IDENTITY PROCESSING STYLE AND SEX-ROLE IDENTITY PREDICT ATTACHMENT STYLE AND PSYCHOSOCIAL BALANCE

by

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B.Sc., University of Northern British Columbia, 1998

THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

PSYCHOLOGY

THE UNIVERISTY OF NORTHERN BRITISH COLUMBIA

APRIL 2004

Your file Votre référence
ISBN: 0-494-04667-8
Our file Notre référence
ISBN: 0-494-04667-8

ABSTRACT

Differences in relationship style scores (secure, fearful, preoccupied, dismissing) and psychosocial balance scale scores (basic trust, autonomy, identity, intimacy, generativity) were examined as a function of identity style (informational, normative, diffuse/avoidant), sex-role identity (feminine, masculine, androgynous, undifferentiated), age (young adult, middle adult, late adult), and gender. Three hundred and eighty-eight participants (166 men and 222 women; *M* age = 41.38, *SD* = 17.45) completed self-report questionnaires designed to measure the relevant constructs. Results indicated that identity processing style did not prove to be significantly related to relationship style or psychosocial balance scores. However, differences in sex-role identity were predictive of different patterns of scores on the relationship style measure and the psychosocial balance measure. In addition, the secure relationship style was positively predictive of all five psychosocial balance scale scores. These findings suggest that identity processing style may play a lesser role than sex-role identity classification in determining patterns of differences in relationship styles and psychosocial adjustment.

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Appreciation is extended to all of the people who took part in this research project, including Dr. Peter McMillan for his assistance with all matters statistical, Loreen Obst, Psychology secretary, for her help and support, Dr. Robert Tate for his compassion and understanding, Julie Orlando and the Institute for Social Research and Evaluation for assistance with data collection, Jessica Madrid for her thoroughness in data entry, Dr. Michele Worth for her excellent suggestions, Dr. Deborah Poff for the financial assistance that made much of the data collection possible, to my committee members, Dr. Ken Prchachin and Dr. Alex Michalos, for their diligent editing and constructive criticisms, and to those in the media who took my plea for participants to the community. All of these people have made contributions that paved the way for the success of this project.

My greatest thanks go to my wife, Gail, who put in so many hours preparing mail-out packages and supporting me in a multitude of ways. Words seem insufficient to express how important she is to me.

Finally, to Dr. Sherry Beaumont, I would like to convey my gratitude in being able to work with such an enthusiastic and capable supervisor, one who was always there when I needed a hand, but also had the wisdom to step back when I needed to learn on my own.

Identity Processing Style and Sex-Role Identity Predict

Attachment Style and Psychosocial Balance

INTRODUCTION

Developmental psychology is the study of growing up. That is, it examines the pathways of development from birth (and in some circumstances, before birth) through to adulthood with the goals of describing and explaining the various stages or transitions along the way. For example, for many psychologists, the manner in which we are attracted to, meet, and become intimate with romantic partners forms a major and compelling area of interest in the study of lifespan development. From this perspective, development may be seen as the progression from infancy to adulthood with the goal of adult social encounters and commitments that have the purposes of affiliation and, ultimately, progeny (Erikson, 1959).

This developmental interest in relationships raises the question of how we come to choose those with whom we would become romantically involved and form bonds of sufficient magnitude that we would remain bonded with one person. Theories abound on how relationships develop. For example, Freud and Bowlby (Shaver & Hazen, 1993) assumed that early mother – child relations determined later romantic relationships. Maslow (1954) considered the *experience* of affiliation an aspect of a hierarchy of needs; once basic physiological and safety/security needs were attained, an individual sought belongingness and love before striving for esteem and self-actualization. Alternatively, Fromm (1968) proposed that the individual who had attained ego maturity sought to more fully *express* his or her humanity through the mutual tenderness and vulnerability traditionally found in romantic relationships.

Theory may tell us, in the most general terms, why an individual may seek romantic attachments, but not the *style* of relationship an individual may prefer. In other words, we can assume that most people will pursue a relationship, but it is a more challenging task to predict the nature or quality of that relationship. The question of which aspect(s) of our development influence relationship duration, level of intimacy and commitment, and our sense of self within relationships remain grist for developmental research. The goal of the present research was to shed some light on this question from the perspective of lifespan development within an Eriksonian framework.

Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development

The theoretical underpinnings for this research will be based on Erikson's (1959) eight stages of psychosocial development in which it is suggested that individuals encounter eight lifespan crises, or turning points. These begin with basic trust versus mistrust in infancy and culminate with integrity versus despair in old age. Erikson proposed that individuals reach "decisive encounters" when they are ready to process information that is supplied by their environment regarding particular ideas and concepts that impact the individual's sense of self. The successful resolution of these decisive encounters, or crises, contributes to the individual's ego identity, personality, and social interaction style through changes in interpersonal perspective that come about in the emergence of different capacities at various opportune moments while growing up (Erikson, 1959).

Of particular importance to this research, Erikson considered that intimacy and affiliation during one's adult years were a product of an ego identity established in the teen years. "The youth who is not sure of his identity shies away from interpersonal intimacy; but

the surer he becomes of himself, the more he seeks it" (Erikson, 1959, p. 101). Accordingly, individuals who have not developed ego identity strength find themselves in social isolation or serial attempts at intimacy out of a sense of tradition-bound, stereotyped relationship behavior. In the latter case, relationships take on an aura of formality where there is a lack of spontaneity, warmth, and trust (Erikson, 1959).

Successful resolution of the identity-role diffusion crisis is predicted to lead to appropriate levels of intimacy in young adulthood and unsuccessful resolution is expected to lead to shallower, less intimate relationships. A more fine-grained analysis would seem required, given that the ego-identity crisis resolution is unlikely to be an all-or-none phenomenon. In order to explore the levels of the ego-identity/role diffusion crisis outcome, Marcia operationalized Erikson's concept of identity formation (Read & Adams, 1984).

Marcia's Ego-Identity Status Paradigm

Marcia (1966) developed the notion of identity statuses in order to add nuance to Erikson's theory. In his concept, Marcia suggested four levels of identity outcome: *diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium,* and *identity achievement* (Orlofsky, Marcia, & Lesser, 1973). From diffusion through to identity achievement, each identity status is said to represent a higher level, or more successful resolution, of Erikson's concept of ego-identity attainment (Marcia, 1966). Marcia's system contained two basic manners of differentiating ego-identity statuses. First, one could contrast the identity statuses in which there is commitment (foreclosure and identity achievement) with those lacking commitment (diffusion and moratorium). Second, based on experience with crisis, one may compare identity statuses

with the presence (moratorium and achievement) versus the absence (foreclosure and diffusion) of exploration.

Whereas identity statuses can be linked to distinct personality characteristics, social-cognitive variables, and certain gender differences, progression from lower to higher identity statuses (i.e., from diffusion through identity achievement) is generally paralleled by an increasing complexity of personality attributes (Read et al., 1984). Therefore, similarities between individuals of a higher level of identity status may be subtler in nature than for lower statuses. For example, it has been suggested that greater gender differences exist for lower status versus higher status individuals (Waterman, 1982) and Erikson argued that identity formation was "a process of increasing differentiation" (1958, p. 23). Although some authors (e.g., Adams et al., 1985; Read, Adams, & Dobson, 1984) have stated that few, if any, significant gender differences exist between statuses, others have suggested that some gender differences do exist. For example, Fitch and Adams (1983) found that occupational identity for men and religious identity for women tended to contribute to higher identity status. It may be that gender differences emerge as broad trends rather than specific distinctions between identity statuses. Finally, for the purpose of the present research, an additional aspect of importance is the potential link between an individual's identity status and style of intimacy in relationships (Fitch & Adams, 1983).

Diffuse identity status. Individuals with a diffuse identity status may or may not have experienced a crisis period, but cannot identify specific, meaningful commitments to a personal identity (Orlofsky, Marcia, & Lesser, 1973). This type of identity status may lead to an active pursuit of noncommitment and avoidance of demanding circumstances. Alternatively, it may be characterized by aimless drifting or by personal malleability and

suggestibility (Orlofsky, Marcia, & Lesser, 1973). On measures of social behavior, individuals with a diffuse identity status scored the lowest of the identity statuses for conformity behavior to gain from achievement and highest for being influenced by peer pressure (Adams, Ryan, Hoffman, Dobson, & Nielson, 1985). That is, these individuals engaged in conformity behavior, not in order to achieve their goals, but in response to peer pressure to behave in certain ways. Diffuse individuals may be seen as less developed in such personality dimensions as self-esteem, locus of control, and moral reasoning (Adams & Shea, 1979).

