was apparent.

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The Women's Liberation movement brought an awareness that stereotyped ideas about many facets of our lives need to be examined. Among the myriad issues brought into focus was the concept of sex-roles and sex-role identity. Sex-role identity is defined as the internalization of a set of behavioral norms based on physiological gender.

Sex-role Characteristics

There has been much research to substantiate the idea that there are different traits ascribed to men and women, and different behavioral expectations for men and women (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz & Vogel, 1970; Chafetz, 1974; Bem, 1974, 1975, 1976a). A partial listing of traits from these authors refers to men as being brave, strong, virile, aggressive, unemotional, logical, intellectual, practical, competitive, and independent. Women are referred to as weak, helpless, nurturant, passive, emotional, insecure, impractical, illogical, non-competitive, and dependent.

Development of Sex-role Identity

The question of whether or not these traits are inherent because of physiological gender or learned characteristics

has been a topic of debate. Current thinking and research point overwhelmingly toward the view that these traits are learned through the socialization process (Money, Hampson, and Hampson, 1955; Money, 1965; Stoller, 1968; Mead, 1969, 1970; Breecher, 1969). If the behavioral and psychological characteristics designated as masculine and feminine were innate according to gender, the amount of cross-cultural variation noted by Mead would be difficult to explain. Breecher, after reviewing the literature on hermaphrodite individuals concluded, "Sex of assignment and experiences of rearing remain the primary determinants of human psychological maleness or femaleness, or gender role and gender identity" (p. 228). Research by Money, Hampson & Hampson (1955) indicates that sex-role identity is entirely a learning process. Among 76 hermaphrodite cases they found that sex-role and identity agreed with sex of assignment and rearing in all but four cases. Babies assigned as male at birth and brought up as boys by their parents thereafter thought of themselves as male. Similarly, babies assigned as girls and brought up as girls accepted the assignment and followed the feminine developmental pattern. In 19 of the 76 cases babies with a male chromosome pattern were assigned and reared as girls. Babies with a female chromosomal pattern were assigned and reared as boys. In every one of the 19 cases the individual established a sex-role and sex-role identity that

was consistent with the assigned sex and rearing conditions, and inconsistent with chromosomal sex. Further, in 20 cases, babies with testes were assigned and reared as girls, while babies with ovaries were assigned and reared as boys. In all but three cases, the children grew up according to their assigned sex rather than their gonadal sex. It is clear then, that sex-role identity as male or female is a result of assignment and rearing practices independent of chromosomal or gonadal gender.

The Socialization Process

According to Duberman (1975) the socialization process by which sex-roles are learned begins in infancy. At the same time children learn that they have different sex roles they learn that the roles are unequal, with the masculine role having more positive value or status than the feminine role (Farrell, 1974; Fasteau, 1974; Chafetz, 1974). Chafetz points out that there are many more blatantly negative connotative words used to describe femininity than masculinity and fewer positive ones. Chafetz goes on to say that from birth, parents interact with their children in different ways according to the child's gender. The parents of a little girl relate to her as a breakable object to be carefully tended, protected, and beautified. A little boy is treated as more or less self-reliant, physically active, and even "tough." Children are also verbally instructed and rewarded for doing

or not doing certain things according to gender. For example, a little boy is told that "big boys don't cry," while little girls are instructed not to get dirty and not to let their "underpants show." Little boys are expected to get dirty and are rewarded for being physically active. The conclusion is then drawn that girls are innately less physically active and strong than boys.

Children's games further the process of sex-role learning. From very early ages boys engage in more competitive team games with more elaborate rules than girls. Groups of boys are organized to play baseball, football, and basketball, all having the need for intrateam cooperation and strategy. Through these activities boys learn to be aggressive, competitive, and analytical. Young girls play "house," hopscotch, jump rope, practice twirling, do arts and crafts, and learn to dance. These activities have few or no rules and little competition.

Chafetz (1974) found that even in mail order catalogs (e.g. Sears, Wards), there was an emphasis on sex-role stereotyping. Boys were pictured actively playing with toys, girls were pictured watching a boy play. Boys were pictured twice as frequently as girls. Boys' sections were filled with athletic gear, technological toys, soldiers, guns and cars. Girls' sections were filled with dolls and household goods. A boy doctor was pictured with a girl nurse. Boys

were pictured being served "tea" by girls. Six boys were playing guitars or drums and no girls; four girls were pictured playing the organ or piano compared to no boys. There were thirteen boys and one girl riding a toy, twenty-nine boys but no girls operating a model vehicle, and twenty-nine boys and two girls operating construction toys. It would appear that these toys prepare children for adult roles in very stereotypic ways. Girls are trained as mothers, helpmates, and homemakers. Boys are encouraged to consider many different occupational possibilities, develop their bodily strength, and be aggressive.