Foreclosure identity status. Foreclosure status refers to those who have made a commitment, but without going through a crisis or exploratory period (Marcia, 1966). They have accepted the identity presented to them by parents or other authority figures. Of the four statuses, they tend to be the most authoritarian and rigid in their views (Orlofsky et al., 1973). They appear to operate rather well within the bounds of familiar circumstances, but may quickly find themselves at a loss if faced with an unfamiliar challenge (Orlofsky et al., 1973). For example, foreclosure women tend to express fear of the extra-familial environment and reduced tolerance for ambiguous situations (Read et al., 1984). Marcia (1980; cited in Read et al., 1984) found that foreclosure women scored lower than moratorium or identity achievement women on measures of ego strength and that higher status men demonstrated greater psychological maturity compared to lower status men.

Moratorium identity status. The moratorium status involves a period of crisis in which the person is currently engaged in exploration for the purpose of identity formation (Marcia, 1966). Men with a moratorium identity status may appear very similar to identity achievement males on measures of social cognition and behavior (Orlofsky et al., 1973).

Foreclosure individuals exhibit contradictory desires for independence and direction from others as seen in their ambivalence towards authority (Macia, 1966). They can be engaging, active, and creative or mired by an inner struggle against indecisiveness. In general, they appear to be the most verbal and variable of the statuses (Orlofsky et al., 1973).

Achievement identity status. As the most developed and differentiated, the identity achievement status involves commitment after a period of crisis (Marcia, 1966). People at this stage arrive at their identity after extensive exploration and form strong commitments. They appear stable, capable of dealing with shifting environmental demands, and can establish and pursue realistic goals (Orlofsky et al., 1973). Adams et al. (1985) noted that achievement identity men (compared to lower status men) were more relaxed, less prone to worry, experienced less social anxiety, demonstrated greater maturity in interpersonal functioning, and did not tend to exhibit extremes of either extraversion or introversion. Achievement identity women appeared more adept (compared to lower status women) at social-cognitive functions governing encoding, decoding, and analyzing interpersonal social information (Adams et al., 1985).

Identity status and intimacy. The link between identity status and intimacy can generally be described as one where the higher the individual's status, the greater their capacity for interpersonal relationships (Fitch & Adams, 1983). Orlofsky et al. (1973) described five levels of intimacy: intimate, preinitimate, stereotyped, pseudointimate, and isolate (ranging from greatest to least capacity for intimacy, respectively). Research findings indicate that more advanced identity statuses (i.e., moratorium and identity achievement) are associated with more advanced intimacy statuses, such as intimate and preintimate (Orlofsky et al., 1973). Indeed, the mutual distinction between moratorium and identity achievement

status as well as between preinitimate and intimate status is the element of commitment, which is present in the identity achieved and intimates statuses and absent in the moratorium and preintimate statuses (Orlofsky et al., 1973). Erikson (1959) stated that commitment to important social structures was an integral component enabling intimate relations. To this end, Orlofsky et al. (1973) found that whereas men appeared to require an occupational commitment in order to achieve higher intimacy status, women needed a religious commitment to do the same. The authors attributed this difference to assumed distinctions between men and women, with men believed to be more instrumental and achievement oriented and women more concerned with interpersonal issues of affiliation and personal improvement (Fitch & Adams, 1983). Fitch and Adams (1983) observed that the clearest relationship between identity and intimacy status occurred when data for each was measured cross-sectionally. The most notable difference was that moratorium and identity achievement individuals possessed a deeper capacity for intimacy when compared to lower identity status individuals, regardless of gender.

Identity Style Paradigm

Erikson (1959) emphasized the *process* aspect of ego-identity development and how this processing style then affected the manner in which individuals responded to interpersonal information. Extensive research based on Erikson's theory of psychosocial development has illustrated the social-cognitive nature of the identity status paradigm, with the purpose of predicting behavioral and cognitive outcomes predicated on one's identity status (Streitmatter, 1993). Yet, a less-than-perfect connection between identity status and social and cognitive behavior exists, due to the somewhat static or steady state nature of the

identity status construct (Berzonsky, 1989). Because of the stress Erikson placed on the process aspect of identity construction and its outcome for social interaction (e.g., occupation, relationships, etc.), a social-cognitive process paradigm appeared to better represent Erikson's original concept (Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994). A second criticism of the status paradigm is that it does not adequately capture all individuals assessed by the construct in accordance with the theory (Fitch & Adams, 1983). Again, this is thought to be an issue of process versus state, since Fitch and Adams (1983) noted that over a span of one year, individuals assessed in a given identity status at the beginning of the research project were observed to have shifted to another status by the conclusion of the project. For example, foreclosure individuals were as likely to have changed as they were to have remained stable during the period of observation. This suggests that these individuals experiencing transition from one status to another would fail to be captured by any of the four Marcian statuses.

To this end, Berzonsky (1989) developed the *identity style* theory in order to account for the link between identity status and cognitive style through an Eriksonian developmental process. Berzonsky (1989) developed a model of identity styles based on his theory that the existing structures outlined by Marcia (1966) described different social-cognitive processing orientations. The identity styles consisted of three styles (informational, normative, and avoidant) rather than the four statuses developed by Marcia, due to the notion that once commitment was held constant, moratorium and achievement statuses could not be meaningfully differentiated on the basis of social-cognitive functioning (Berzonsky, 1989). At the heart of social-cognitive functioning lies the thought that existing Marcian identity structures are made up of self-relevant schemata that supply the basis for interpreting social

information and help direct decision making and problem solving (Berzonsky, 1989). These adaptive efforts frequently imply the necessity of accommodation of disparate aspects of the identity structure with the individual's environment. According to Berzonsky and Neimeyer, an individual's "optimal identity development would involve an ongoing dialectical interchange between assimilative processes driven by the identity structure and context-driven accommodation processes aimed at revising that structure" (1994, p. 426-427).

Berzonsky and Neimeyer (1994) suggested that moratorium and identity achievement individuals depend on an *informational* style of decision making and problem solving with regard to self-relevant social input. These individuals search for options and actively process relevant information that impinges upon identity issues and engage in an "assimilative-accommodative cycle" (Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994, p. 427). They express reluctance to automatically accept their self-constructions and seek to test and revise their identity when confronted by dissonant feedback (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). These individuals engage in self-reflection, are cognitively complexity, demonstrate a high need for cognition, and exhibit higher levels of the big five personality factors of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000).

Foreclosure individuals, in contrast, rely on a "preemptive", *normative* orientation that is over-reliant on assimilation and that reflects the expectations and proscriptions of influential others. Research suggests that these individuals are conscientious and agreeable in the big five personality sense (Clancy Dollinger, 1995), but may experience a marked intolerance for ambiguity and a clear need for structure and cognitive closure (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000).

Identity diffuse individuals are said to use an *avoidant* style and to accommodate readily to situational demands of their social environment. Such an avoidant style is thought to represent specific and transient behavioral acts or verbal acquiescence rather than concrete changes in identity style. They may be reticent to confront personal problems, preferring to delay decision making until situational demands dictate a response (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). The avoidant identity style has been linked to such maladaptive characteristics as self-handicapping, avoidant coping, and an external locus of control (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000).

Several studies have examined the validity of the connection between identity status, identity style, and Eriksonian identity formation processes. For example, Streitmatter stated that her results supported Berzonsky's "theoretical speculation concerning the process of identity formation" (1993, p. 214) and that measures comparing identity statuses and identity styles yielded positive correlations in the predicted manner. Thus, more advanced identity styles correlated positively with the more advanced identity statuses. Schwartz, Mullis, Waterman, and Dunham (2000) also concluded that Berzonsky's identity style construct effectively captured that essence of Marcia's identity status paradigm while embracing the dynamic process element essential to Erikson's theory.

Research findings have been mixed with respect to gender differences for identity styles. For example, Schwartz et al. (2000) did not report any significant sex differences in their findings. Berzonsky (1993) also failed to find sex differences, noting that in a university population sample, late adolescent males and females were equally likely to employ each of the three identity styles. Conversely, Berzonsky (1992) found that more male than female subjects preferred a diffuse/avoidant style, whereas more female than male

subjects were categorized as informational. Berzonsky (1992) found that an informational style loaded positively on factors related to introspection, self-reflection, and openness to personal feelings and fantasy, suggesting that subjects with a feminine sex role engaged in self-focused attention to a greater extent than did masculine subjects. It has been suggested that future research efforts in this area attempt to determine whether sex differences that have been observed are a product of gender socialization versus biological gender (Berzonsky, 1992; 1993).

Identity style and intimacy. Although no studies to date have focused on identity style and intimacy in a romantic relationship sense specifically, it is logical to consider that the research on identity status and romantic attachment style would guide assumptions concerning identity style and attachment. Berzonsky and Neimeyer (1994) have commented that structure and process cannot be considered independent. Just as the commitments that might arise through an identity structure (e.g., marriage or occupation) are influenced by the decision and problem-solving strategies associated with a given identity style, those processes are then governed by these very same commitments. Thus, it seems reasonable to suggest that the relationship between identity style and romantic attachment style would be similar in nature to identity status and romantic attachment. For example, a higher identity style (information) would likely be associated with a greater capacity for intimacy, based on the research data suggesting that individuals with an informational identity style have a greater capacity for openness, agreeableness, problem-solving, and self-reflection (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). In addition, it has been noted that the informational identity style bears the hallmarks of the achievement identity status (Streitmatter, 1993) and that

individuals with an achievement identity status demonstrate a deeper level of intimacy than less advanced identity statuses (Fitch & Adams, 1983).

Goals of the Present Research

The present research was exploratory in nature and had several goals predicated on the extant literature concerning identity style, Erikson's model of psychosocial development, attachment style, and the above noted question of gender differences in relation to identity style.

The primary goal was to determine what, if any, associations emerge between identity style as measured by the Identity Style Inventory – Grade six reading level (ISI-6G; White et al., 1998) and adult romantic attachment style for men and women across three levels of adult age range: young adults (18-40 years), middle-aged adults (40-60 years), and the elderly (61 years and up). Attachment style was assessed through the Relationship Styles Questionnaire (RSQ; Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994), which examines romantic attachment style on two dimensions. The first is the individual's model of self and can be conceived of as dependence, whereas the second is an individuals' model of others and can be thought of as avoidance (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1994). Both dimensions capture a low (or positive) level and a high (or negative) level, as is illustrated in Figure 1 (from Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 227).

Figure 1.

Batholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model of adult attachment.

A Two-Dimensional Model of Adult Romantic Attachment

		Model of Self (Dependency)	
		Positive (low)	Negative (high)
Model of Other (**Avoidance**)	Positive (low)	Cell I **Secure**: Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	Cell II **Preoccupied**: Preoccupied with relationships
	Negative (high)	Cell III **Dismissing**: Dismissing of intimacy; counter-dependent	Cell IV **Fearful**: Fearful of intimacy; socially avoidant

According to this model, individuals are thought to demonstrate distinct relationship behavior patterns depending on their respective attachment style. For the *secure* individual, evaluation of self and others is positive, intimacy is valued, and a well-developed level of personal autonomy allows the secure individual to remain comfortable in the absence of the attachment object. For the *preoccupied* individual, evaluation of others is positive, whereas evaluation of the self is negative. These individuals are not comfortable with autonomy and are enmeshed in their relationships, seeking validation through attachment objects. Individuals with a *fearful* attachment style are thought to place a negative value on the self and others, leading to a sense of unworthiness as well as a fear of others as untrustworthy and rejecting. They are uncomfortable with either autonomy or intimacy. Finally, those with a dismissing attachment style are said to evaluate themselves positively, but others negatively, leading to a tendency to reject intimacy yet experience a sense of self as love-worthy. They protect themselves from disappointment by eschewing close relations with potential intimates and vigilantly maintaining their autonomy (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Given the above-mentioned information regarding links between identity status and intimacy (e.g., Fitch & Adams, 1983), it is reasonable to predict that similar associations might emerge between measures of attachment style and identity style. However, it should be noted that Fitch and Adams (1983) used a five-category measure of intimacy developed by Orlofsky, Marcia, and Lesser (1973), not the four-category RSQ developed by Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) that will be employed in the present research.

A second goal for the present research will be to assess for stage of psychosocial development in an Eriksonian framework. For this purpose, the Inventory of Psychosocial Balance (IPB; Domino & Affonso, 1990) will be employed. The IPB assesses all eight of

Erikson's stages, but for the present research, only the stages considered directly relevant will be used. These are: basic trust versus mistrust, autonomy versus shame and doubt, identity versus role confusion, intimacy versus isolation, and generativity versus stagnation (Domino & Affonso, 1990). The objective of assessing for psychosocial stage is twofold: first, to explore the relationship between stage of development and attachment style, and second, to use as an outcome measure in relation to identity style. The importance of the latter objective is to confirm the link between Erikson's psychosocial stage construct and the dynamic model of identity style as developed by Berzonsky. In other words, if identity style is a better reflection of Erikson's concept, this should be reflected in the data by positive results.

With respect to the first objective, it might be predicted that individuals who have successfully resolved the stages of trust, autonomy, identity, and intimacy will demonstrate a higher level of attachment style (i.e., secure) than individuals who have not successfully resolved these crises (Erikson, 1959). Conversely, an individual who may never have resolved basic trust issues, might be observed with a dismissing attachment style and evince a quality of mistrust of others where intimacy is concerned (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

The second objective is to use psychosocial stage as an outcome variable of identity style. That is, individuals with an informational identity style might be found to have successfully resolved Erikson's identity stage; conversely, diffuse/avoidant individuals would be expected to have unsuccessfully resolved that crisis (Erikson, 1959).

METHOD

Participants

The participants for this research project were men and women from the Prince George region from the age of 18 years and up (range = 18 to 85). Participants were grouped in age categories of 18 – 40 (young adults), 41 – 60 (middle-aged adults), and 61 years and older (seniors). The goal of the project was to recruit approximately 90 men and 90 women in each age category in order to acquire approximately 30 participants in each age range in each Identity Style (Information, Normative, and Diffuse; see Measures section for more detail).

Recruitment took place in a number of ways. Participants were drawn from: 1) the UNBC Psychology student subject pool; 2) advertisements in local media, such as radio, television, and newspapers; 3) circulation to various community agencies dealing with seniors, such as intermediate- and long-term care facilities, local health nurses, and others that go out to seniors' homes in the community; 4) businesses and service agencies that have large staffs, such as RCMP, PGRH, Telus, CNC, etc.; 5) local community service associations (e.g., Elks Club, Kiwanis, Rotarians, etc.); and, 6) a mail out of 1,000 surveys sent to names that were randomly selected from an existing database. Precautions were taken to ensure the young adult age group was not entirely made up of participants from the UNBC student subject pool.

Recruitment efforts yielded a research sample of 388 individuals, although the above mentioned target of equal representation in each age category and identity style was not met. For example, participants from the senior age category were much more difficult to recruit than it was presumed that they would be. As well, the young adult participants were also

more difficult to recruit, with over half the young adults coming from the UNBC student subject pool. Finally, the mail out yielded a return rate of 22% and given the relatively young age of the population of Prince George (modal age group is 25 – 44; Statistics Canada, 2001), fewer senior adults returned surveys than was hoped. Table 1 summarizes the demographic information for the research sample based on a Demographic Questionnaire completed by each participant (see Appendix A).

Table 1. *Demographic information for participants.*

Variable	Frequency	Percent	*M*	*SD*
Age (overall)			41.38	17.45
Age Groups				
Young Adult	185	47.7	26.10	6.712
Middle Adult	134	34.5	48.60	6.684
Senior Adult	69	17.8	68.33	7.043
Gender				
Male	166	42.8		
Female	222	57.2		
Mother Tongue*				
English	354	91.2		
Other	27	7		
Ethnicity*				
Aboriginal	8	2.1		
Asian	4	1.0		
Caucasian	336	86.6		
Black (other than African)	2	0.5		
African-Canadian	2	0.5		
Other	22	5.7		
Marital Status*				
Married/common-law	186	47.9		

Table continues

Table 1 cont.

Single	31	8.1
Divorced	129	33.9
Separated	16	4.2
Widowed	19	5.0
Level of Education*		
Elementary school	10	2.6
Secondary school	35	9.0
High school diploma	72	18.6
Trade/Technical	33	8.5
Some college	41	10.6
College diploma	49	12.6
Some university	85	21.9
University degree	49	12.6
Other	13	3.4
Level of Work*		
Full-time	200	51.5
Part-time	79	20.4
Retired	43	11.1
Unemployed	49	12.6

Note. N = 388
* denotes that percentage does not equal 100 due to missing data

Procedure

Surveys were disseminated in a variety of ways. First, a mail-out of 1,000 questionnaire packages with prepaid return envelopes was conducted with names supplied from a list of randomly drawn local addresses. The return rate was 18.3%. Second, a local newspaper and radio station provided coverage of the research project through a print article in the first case and a series of public notices in the latter. The newspaper article and radio announcements asked for volunteers and informed the public as to how they might participate. Third, students at the University of Northern British Columbia enrolled in an introductory Psychology course were advised of an opportunity to enlist in the project and participate in order to receive extra course credit. Fourth, a number of agencies (e.g., senior centers, intermediate care facilities, and adult daycare agencies) in Prince George were approached in an effort to acquire as many senior adults as possible to volunteer for the project. Fifth, colleagues and other individuals with access to large numbers of potential participants were given survey packages to disseminate in an informal manner. Respondents to newspaper advertisements and radio and TV segments (as well as those contacted by word-of-mouth) were given the option of: 1) going to the UNBC lab to complete the questionnaires; 2) having them brought to their residence; or, 3) picking up questionnaire packages from the university (sent back by pre-paid envelope). University students enlisted from the Psychology subject pool were surveyed in a group setting. Attention was paid to research ethics and participants were briefed on informed consent (see informed consent form in Appendix B) as well as debriefing, which consisted of a brief description of the overview of the project's main research objectives with an emphasis on the participant's contribution to an analysis of broad trends versus individual traits or characteristics.

Measures

Participants completed the following questionnaires which were bound together as a package with the order counterbalanced across participants.