In school, children are exposed to books filled with sex-role related material that presents the male role as being more desirable and interesting. Farrell (1974) found that in later grade readers the stories pictured men in 166 occupations and women in 25. Among the 25 options for girls were: a witch, cleaning lady, baby-sitter, queen and fat lady in a circus. In over 2,700 stories there is not one girl who becomes a doctor, lawyer, professor, astronaut, engineer, computer operator, or even a sales person.

Sex-role Preferences

Studies show that the preference of the masculine role over the feminine role starts in childhood and continues through adulthood. Farrell (1974) showed that children are aware of their dislike for the feminine role by the age of

four. By kindergarden, almost half of the girls prefer the father's role and one quarter of the boys prefer the mother's role. By the sixth grade, girls who act like boys are much more socially accepted than boys who act like girls. Twenty to thirty per cent of adult women prefer the male social role while only two and a half to four per cent of men prefer the woman's role. Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz (1972) found that five to twelve times as many women as men recalled having wished that they were of the opposite sex. Also, both boys and girls between six and ten years expressed greater preference for "masculine" things and activities than for "feminine" things and activities. The disdain for the feminine role can perhaps be summed up by part of the Jewish Orthodox prayer which is said every day by Orthodox Jewish men: "Thank God I am not a woman."

From infancy boys are taught to be active, aggressive, unemotional, independent providers. Girls are taught to be passive, submissive, dependent, emotional helpmates. Until recently, these stereotyped pictures were the ideal of mental health for men and women (Broverman, et al., Chesler, 1971). Men who showed emotion were considered weak or "sissy-like"; women who displayed independence or who asserted themselves were considered "unfeminine." The literature indicates that adherence to these stereotyped roles is personally very limiting for women as well as men (Farrell, 1974; Fasteau, 1974;

Pleck and Sawyer, 1974; Duberman, 1975).

The literature also indicates that a high degree of sex typing may not be desirable. High femininity in females has been consistently correlated with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and low social acceptance (Gray, 1957; Webb, 1963; Cosentino & Heilbrun, 1964; Gall, 1969; Webb, 1970). Although high masculinity in males has been correlated during adolescence with better psychological adjustment (Mussen, 1961), high masculinity has been correlated during adulthood with high anxiety, high neuroticism, and low self-acceptance (Harford, Willis, and Deabler, 1967; Mussen, 1962). In addition to emotional adjustment, greater intellectual development has been consistently correlated with cross sex typing, that is, with masculinity in girls and femininity in boys. Boys and girls who are more sex typed have been found to have lower overall intelligence, lower spatial ability and lower creativity (Maccoby, 1966).

Trend Toward Androgyny

There is a growing trend to break away from these limiting sex-roles and move toward a more androgynous or non sex-typed culture (Parelius, 1975; Osofsky and Osofsky, 1976). Chafetz (1974) and Farrell (1974) review the dynamics of this trend. It includes changes in the basic familial structure, politics, language modification, economics, and education. The literature shows that the basic philosophy of this trend

is that behavior should be determined by individual preference, not by socially sanctioned sex-role distinctions. Bem states that previously, masculinity and femininity were considered bipolar ends of a single continuum; a person was either masculine or feminine, but not both. Bem states further that this dichotomy has obscured two plausible hypotheses: first, many individuals might be androgynous, that is, their self concepts employ characteristics that are both masculine and feminine, second, a strongly sex-typed individual might be seriously restricted in the range of behaviors available to them. According to Kagan (1964) and Kohlberg (1966), the highly sex-typed person becomes motivated during the course of sex-role socialization to keep his or her behavior consistent with an internalized sex-role standard. Motivation to maintain a self-image as masculine or feminine is accomplished by suppressing any behavior that might be considered undesirable or inappropriate for that gender. Bem (1976a) believes that the self-image of androgynous individuals excludes neither masculinity nor femininity, therefore, they would be able to engage in whatever behavior they desired or was most effective for a particular situation regardless of its stereotype as masculine or feminine.