Identity Style Inventory: Sixth Grade Reading Level (ISI-6G). The ISI-6G (White et al., 1998; see Appendix C) consists of 40 sentences regarding the individual's identity style. The statements reflect the individual's cognitive processes marshaled in response to the demands at various life stages or developmental crises (White et al., 1998). Eleven items center around the information style, nine for the normative style, 10 for the diffuse style, and 10 for the commitment scale (a secondary analysis sub-scale used to determine style when two identity styles receive the same mean score). Respondents are asked to indicate agreement/disagreement with item statements by rating them on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

The ISI-6G categorizes participants into one of three discrete identity styles: Information, Normative, or Diffuse/Avoidant. Scoring involved the computation of a mean rating (raw score) for each scale, conversion into Z-scores (using the present research sample population mean), and assignment to a particular identity style based on the highest Z-score. Internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) has been reported as good by varying sources. For example, Berzonsky (1992) reported Cronbach al.phas ranging from .62 for Information to .79 for Diffuse/Avoidant (Berzonsky, 1994). White et al. (1998) reported internal reliability of .59 for Information style, .64 for Normative and .78 for Diffuse/Avoidant. Test-retest reliability over a two-month span has been reported at .71 for Diffuse/Avoidant and .75 for Information style. Evidence for convergent validity between the ISI-6G and the original ISI is excellent (Information, $r = .81$; Normative, $r = .85$; Diffuse/Avoidant, $r = .85$; all

correlations significant to $p = .001$). The ISI-6G is considered valid for the purpose of assessing identity style (Berzonsky, 1993; Streitmatter, 1993).

The Identity Style Inventory has three identity style subscales and a fourth subscale that measures what has been termed identity *commitment* (White et al., 1998). The commitment subscale items are intermingled with the three identity style items, but are scored separately with their own mean and z-score. The commitment subscale is used for secondary analyses after, or in addition to, the primary analyses to determine an individual's level of commitment to his or her particular identity style. Examples of commitment sub-scale items are, ""People need to be committed to a set of values to live a full life" and "I have a strong set of beliefs that I use when I make decisions" (White et al., 1998). Although White et al. (1998) envisioned diffuse/avoidant individuals as being low on the measure of commitment and normative individuals as measuring high, the aspect of commitment was seen as separate from the primary measure of identity style (see Figure 1, p. 226, White et al., 1998). For example, individuals assessed as possessing an information identity style could be either high or low on a measure of commitment. Indeed, Berzonsky (1989) and Streitmatter (1993) stated that when comparing the concepts of ego identity status and ego identity style, a significant, positive correlation between the information identity style and the moratorium identity status only appeared once commitment was statistically controlled for. Thus, commitment might be best thought of in the context of identity style as the dedication to one's particular social-cognitive information processing style. In this sense, it should be considered an aspect of identity structure as opposed to process since it appears to act as a mechanism by which one adheres to a given identity style process. Broadly speaking, the ISI-6G commitment scale reflects an individual's ability to make a commitment to the

contributing source(s) of their identity model. Whereas diffuse/avoidant individuals exhibit a lack of identity orientated commitments, normative individuals form commitments to authority figures and powerful others and information individuals to aspects of their own process of exploration (Schwartz et al., 2000).

Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). The BSRI was designed to assess the degree of masculinity and femininity exhibited by an individual by their endorsement of adjectives reflecting aspects of gender socialization (Bem, 1981; see Appendix D). The short form consists of 30 items, 10 of which measure characteristics that are stereotypically masculine, and 10 items that are stereotypically feminine (the remaining 10 items are neutral "fillers"). Examples of stereotypic feminine sex role adjectives include "shy", "loyal", "sympathetic" and "warm". Examples of stereotypical masculine sex role adjectives include "dominant", "aggressive", "ambitious", and "analytical". Respondents indicate how accurately an item describes themselves on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 7 (Always or almost always true of me). Raw scores computed by adding the 10 masculine statements and the 10 feminine statements are compared to a median split score calculated from the research sample (Lenney, 1991). Individuals with a higher raw score for feminine items, but a lower raw score for masculine items would be categorized as Feminine. Those with raw scores higher than the median split on the masculine items, but lower than the split on the feminine items would be classed as Masculine. Those with both masculine and feminine raw scores higher than the median split would be classed as Androgynous, whereas if both raw scores were lower than the split, the individual would be classed as Undifferentiated. The BSRI regards masculinity and femininity as two distinct

characteristics rather than points on a single continuum, and thus, an individual can be scored as high or low on both aspects.

Bem (1974) computed a coefficient alpha from a sample of 444 males and 279 females; (Masculinity = .86; Femininity =.80). Wilson and Cook (1984; cited in Lenney, 1991) found internal reliability for the BSRI of .88 for Masculinity and .78 for Femininity. Test-retest reliability over a 4-week interval was very good at .90 for both Masculinity and Femininity (Bem, 1974). Determining validity, particularly convergent validity, is a complicated matter with the BSRI as other instruments that attempt to assess the expression of gender tend to define sex roles differently, making direct comparison difficult if not impossible (Bem, 1974). However, Bem's results from her Stanford norming study suggest that masculinity and femininity are independent constructs. In the Stanford study, a low correlation was seen between men's total sex role inventory scores and the femininity scale and women's total sex role inventory scores and the masculinity scale ($r = .11$ and $r = -.14$, respectively; Bem, 1974). Moreover, the BSRI appears to be free from response set and low and nonsignificant correlations were found between masculinity, femininity, and androgyny T-scores and social desirability scales (Bem, 1974). The BSRI is believed to have good discriminant validity (Lenney, 1991). Although items were not selected to differentiate between respondents on the basis of biological sex, the genders do differ in their scale scores, with men scoring significantly higher on the masculinity scale and women scoring significantly higher on the femininity scale (Bem, 1974). Finally, several studies support the BSRI on the matter of concurrent and predictive validity (Bem, 1974).

Relationship Scale Questionnaire (RSQ). The RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; see Appendix E) consists of 30 brief statements culled from Hazen and Shaver's (1987)

attachment measures, Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) Relationship Questionnaire, and Collins and Read's (1990) Adult Attachment Scale. Respondents rate the descriptiveness of each statement for their relationship style in romantic relationships on a 5-point Likert scale. Relationship styles consist of Secure, Preoccupied, Dismissing, and Fearful. Styles are determined by calculating the mean scores for those items representative of each style. The RSQ is not a categorical measure of relationship style, but yields four separate measures as continuous variables. Test-retest reliability appears adequate, with stability over periods of two weeks to four years in the .60 range (Brennan & Bosson, 1998). Internal consistency also appears to be adequate, with consistent results emerging from various studies employing the RSQ (e.g., Brennan & Bosson, 1998). The validity of the RSQ has been established by several studies (see Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994, for a review).

The Inventory of Psychosocial Balance (IPB). Developed by Domino and Affonso (1990; see Appendix F), the IPB is intended to measure all eight of Erikson's stages of psychosocial development. The IPB consists of 120 items using a five-point Likert-type scale assessing the eight stages (trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, identity, intimacy, generativity, and ego integrity) with each sub-scale based on 15 items. For the purposes of this research project, only five sub-scales were relevant: Trust, Autonomy, Identity, Intimacy, and Generativity. Ego Integrity, the last stage, was also part of the questionnaire, but was not used in the analysis because of the relatively small sample size for the late adults and because this sub-scale would not be relevant for the other early and middle adults. Each sub-scale consists of 15 items, which are added up to form a raw score, providing a continuous variable.

The IPB is considered appropriate for adolescents and adults (Domino & Affonso, 1990). Coefficient alpha ratings resulting from testing with the first college student norming population for the sub-scales ranged from .74 for Industry to .48 for Autonomy with between-samples correlations ranging from .90 for Initiative to .78 for Ego Integrity (Domino & Affonso, 1990). It is important to note that similar results emerged from further testing with different populations (i.e., community adults and a sample of elderly people). Domino and Affonso (1990) cite various sources for support of the IPB validity and conclude that the IPB is a valid instrument for the purpose of assessing lifespan development from an Eriksonian perspective.

RESULTS

Overview of the Analyses

All data from the test instruments were entered item-by-item. The data were then screened for possible problems with normality, homogeneity of variance, outliers, and missing data. No significant problems were identified, and the data were found to fall within acceptable parameters according to the standards described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). Although the distributions for some variables showed skewness (e.g., IPB scales for Basic trust and Generativity), a decision was made to analyze the raw data rather than transformed data because data transformations provided only marginal improvement in skewness (or similar skewness in the opposite direction). Departure from normality was also checked with the Kolmogorov – Smirnov statistic (with Lilliefors Significance Correction), and no significant statistics were found. There were a small number of cases in which the missing data exceeded Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) five percent rule (i.e., a recommendation to rectify situations in which more than five percent of data were missing), but there was no indication that the data were missing in a nonrandom fashion. In no case did missing data constitute more than 6.9% of the total data set (e.g., IPB subscale for Autonomy). Additionally, even with missing data, the sample size was deemed sufficient for the present analyses. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that some outliers can be expected in a large sample and are a part of the real-world situation the research sample attempts to emulate. To this end, only data for one participant were eliminated from the study as an outlier due to extreme scores on a large percentage of variables as well as a suspicion that this participant's responses might not have been genuine (reflected a patterned response set). Finally, scatter

plots were examined for troubles in homogeneity of variance. No curvilinear relationships were observed and where a relationship between variables existed, it appeared linear.

Several types of analysis were conducted to adequately address the proposed hypotheses as follows. In all significant multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA), which were followed by univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA), significant effects were followed by examinations of differences between pairs of means using Tukey's HSD tests. An alpha level of .05 was applied for all statistical tests. Means and standard deviations for all variables considered are displayed in appropriate tables that can be found at the end of the Results section.

1. *Identity Processing Style and Relationship Style*: Analyses of variance (multivariate and univariate) were conducted to address the question of whether there were differences in relationship styles as a function of age, gender and identity style category.
2. *Identity Processing Style and Psychosocial Balance*: Analyses of variance (multivariate and univariate) were conducted to address the question of whether there were differences in psychosocial balance as a function of age, gender and identity style category.
3. *Sex-Role Identity and Relationship Style*: Analyses of variance (multivariate and univariate) were conducted to address the question of whether there were differences in relationship styles as a function of age, gender and sex-role identity (Bem class).
4. *Sex-Role Identity and Psychosocial Balance*: Analyses of variance (multivariate and univariate) were conducted to address the question of whether there were

differences in psychosocial balance as a function of age, gender and sex-role identity (Bem class).

5. *Sex-Role Identity and Identity Processing*: A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in participants' identity style commitment scores as a function of Bem class.
6. *Relationship Style and Psychosocial Balance*: A series of regressions were conducted to determine if scores on the various relationship style scales (secure, preoccupied, fearful, avoidant) predicted scores on the psychosocial balance scales.

Identity Processing Style and Relationship Style

Participants' scores on the relationship style scales were analyzed by a 3 (age) by 2 (gender) by 3 (identity style) between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with the four relationship styles (secure, preoccupied, fearful, dismissing) as the dependent variables. This analysis returned a significant multivariate interaction between relationship style and age group, F (6, 672) = 3.19, p = .004, eta-squared = .028. There were no significant multivariate main effects. The means and standard deviations for the multivariate interaction of relationship styles and age group are displayed in Table 2. Although there were no significant differences in relationship style scores as a function of identity style, for interest, the means and standard deviations for the full analysis are presented in Tables 3 through 6.

The significant multivariate interaction of age group and relationship style was examined at the univariate level for each of the four relationship style scales (secure,

preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing). The results of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant main effects of age for the secure and preoccupied relationship styles, F (2, 365) = 8.25, $p < .001$, for secure; F (2, 378) = 13.01, $p < .001$, for preoccupied. Examination of the relevant means for the age main effect for the secure relationship style indicated that young adults reported significantly higher secure relationship style scores than did the oldest adults ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .53$, and $M = 2.91$, $SD = .47$, respectively). In addition, the middle adults reported significantly more security than did the older adults ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .54$, and $M = 2.91$, $SD = .47$, respectively). With respect to the preoccupied relationship style, the young adults reported significantly higher preoccupied relationship scores compared to the middle adults ($M = 2.77$, $SD = .62$ versus $M = 2.48$, $SD = .63$). The young adults also reported greater relationship preoccupation compared to the senior adults ($M = 2.77$, $SD = .62$ versus $M = 2.40$, $SD = .54$).

Secondary analyses that excluded the oldest age group were conducted because the assignment of elderly participants to the identity style categories resulted in too few participants in some categories (e.g., normative females, $n = 6$). As a result, the young adults' and middle adults' relationship style scores (secure, preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing) were analyzed by a multivariate 2 (age group) by 2 (gender) by 3 (identity style) between-subjects design. Analyses revealed significant multivariate interactions between relationship style and age group and between relationship style and gender: for age group, F (3, 285) = 3.68, $p = .013$, partial eta-squared = .037; for gender, F (3, 285) = 4.01, $p = .008$, partial eta-squared = .040.

The significant multivariate interactions between relationship style and age group and between relationship style and gender were examined at the univariate level by conducting

separate one-way ANOVAs for each of the relationship style dependent variables. These analyses revealed a significant main effect of age group for the preoccupied relationship style, F (1, 311) = 16.12, $p < .001$. A comparison of the relevant means for the age group main effect for the preoccupied relationship style indicated that young adults reported significantly higher preoccupied relationship style scores than did the middle adults (M = 2.77, SD = .62 versus M = 2.49, SD = .63, respectively).

The univariate analyses also revealed significant gender effects for two of the relationship style scales: F (1, 311) = 10.60, p = .001, for preoccupied, and F (1, 311) = 6.73, p = .01, for dismissing. Examination of the relevant means for the significant effects of gender indicated that females reported significantly greater scores than did males on the preoccupied relationship style scale (M = 2.75, SD = .66 versus M = 2.52, SD = .58, respectively). Additionally, there was a significant main effect of gender with respect to the dismissing relationship style. Females scored significantly higher compared to males on the dismissing relationship style scale (M = 3.44, SD = .53 versus M = 3.27, SD = .52).

Identity Processing Style and Psychosocial Balance

Another question of interest, given that the present research was seated in an Eriksonian framework, was whether differences in psychosocial balance (as measured by the IPB) would emerge as a function of differences in identity style as well as age group and gender. Again, since certain cells contained too few individuals (e.g., females, senior adults, normative identity style, n = 3), these analyses were conducted employing the first two age groups only (i.e., senior adults were dropped). Thus, the young adults' and middle adults' scores for IPB Eriksonian stage of psychosocial development were analyzed by a

multivariate 2 (age group) by 2 (gender) by 3 (identity style) between-subjects design. Analyses revealed two two-way multivariate interactions. The first interaction was IPB stage by age group, F (4, 274) = 7.67, $p < .001$, partial eta-squared = .101, and the second interaction was IPB stage by gender, F (4, 274) = 4.08, $p = .003$, partial eta-square = .056. The means and standard deviations for this multivariate analysis are displayed in Table 7 through 11.

The significant multivariate interactions between IPB stage and age group and between IPB stage and gender were examined at the univariate level by conducting separate one-way ANOVAs for each of the IPB stage dependent variables. Univariate analyses revealed main effects of age for the basic trust sub-scale, F (1, 302) = 3.99, $p = .047$, and for the generativity sub-scale, F (1, 311) = 9.98, $p = .002$, and a main effect of gender for the intimacy sub-scale, F (1, 305) = 8.85, $p = .003$.

Examination of the relevant means for the age main effects indicated that the middle adult group (M = 57.54, SD = 6.94) demonstrated higher basic trust scores than the young adults (M = 56.00, SD = 6.52). As well, the middle age group (M = 60.82, SD = 5.66) reported higher generativity scores than did the young adult group (M = 58.57, SD = 6.62). For gender, females had higher scores for the intimacy scale (M = 58.45, SD = 7.54) than did males (M = 55.82, SD = 7.88).

Sex-Role Identity and Relationship Styles

The second major question of interest was whether differences in relationship style are, in part, a function of gender versus gender socialization. To explore this matter, a multivariate 4 (Bem sex-role socialization class) by 2 (gender) between-subjects design was

conducted with the four relationship styles (secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing) as the dependent variables. Again, due to the small sample size for some age groups, this time not restricted to the senior group, age was not used as an independent variable. Indeed, for this set of analyses, the senior group was not included because it would have resulted in certain cells with only one individual (e.g., senior adult female with Bem Masculine sex-role class). The analyses employing the young adults and middle age adults returned a significant multivariate interaction of relationship style and Bem sex-role class, F (9, 876) = 5.03, $p <$ .001, partial eta-squared = .049, and a marginally significant interaction of relationship style, Bem sex-role class and gender, F (9, 876) = 1.76, p = .072, partial eta-squared = .018. The means and standard deviations for this analysis are presented in Tables 12 through 15.

The significant multivariate interaction between relationship style and sex-role socialization was examined at the univariate level by conducting separate one-way ANOVAs for each of the relationship style variables. With respect to the univariate analyses, the results demonstrated two significant interactions between Bem class and gender. For the preoccupied relationship style, F (3, 305) = 3.15, p = .025, females were found to have significantly higher scores for the preoccupied relationship style when in the Bem classes of feminine and androgynous, but not masculine or undifferentiated, in comparison to males (see Figure 2). Similarly, females also scored significantly higher for the dismissing relationship style as a function of Bem class, F (3, 305) = 2.78, p = .004. That is, females had higher mean dismissing relationship style scores in the Bem classes of masculine and undifferentiated, but not in the feminine or androgynous (see Figure 3).