In constructing the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), Bem's philosophy was that masculinity and femininity are two

orthogonal dimensions rather than two ends of a single dimension. This would allow individuals to have both masculine and feminine characteristics at the same time. Bem states further that both masculinity and femininity could represent positive domains of behavior. Previously, femininity was considered simply as the absence of masculinity (Constantinople, 1974). This partially explains the negative picture of femininity and femaleness which is apparent in the literature. The BSRI, then, measures the degree to which an individual is sex-typed or is psychologically androgynous.

In a study using the BSRI in addition to sex-role defined tasks, Bem (1975) found that androgynous subjects of both sexes displayed "masculine" independence when under pressure to conform, and "feminine" playfulness when given an opportunity to interact with a kitten. In contrast, all of the non androgynous or sex-typed subjects were found to avoid cross-sex behavior. The masculine males did well only when the behavior was congruent with their particular self-ascribed sex role; they displayed masculine independence, but not feminine playfulness. Feminine males displayed feminine playfulness but not masculine independence. Androgynous and masculine females displayed masculine independence and feminine playfulness. Feminine females failed to display either independence or playfulness.

Bem (1976b) constructed other experiments in which sub-

jects were photographed doing sex-appropriate and cross-sex tasks. A cross-sex task, for example, was oiling a squeaky hinge for a female or preparing a baby bottle for a male. She found that cross-sex behavior was motivationally problematic for sex-typed subjects, and that they actually avoided cross-sex behaviors. Androgynous subjects of both sexes participated equally in cross-sex and sex appropriate behaviors showing no discomfort or inhibition in doing so. As an extension of the experiment, the subjects were "forced" to engage in cross-sex behavior. The sex typed individuals reported feeling more nervous, peculiar, less likable, and less attractive than any of the other subjects. They reported feeling less masculine if they were male and less feminine if they were female. The androgynous subjects reported no such conflict.

In two further studies by Bem that measured "feminine" nurturance, subjects were rated on their interactions with babies and "lonely students." In the "baby" study, each subject was left alone with a five month old baby for a period of ten minutes. The subjects were told that the experimenters would be watching through a one-way mirror and were interested in the baby's reactions to strangers. The experimenters were, however, measuring the subject's responsiveness to the baby.

In the "lonely student" study, an experimental assistant

and naive subject were paired. They were told that they were participating in a study of "the acquaintance process," and drew lots to determine who would be the "talker" and who would be the "listener." Regardless of the lots, the experimental assistant always served as the talker and would eventually present him or herself as a lonely transfer student. The subjects were then rated on their responsiveness to the "lonely student." The results supported Bem's previous findings. Androgynous and feminine subjects of both sexes were rated highest in nurturance; masculine males were rated lowest.

These studies substantiate the position that stereotyped sex-roles inhibit or restrict the behavior repertoires of sex-typed individuals. Even when it is situationally appropriate for them to engage in cross-sex behavior, they avoid it and feel uncomfortable when they have to do it. Further, Bem's studies revealed the existence of an androgynous type of individual who is not bound by external norms dictated by sex-roles. These individuals were able to engage in situationally appropriate and effective behavior without regard for its stereotype as masculine or feminine.

Self-actualizing Theories

During the past twenty years, Perls (1951), Maslow (1961), Rogers (1966), and Shostrom (1972), have developed theories concerning "fully functioning" individuals. These individuals are described as developing and utilizing all of their capa-

bilities and potentialities without yielding to social influences. The practical application of these theories to their therapies helped their clients move away from meeting the expectations of others and toward developing and utilizing all of their unique capabilities or potentialities. Such individuals are described as self-actualizing.

Shostrom (1966) developed the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) based on the concepts of the self-actualizing philosophy. The two most valid scales on the inventory are the "time ratio" and "support ratio" scales, Buros (1972). The time scale measures the degree to which the individual lives in the present as contrasted with the past or future. The time competent person lives primarily in the present with full awareness, contact, and full feeling reactivity. The time incompetent person lives primarily in the past, with guilts, regrets, and resentments and/or in the future with idealized goals, plans, expectations, and fears. The inner-directed scale is designed to measure whether an individual's mode of reaction is typically "self" oriented or "other" oriented. Inner, or self-directed individuals are guided primarily by internalized principles and motivations, while other directed persons are greatly influenced by their peer group or other external forces. Crosson and Schwendman (1972) showed that individuals defined as self-actualizing by the POI exhibited independent behavior in conformity situations.

Statement of the Problem

The Bem studies (1974, 1975, 1976a, 1976b) have shown that androgynous individuals displayed an apparent mixture of personality traits or characteristics common to both sexes, and further, they displayed no inhibition to participate in cross-sex activities. Their behavior was not motivated by external or societal pressure to conform to a stereotyped sex-role thus keeping more avenues open to develop their innate potential as human beings. Sex-typed individuals, however, reacted to the experimental situations in keeping with the personality traits inherent in their sex-roles. Their behavior reflected a tendency to act in ways that were socially approved as masculine or feminine, thereby reducing the possibility of developing or utilizing all of their potential.

The "inner directedness" scale on Shostrom's POI measures the degree to which individuals are inner or other directed, that is, the degree to which their behavior reflects inner motivations or external influences. The time competency scale reflects the degree to which the individual is optimally utilizing time as an indice of adjustment. Both of these factors relate to the self-actualizing theories previously mentioned.

Because inner-directedness and time competence are qualities possessed by individuals who tend to utilize all

of their potential and capabilities the following hypothesis has been devised.

Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that the androgynous individuals as measured by the BSRI would score significantly higher on the inner directed and time competency scales on the POI than the sex-typed individuals.

Method

Subjects

Three hundred undergraduate students from Eastern Illinois University were used for this study. 183 were female and 117 were male; 246 were freshmen and 54 were sophomores, juniors, and seniors. The subjects were obtained from Health Education 1200 sections. Health Education 1200 is a course required for graduation. The subjects were obtained in this manner to insure a representative selection of major fields.

Apparatus

Two paper and pencil tests were used to collect the data: the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

The POI (Shostrom, 1966) is used primarily as a counseling tool for distinguishing self-actualizing persons from non self-actualizing persons. It consists of 150 two-choice comparative value and behavior judgments. It is a power test

made up of 12 subscales each of which measures a conceptually important element of self-actualization. The present study used only the "time competency" and "inner directed" subscales.

The BSRI is an instrument currently being prepared for publication. It consists of 60 personality characteristics: 20 masculine, 20 feminine, and 20 neutral. When taking the BSRI subjects are asked to indicate on a scale from 1 ("never or almost never true") to 7 ("always or almost always true") how well each characteristic describes him or herself. Subjects are classified as androgynous, masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated according to their endorsements of the characteristics. (Appendix i)

Procedure

Permission was obtained from the instructors of five Health Education 1200 sections to administer the two tests in a regular 50 minute class period. Most subjects finished within the 50 minute period, however, those who did not were permitted to stay until they completed both tests. The subjects were instructed to record their major field, sex, age, and year in school on both answer sheets. They were also told to consider their answers on both tests to be a reflection of their own opinions of themselves as opposed to what others might think of them. No other instructions were given.

After obtaining the median masculinity and femininity

scores on the BSRI each subject was given an appropriate sex-role classification. Those subjects who scored above the masculinity median and below the femininity median were then classified as "masculine"; those who scored above the femininity median and below the masculinity median were classified as "feminine"; those who scored above both medians were classified as "androgynous"; and those who scored below both medians were classified as "undifferentiated." The raw scores were then obtained from the "time competent" and inner directed" subscales on the POI.

A Chi square analysis was used to determine the degree of sex-role stereotyping in the population. A two factor analysis of variance for unequal cell sizes, and the Dunnett Test (Keppler, 1973) for multiple comparisons were used to analyze the results. In order to accommodate the unequal cell sizes for the Dunnett Test, a mean cell size was used. The comparisons were made by combining sexes using weighted means.

Results

Sex-role Type and Gender

A Chi square analysis between sex-role type and gender indicates that there was a significant degree of sex-role typing according to gender $\chi^2 (3) = 62.87, p < .001$ (see Table 1).

Table 1

Chi Square Analysis Between Sex-role Type & Gender

	Androgynous	Masculine	Feminine	Undifferentiated
Male	32.37 26	26.13 46	28.08 5	30.42 40
Female	50.63 57	40.87 21	43.92 67	47.58 38

df = 3

 $p < .001 = 16.266$

The classification of subjects into sex-role types can be found in table 2.