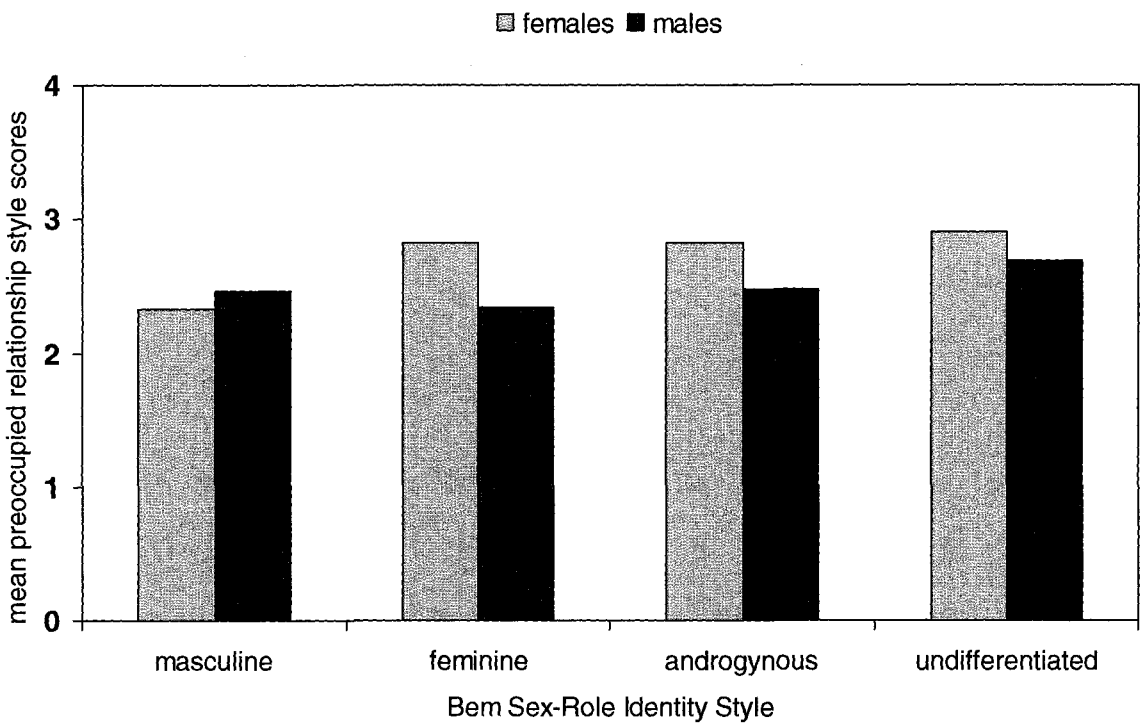

Figure 2. Mean preoccupied relationship style scores as a function of gender.

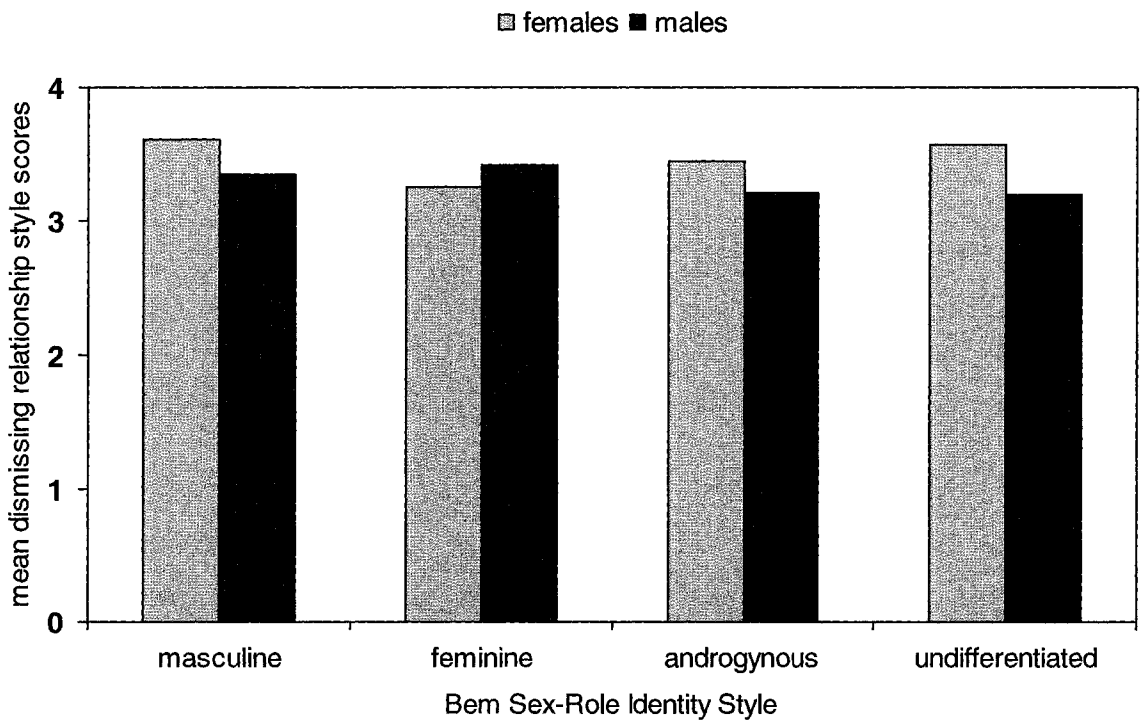

Figure 3. Mean dismissing relationship style scores as a function of gender.

In addition to the interactions, there were two main effects for Bem sex-role class for the remaining two relationship styles, secure and fearful. For the secure style, F (3, 301) = 5.40, p = .001, individuals with a sex-role class of androgynous (M = 3.29, SD = .55) scored significantly higher on the secure relationship style scale than did individuals whose sex-role class was undifferentiated (M = 3.03, SD = .54), but did not score significantly higher than those individuals with a feminine or masculine sex-role class. For the fearful relationship style, F (3, 307) = 7.01, p < .001, individuals with the sex-role class of undifferentiated (M = 2.94, SD = .80) scored significantly higher on the fearful relationship style scale than did those with sex-role class of androgyny (M = 2.53, SD = .80), but not score significantly higher than those with a masculine or feminine sex-role class.

Sex-Role Identity and Psychosocial Balance

Another aspect of interest to the current project is the possible relationship between Bem classification and psychosocial balance. Specifically, the goal was to assess psychosocial balance (i.e., Eriksonian stage) as a function of Bem class versus gender. To test this, a multivariate 4 (Bem class) by 2 (gender) between-subjects design was run with IPB stages as the dependent variables. Results indicated a significant multivariate interaction between psychosocial balance and Bem class as well as between psychosocial balance and gender; for IPB scales and Bem class, F (12, 840) = 5.02, p < .001, for IPB scales and gender, F (4, 278) = 2.93, p = .021. The means and standard deviations for this analysis are displayed in Table 16 through 20.

The significant multivariate interactions between IPB scales and sex-role class and between IPB scales and gender were examined at the univariate level by conducting separate one-way ANOVAs for each of the IPB scales. For gender, only the IPB scale of intimacy proved significant, F (1, 305) = 8.85, p = .003, with females (M = 58.45, SD = 7.54) having higher mean scores for intimacy than males (M = 55.82, SD = 7.88). With respect to Bem class, all five IPB scales were significant and in every case, individuals with a sex-role class of androgyny proved to have the higher mean score (see Table 21 for F-scores and p-values).

Although individuals with a sex-role class of androgyny provided the highest mean scores for the IPB scales, they were not higher than all other Bem classes in all cases. For basic trust, individuals' androgyny scores were significanlty higher (M = 60.06, SD = 5.27) than the other three classes (masculine: M = 54.84, SD = 6.14; feminine: M = 57.49, SD = 5.79; undifferentiated: M = 53.53, SD = 6.28). For autonomy, androgyny (M = 51.06, SD = 3.84) was significantly higher than femininity (M = 47.64, SD = 4.15) and undifferentiated (M = 47.78, SD = 4.06) but was not higher than masculinity. Similarly, for identity, androgyny (M = 55.53, SD = 6.51) was significantly higher than femininity (M = 53.15, SD = 5.45) and undifferentiated (M = 51.01, SD = 5.653), but not significantly higher than masculinity. In the psychosocial stage of intimacy, androgyny (M = 60.34, SD = 6.03) was significantly higher than masculinity (M = 55.65, SD = 7.10) and undifferentiated (M = 53.18, SD = 7.72), but not significantly higher than femininity. Finally, androgyny (M = 62.58, SD = 5.74) did not surpass femininity for the scale of generativity, but was significantly higher than masculinity (M = 58.444, SD = 5.592) and undifferentiated (M = 56.39, SD = 5.83).

Sex-role socialization and identity style subscale of commitment. A further question of interest corresponded to a subscale of the identity style questionnaire that refers to secondary analyses, namely the *commitment* component of identity style. To assess level of ego identity style commitment within the sample, a one-way ANOVA was performed with Bem class as the independent variable and the identity style commitment measure as the dependent variable.