Table 2

Breakdown of Sex-role Types

According to Gender

Sex-role Type	Female		Male	
	N	%	M	%
Androgynous	57	31.15	26	22.22
Masculine	21	11.48	46	39.31
Feminine	67	36.61	5	4.27
Undifferentiated	38	20.76	40	34.20

The male subjects showed a greater tendency to be sex-typed as masculine (39.31%) than to be sex-typed as feminine

(4.27%). The female subjects tended to be more sex-typed as feminine (36.61%) than masculine (11.48%). There were more subjects classified as masculine females than feminine males. There was a greater tendency for females to be classified as androgynous (31.15%) than for males to be classified as androgynous (22.22%), and a greater tendency for males to be classified as undifferentiated (34.20%) than females (20.76%).

Inner-directed Scale

The inner-directedness scale measures the degree to which individuals are "inner" or "other" directed. The analysis of variance for inner-directedness indicated significance between sex-role types $F(3,292) = 8.291$, $p < .001$ and between sexes $F(1,292) = 6.078$, $p < .014$ (see Table 3).

Table 3

Analysis of Variance - Inner-directedness

Source	Degree of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Significance of F
Sex-role Type	3	1021.642	8.291	.001
Sex	1	748.888	6.078	.014
Interaction: Sex-role Type - Sex	3	20.356	.165	NS
Residual	292	123.219	—	—

The analysis of variance showed no indication of an interaction between sex-role types and sex on inner-directedness (see Figure 1).

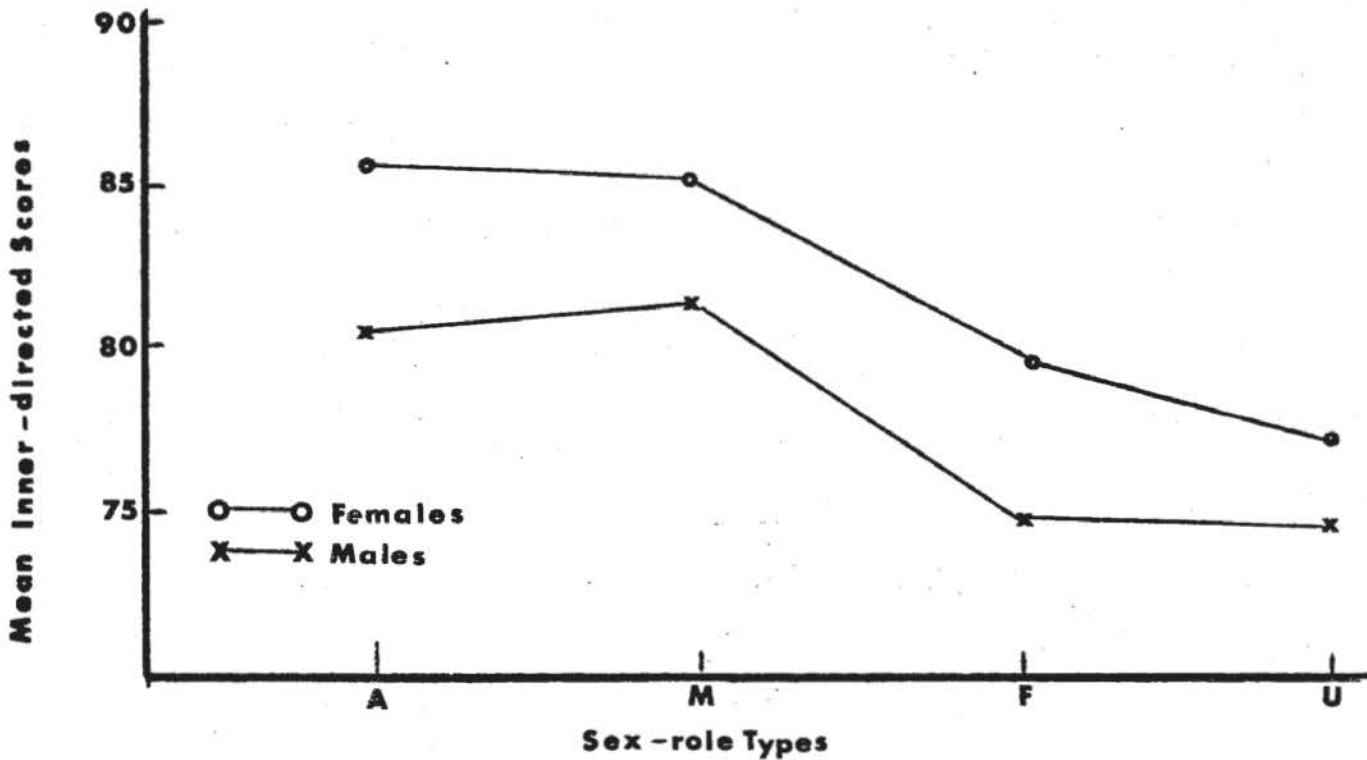


Fig. 1. Sex-role Type: Sex

The Dunnett Test revealed no significant difference between the androgynous and masculine subjects of both sexes, but did reveal a significant difference between the androgynous and feminine subjects $q_D(71) = 5.128, p < .01$, and the androgynous and undifferentiated subjects $q_D(77) = 7.487, p < .01$ (see Table 4).

Table 4

Dunnett Test: Inner-directedness

Sex-role Type	Weighted Means	Difference from Androgynous	Significance Level
Androgynous	84.05	—	—
Masculine	82.89	1.16	NS
Feminine	78.922	5.128	.01
Undifferentiated	76.563	7.487	.01

Time Competence:

The time competence scale measures the degree to which the individual lives in the present as opposed to the past or future. The analysis of variance for time competency indicated no significant difference between sex-role types. There was, however, a significant difference between sexes $F(1,292) = 7.868, p < .006$ (see Table 5).

Table 5

Analysis of Variance - Time Competency

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	Significance of F
Sex-role Type	3	7.886	.714	NS
Sex	1	86.881	7.868	.006
Interaction: Sex-role Type - Sex	3	7.337	.664	NS
Residual	292	11.042	—	—

The analysis of variance showed no indication of an interaction between sex-role types and sex on time competence (see Figure 2).