The univariate results indicated a significant between-subjects difference, F (3, 377) = 16.53, $p < .001$. Individuals with the Bem class of androgyny ($M = 4.04$, $SD = .61$) scored significantly higher on the measure of identity style commitment than those in the other three classes (masculine: $M = 3.74$, $SD = .61$, feminine: $M = 3.79$, $SD = .58$; undifferentiated: $M = 3.45$, $SD = .60$). Those individuals in the undifferentiated class scored significantly lower on this measure than the other three sex-role classes (masculine, feminine, and androgyny). There were no significant differences between masculine and feminine or between masculine and feminine and the other two classes except where already noted (i.e., both lower than androgyny and greater than undifferentiated).

Prediction of Eriksonian Stage as a Function of Relationship Style

The final section of results pertains to a series of standard linear regressions performed with mean relationship style scores as the predictor variables and IPB stage as the criterion in five separate regressions (i.e., one for each IPB stage). All regressions performed were conducted in a standard *enter* fashion with no assumption that there was any rationale for prioritizing one relationship style over another for either statistical or theoretical reasons.

Standard multiple regression on Basic Trust. The regression procedure using relationship style scores as predictor variables and the IPB basic trust score as the criterion variable was significant, F (4, 383) = 40.36, $p < .001$. The secure relationship style score was significantly and positively related to the basic trust scale of the IPB, whereas the fearful relationship style was significantly and negatively related to the basic trust scale of the IPB (see Table 22 for details). In other words, higher secure relationship style scores were predictive of a higher IPB basic trust score, whereas higher fearful relationship style scores were predictive of lower basic trust scores. The adjusted R^2 indicates that nearly 30% of variability in IPB basic trust scores can be accounted for by differences in relationship style scores. Dismissing and preoccupied relationship style scores were not significant although they approached significance as predictors of IPB basic trust scores ($p = .054$; see Table 22 for details)

Standard multiple regression on Autonomy. The second regression was conducted with the relationship style scores as predictor variables with IPB autonomy score as the criterion variable, yielding a significant result, F (4, 383) = 10.84, $p < .001$. As can be seen in Table 23, all four relationship style scores were significantly related to the criterion. Higher secure and dismissing relationship style scores were predictive of higher IPB scores whereas fearful and preoccupied relationship styles scores were predictive of lower IPB autonomy scores. According to the adjusted R^2, 9.2% of variance in IPB autonomy scores could be explained by differences in relationship style scores.

Standard multiple regression on Identity. The third set of regressions was conducted with the relationship style variables entered as the predictors and the IPB scale of identity as the criterion. This yielded a significant regression, F (8, 334) = 11.39, $p < .001$, with the

relationship styles of secure, fearful, and preoccupied contributing significantly to the regression equation. The secure relationship style was predictive of higher IPB identity scores whereas fearful and preoccupied were predictive of lower IPB identity scores. The adjusted R^2 indicates that 20% of variance in IPB identity scores was attributable to differences in relationship style scores (see Table 24 for details).

Standard multiple regression on Intimacy. The fourth regression was conducted with the relationship style scores as the predictor variables and the IPB score for intimacy as the criterion variable. The regression equation was significant, F (8, 328) = 18.86, $p < .001$. Higher secure relationship style scores were predictive of higher IPB intimacy scores whereas higher fearful relationship style scores were predictive of lower IPB intimacy scores. The adjusted R^2 indicated that 26.6% of variance in IPB intimacy scores was accounted for by differences in relationship style scores (see Table 25 for details).

Standard multiple regression on Generativity. The final standard regression was performed with the relationship styles as predictor variables and the IPB scores for generativity as the criterion; this regression was also significant, F (4, 383) = 8.51, $p < .001$. Higher secure and dismissing relationship style scores were predictive of high IPB generativity scores whereas the fearful relationship style scores were predictive of lower IPB generativity scores. The adjusted R^2 indicates that 7.2% of variance in IPB generativity scores can be attributed to differences in relationship style scores (see Table 26 for details).

Table 2.

Means and standard deviations for the multivariate interaction of age groups and relationship style

Variable	Age group	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Secure	Young adult	3.223	.526	181
	Middle adult	3.109	.537	128
	Senior adult	2.912	.446	59
Fearful	Young adult	2.760	.842	184
	Middle adult	2.651	.784	131
	Senior adult	2.724	.739	66
Preoccupied	Young adult	2.772	.620	182
	Middle adult	2.485	.630	131
	Senior adult	2.404	.543	68
Dismissing	Young adult	3.365	.519	184
	Middle adult	3.378	.553	129
	Senior adult	3.429	.593	69

Table 3.

Means and standard deviations for the secure relationship style as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	3.235	.496	23
		Normative	2.973	.577	22
		Diffused	3.362	.546	21
	female	Information	3.279	.502	38
		Normative	3.152	.446	29
		Diffused	3.251	.539	43
Middle adult	male	Information	3.264	.557	22
		Normative	2.941	.379	17
		Diffused	3.158	.523	19
	female	Information	2.900	.593	16
		Normative	3.057	.545	21
		Diffused	3.300	.494	28
Late adult	male	Information	3.025	.225	8
		Normative	3.125	.413	8
		Diffused	2.923	.265	13
	female	Information	2.756	.384	9
		Normative	2.800	.876	6
		Diffused	2.908	.514	13

Note: $N = 365$

Table 4

Means and standard deviations for the fearful relationship style as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	2.804	.727	23
		Normative	2.591	.915	22
		Diffused	2.667	.946	21
	female	Information	2.579	.830	38
		Normative	3.086	.914	29
		Diffused	2.808	.763	43
Middle adult	male	Information	2.682	.839	22
		Normative	2.971	.712	17
		Diffused	2.632	.658	19
	female	Information	2.594	.903	16
		Normative	2.774	.770	21
		Diffused	2.438	.876	28
Late adult	male	Information	2.472	.824	9
		Normative	2.656	.916	8
		Diffused	2.904	.650	13
	female	Information	2.909	.785	11
		Normative	2.821	.641	7
		Diffused	2.641	.730	16

Note: $N = 378$

Table 5

Means and standard deviations for the preoccupied relationship style as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	2.446	.419	23
		Normative	2.682	.524	22
		Diffused	2.714	.704	21
	female	Information	2.816	.657	38
		Normative	2.888	.643	29
		Diffused	2.872	.660	43
Middle adult	male	Information	2.500	.650	22
		Normative	2.206	.435	17
		Diffused	2.500	.666	19
	female	Information	2.703	.813	16
		Normative	2.583	.555	21
		Diffused	2.455	.581	28
Late adult	male	Information	2.417	.545	9
		Normative	2.281	.452	8
		Diffused	2.643	.507	14
	female	Information	2.681	.462	11
		Normative	2.187	.776	8
		Diffused	2.234	.392	16

Note: $N = 378$

Table 6

Means and standard deviations for the dismissing relationship style as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	3.287	.528	23
		Normative	3.200	.390	22
		Diffused	3.229	.511	21
	female	Information	3.352	.521	38
		Normative	3.607	.491	29
		Diffused	3.367	.560	43
Middle adult	male	Information	3.264	.631	22
		Normative	3.353	.536	17
		Diffused	3.316	.590	19
	female	Information	3.700	.593	16
		Normative	3.505	.472	21
		Diffused	3.264	.496	28
Late adult	male	Information	3.356	.371	9
		Normative	3.475	.887	8
		Diffused	3.493	.580	15
	female	Information	3.7545	.537	11
		Normative	3.175	.506	8
		Diffused	3.312	.619	16

Note: $N = 379$

Table 7

Means and standard deviations for the trust psychosocial balance scale as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	56.346	4.757	26
		Normative	55.905	7.272	21
		Diffused	56.200	6.566	20
	female	Information	57.437	6.122	32
		Normative	54.107	7.181	28
		Diffused	56.381	5.686	42
Middle adult	male	Information	57.666	7.783	24
		Normative	54.411	7.890	17
		Diffused	57.722	5.623	18
	female	Information	56.769	7.293	13
		Normative	58.090	6.217	22
		Diffused	60.307	6.417	26
Late adult	male	Information	57.555	3.644	9
		Normative	68.625	6.069	8
		Diffused	55.214	4.995	14
	female	Information	56.400	3.534	10
		Normative	57.400	2.302	5
		Diffused	54.786	6.091	14

Note: $N = 364$

Table 8

Means and standard deviations for the autonomy psychosocial balance scale as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	51.077	4.307	26
		Normative	49.952	4.318	21
		Diffused	48.050	4.260	20
	female	Information	49.437	4.557	32
		Normative	50.535	5.036	28
		Diffused	49.047	4.958	42
Middle adult	male	Information	49.500	3.297	24
		Normative	48.882	5.500	17
		Diffused	49.500	3.417	18
	female	Information	47.692	5.006	13
		Normative	48.773	4.385	22
		Diffused	49.461	3.901	26
Late adult	male	Information	48.625	2.774	8
		Normative	52.333	5.538	6
		Diffused	49.067	3.058	15
	female	Information	48.800	3.676	10
		Normative	49.667	4.761	6
		Diffused	49.083	3.175	12