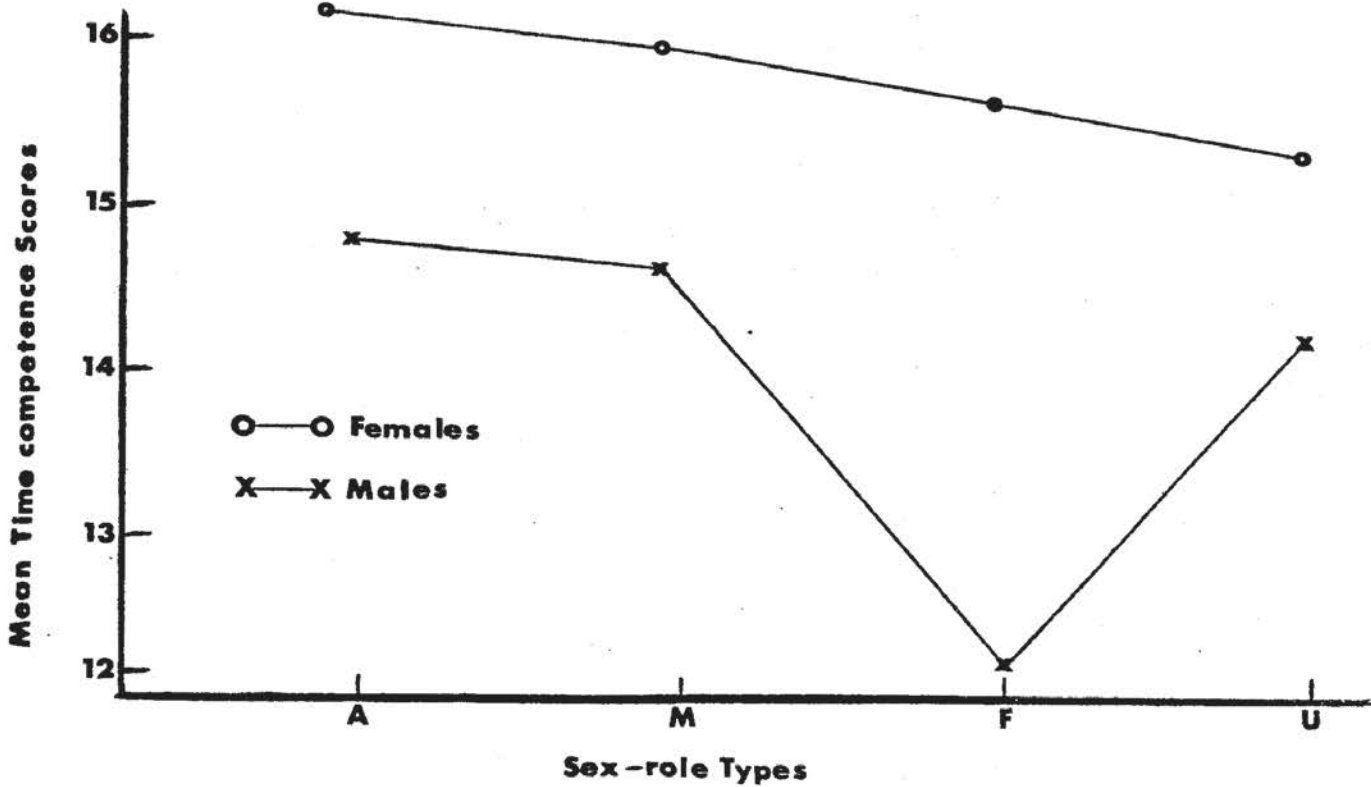


Fig. 2. Sex-role Type: Sex

The results of the Dunnett Test indicated no significant differences between sex-role types for time competency.

The analysis of variance and Dunnett Test revealed no significant differences in time competency scores between sex-role types. These tests also revealed no significant differences between androgynous and masculine subjects on time competence. Table 6 shows the mean scores obtained for each dependent variable and actual cell sizes so that possible trends can be discussed.

Table 6

Mean Scores and Cell sizes:

Inner-directedness and Time Competence

Sex-Role Type	Actual Cell Size	Females		Actual Cell Size	Males		Combined Cell Size
		Inner-Directed	Time Competent		Inner-Directed	Time Competent	
Androgynous	57	85.64	16.01	26	80.57	14.80	85
Masculine	21	85.04	15.71	46	81.91	14.78	67
Feminine	67	79.20	15.56	5	75.2	12.2	72
Undifferentiated	38	77.84	15.34	40	75.35	14.43	78

Discussion

The hypothesis that androgynous individuals would score significantly higher on the time competence and inner-directed scales on the POI was only partially substantiated. Androgynous individuals scored significantly higher on inner-directedness than feminine, and undifferentiated subjects. There was no significant differences found between androgynous and non androgynous subjects on the time competency scale.

Inner-directed Scale

There was no significant difference between the androgynous and masculine subjects on the inner-directed scale. A plausible reason for this might be that inner-directedness could be classified as a stereotypic "masculine" characteristic. This could be paralleled to Bem's study in which the masculine and androgynous subjects displayed "masculine independence" in conformity situations. The hypothesis that the androgynous subjects would score significantly higher on the time competency scale than the masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated subjects was not substantiated.

Time Competence Scale

The androgynous subjects did not score significantly higher on the time competence scale than did the other classifications of subjects. This could indicate that the concept of androgyny is less related to a person's orientation in time. A possible explanation for the finding that the androg-

ynous subjects did not score significantly higher on both scales is that although time competence and inner-directedness are a general indice of one level of self-actualization, they are not necessarily significantly positively correlated. Shostrom pointed out that in a college sample there was only a moderate correlation ($r = .49$) between time competence and inner-directedness.

The analysis of variance showed a significant sex difference for both time competence ($p < .006$) and inner-directedness ($p < .014$) with female subjects scoring consistently higher than the male subjects. This finding corresponds to two studies cited by Shostrom in which this tendency was observed in a college freshman sample of 1,254 males and 792 females, and a high school sample of 196 males and 216 females. In these two studies the female subjects scored higher than the male subjects on both scales. The analysis of variance showed no interaction between sexes on either scale. On closer examination of Figures 1 and 2 one notices that the patterns of the mean scores are different. This difference is due to the responses of the feminine males on time competency. This may indicate that feminine males are not oriented in the present. Shostrom (1966) would call these individuals Time Incompetent. Another explanation for this difference could be the unusually low cell size.

Although the analysis of variance and the Dunnett Test

showed no statistical significance between sex-role types on the time competence scale the mean scores for the androgynous subjects were higher than for any of the other groups. The findings may not have been statistically significant because of the unequal cell frequencies which necessitated the use of weighted means. Unequal cell frequency proved to be the biggest problem in the statistical analysis. The Dunnett Test is designed for equal cell sizes. In analyzing the data it became necessary to use a mean cell size of 75. The actual cell sizes are listed in table 6. Because of the mean cell size, scoring weight was taken from the actual androgyny mean scores and added to the masculine mean scores with the feminine and undifferentiated mean scores remaining less affected. For a more accurate analysis it is suggested that other studies of this nature employ equal cell sizes.

Although no significant differences were found between androgynous and masculine subjects on the inner directed scale and the androgynous and non androgynous subjects on the time competency scale, the tendency for androgynous subjects to score higher than non androgynous subjects on both scales was apparent.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study has shown that androgynous and masculine individuals of both sexes do score significantly higher on inner-directedness. According to Shostrom (1966) the source

of direction of these individuals is "inner" in the sense that internal motivations are the guiding force in their lives rather than external influences. This source of direction becomes generalized into an inner core of principles and character traits. The process by which these character traits are developed begins early in the socialization process and is influenced by parents and later by other authority figures. If an androgynous society is to develop changes must be made early in the socialization and educational process. Osofsky & Osofsky (1976) review how some of these changes can be made.

When a child is born, differentiation in treatment by sex can be eliminated. Female babies do not have to be dressed only in pink, feminine clothes and male babies in blue, more masculine clothes. Patterns of dressing children spread to treatment of them with expectations for males including aggressive behavior and those for females including passive behavior. Changes in adults' behavior toward children could result in fewer sex-typed behaviors.

It has been traditionally assumed that mothers are better able to care for children than fathers. Further, in most families in our society mothers have been at home and fathers at work. It is suggested that both parents take an active role in child rearing. Research could be undertaken in the field of reinvestigating the role of the father in child rearing, and the effects of alternate styles of marital be-

havior. A well-adjusted male may enjoy being a business executive. He may also, or instead, like being nurturant and catering, doing the cooking and taking care of the children. A well-adjusted female may similarly enjoy being a business executive. She may want to share household responsibilities with her husband or allocate most of them to him.

The material to which children are exposed in school can be changed. Both women and men could be shown participating in professions, homemaking and child rearing activities. Such changes could lead to children learning many different non sex-typed life styles based primarily on abilities and interests.

Another area related to education which could be changed involves the covert and overt counseling which has been offered to females and males. On almost all levels females have been encouraged to be passive and sometimes achieving. Males have been encouraged to be independent, aggressive, and constantly achieving. Most guidance counselors and teachers have encouraged girls to get married and be good wives and mothers. Careers have been presented as an alternative if marriage is not achieved or if families need the money. Guidance counselors have not encouraged girls to take their careers seriously or to pursue a career and have a family simultaneously. Counselors have encouraged males to compete, be aggressive, and pursue careers in order to gain esteem and

support a family. Males have rarely been provided with alternative options to these achieving behaviors. These practices can be changed.

Children who are brought up with new patterns of socialization could develop alternative directions for individual growth determined by individual inclinations and abilities rather than by physiological sex or stereotyped sex-roles. By utilizing these alternatives individuals would become, in fact, more fully functioning or self-actualizing.

Stereotyped sex-role typing has been correlated in the past with lower emotional and intellectual functioning as well as behavioral restrictiveness. The philosophy of androgyny contains a concept of mental health that is free from these stereotyped definitions of masculinity and femininity. Kaplan & Bean (1976) suggest that androgyny is compelling because it defines a model of well being that draws from the positive or valued characteristics of both men and women. It is seen as an alternative in which members of both sexes can retain the positive traits they prize while broadening the option of adopting cross-sex attributes, thereby becoming more fully functioning individuals. This is consistent with the self-actualizing philosophies of Maslow, Rogers, Perls and Shostrom. Androgyny allows for sex-role flexibility as a result of individual differences and preferences and is relevant to both men and women who are trying to move beyond

sex-role limitations.

As psychologists we should be concerned with helping every individual realize his or her highest potential. By being aware of the serious limitations of sex-role typing we can help many of our clients develop as more fully functioning "human beings" rather than as "men" or "women." Kaplan (1976) is currently exploring the impact of sex-role socialization on the theory and practice of psychotherapy. She uses the concept of androgyny as a model of mental health for men as well as women.

In summary, it is felt that there is a need to develop a concept of humanness without regard to masculinity and femininity.

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Appendix i

Bem Sex-Role Inventory

Full Name _____
(please print)

Sex _____ Age _____

Year in School _____ Address _____

Telephone # _____

On the back of this page you will find a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 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 "carefree", then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3
Malicious	1

Irresponsible	7
Carefree	5

DESCRIBE YOURSELF

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NEVER OR ALMOSE NEVER TRUE	USUALLY NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE	OCCASIONALLY 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 smooth 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	