Note: $N = 362$

Table 9

Means and standard deviations for the identity psychosocial balance scale as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	53.308	5.221	26
		Normative	52.285	7.830	21
		Diffused	54.500	5.394	20
	female	Information	54.687	6.402	32
		Normative	53.642	6.395	28
		Diffused	52.357	63234	42
Middle adult	male	Information	54.583	5.694	24
		Normative	51.764	6.581	17
		Diffused	57.000	6.164	18
	female	Information	53.000	6.976	13
		Normative	53.818	6.580	22
		Diffused	55.615	5.283	26
Late adult	male	Information	51.889	6.604	9
		Normative	58.143	3.078	7
		Diffused	52.643	6.021	14
	female	Information	51.182	2.401	11
		Normative	55.333	7.840	6
		Diffused	52.000	4.378	13

Note: $N = 370$

Table 10

Means and standard deviations for the intimacy psychosocial balance scale as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	55.923	8.172	26
		Normative	55.761	7.375	21
		Diffused	57.200	7.522	20
	female	Information	59.656	6.057	32
		Normative	58.643	8.301	28
		Diffused	58.286	7.123	42
Middle adult	male	Information	55.833	8.380	24
		Normative	51.235	8.452	17
		Diffused	57.889	7.070	18
	female	Information	56.307	8.219	13
		Normative	59.000	5.380	22
		Diffused	59.231	8.608	26
Late adult	male	Information	57.222	2.991	9
		Normative	57.333	6.563	6
		Diffused	54.643	6.046	14
	female	Information	59.100	6.539	10
		Normative	55.800	4.604	5
		Diffused	56.357	8.111	14

Note: $N = 365$

Table 11

Means and standard deviations for the generativity psychosocial balance scale as a function of age, gender, and identity style.

Age group	gender	ID style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Young adult	male	Information	57.807	6.209	26
		Normative	57.190	5.537	21
		Diffused	57.750	6.648	20
	female	Information	60.625	5.493	32
		Normative	61.285	4.965	28
		Diffused	57.548	7.068	42
Middle adult	male	Information	60.667	5.924	24
		Normative	59.294	5.565	17
		Diffused	61.389	5.392	18
	female	Information	60.615	7.309	13
		Normative	61.045	6.191	22
		Diffused	62.077	5.066	26
Late adults	male	Information	58.778	3.701	9
		Normative	61.500	2.928	8
		Diffused	59.600	5.591	15
	female	Information	62.545	4.865	11
		Normative	60.429	4.315	7
		Diffused	62.143	4.801	14

Note: $N = 377$

Table 12

Means and standard deviations for the secure relationship style as a function of Bem class and gender (for two age groups only)

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	3.109	.463	46
	Feminine	3.043	.472	14
	Androgynous	3.343	.587	35
	Undifferentiated	3.035	.567	34
Female	Masculine	3.065	.552	34
	Feminine	3.272	.461	58
	Androgynous	3.343	.523	49
	Undifferentiated	3.021	.558	39

Note: $N = 367$

Table 13

Means and standard deviations for the fearful relationship style as a function of Bem class and gender (for two age groups only)

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	2.878	.689	47
	Feminine	2.634	.828	15
	Androgynous	2.336	.788	35
	Undifferentiated	2.907	.772	35
Female	Masculine	2.772	.801	34
	Feminine	2.605	.884	62
	Androgynous	2.536	.776	49
	Undifferentiated	3.079	.820	38

Note: $N = 379$

Table 14

Means and standard deviations for the preoccupied relationship style as a function of Bem class and gender (for two age groups only)

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	2.469	.547	48
	Feminine	2.350	.611	15
	Androgynous	2.479	.654	35
	Undifferentiated	2.693	.532	35
Female	Masculine	2.328	.739	32
	Feminine	2.823	.647	62
	Androgynous	2.823	.660	48
	Undifferentiated	2.901	.467	38

Note: $N = 379$

Table 15

Means and standard deviations for the dismissing relationship style as a function of Bem class and gender (for two age groups only)

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	3.345	.475	47
	Feminine	3.413	.456	15
	Androgynous	3.211	.619	35
	Undifferentiated	3.200	.492	34
Female	Masculine	3.618	.584	33
	Feminine	3.248	.489	62
	Androgynous	3.449	.463	49
	Undifferentiated	3.568	.523	38

Note: $N = 380$

Table 16

Means and standard deviations for the trust psychosocial balance scale as a function of gender and sex-role (Bem) class

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	54.750	5.502	52
	Feminine	58.150	5.566	20
	Androgynous	60.000	5.563	46
	Undifferentiated	54.390	6.636	41
	Total	56.604	6.310	159
Female	Masculine	54.156	8.402	32
	Feminine	57.243	5.661	74
	Androgynous	60.145	5.024	55
	Undifferentiated	52.930	5.444	43
	Total	56.632	6.519	204
Total	Masculine	54.524	6.712	84
	Feminine	57.436	5.623	94
	Androgynous	60.079	5.293	101
	Undifferentiated	53.643	6.063	84
	Total	56.620	6.149	363

Table 17

Means and standard deviations for the autonomy psychosocial balance scale as a function of gender and sex-role (Bem) class

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	50.370	4.015	54
	Feminine	47.900	4.038	20
	Androgynous	51.174	3.996	46
	Undifferentiated	48.051	3.769	39
	Total	49.723	4.147	159
Female	Masculine	51.061	4.690	33
	Feminine	47.605	4.403	76
	Androgynous	51.036	3.671	55
	Undifferentiated	47.605	4.240	38
	Total	49.104	4.538	202
Total	Masculine	50.632	4.270	87
	Feminine	47.667	4.311	96
	Androgynous	51.100	3.804	101
	Undifferentiated	47.831	3.988	77
	Total	49.377	4.375	361

Table 18

Means and standard deviations for the identity psychosocial balance scale as a function of gender and sex-role (Bem) class

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	55.204	5.475	54
	Feminine	52.800	4.640	20
	Androgynous	54.867	7.175	45
	Undifferentiated	51.902	5.843	41
	Total	53.962	6.117	160
Female	Masculine	52.471	7.659	35
	Feminine	53.000	5.799	77
	Androgynous	56.071	5.647	56
	Undifferentiated	50.195	5.330	41
	Total	53.182	6.315	209
Total	Masculine	54.124	6.522	89
	Feminine	52.959	5.558	97
	Androgynous	55.535	6.368	101
	Undifferentiated	51.049	5.624	82
	Total	53.520	6.234	369

Table 19

Means and standard deviations for the intimacy psychosocial balance scale as a function of gender and sex-role (Bem) class

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	55.453	6.888	53
	Feminine	57.950	6.984	20
	Androgynous	59.222	6.557	45
	Undifferentiated	51.854	7.505	41
	Total	55.906	7.464	159
Female	Masculine	55.771	8.768	35
	Feminine	59.000	6.966	76
	Androgynous	61.481	5.351	54
	Undifferentiated	54.564	7.649	39
	Total	58.255	7.476	204
Total	Masculine	55.580	7.644	88
	Feminine	58.781	6.947	96
	Androgynous	60.454	6.006	99
	Undifferentiated	53.175	7.650	80
	Total	57.226	7.551	363

Table 20

Means and standard deviations for the generativity psychosocial balance scale as a function of gender and sex-role (Bem) class

Gender	Bem class	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Male	Masculine	58.907	4.954	54
	Feminine	61.540	4.285	20
	Androgynous	61.021	5.451	47
	Undifferentiated	56.405	6.293	42
	Total	59.184	5.682	163
Female	Masculine	57.176	8.494	34
	Feminine	60.900	4.793	80
	Androgynous	63.821	5.353	56
	Undifferentiated	56.442	5.053	43
	Total	60.174	6.345	213
Total	Masculine	58.238	6.560	88
	Feminine	61.010	4.680	100
	Androgynous	62.544	5.551	103
	Undifferentiated	56.423	5.666	85
	Total	59.745	6.079	376

Table 21

ANOVA results for IPB scales as a function of Bem class

Dependent variable	*df*	*F-score*	*p-value*	η^2
Basic trust	3, 330	23.733	< .001	.192
Autonomy	3, 301	17.076	< .001	.145
Identity	3, 306	9.414	< .001	.084
Intimacy	3, 303	16.996	< .001	.144
Generativity	3, 309	19.852	< .001	.162

Table 22

Standard Multiple Regression of Relationship Styles on IPB Subscale of Basic Trust (N = 388)

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Secure RS	3.386*	.582	.280	.059
Fearful RS	-3.106*	.375	-.398	.138
Preoccupied RS	-.886	.459	-.089	.010
Dismissing RS	.751	.533	.065	.003
			$R^2 = .296$	
		Adjusted	$R^2 = .289$	
			$R = .545$	

*$p < .001$

Table 23

Standard Multiple Regression of Relationship Styles on IPB Subscale of Autonomy (N = 388)

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Secure RS	1.241*	.446	.151	0.018
Fearful RS	-.573*	.287	-.108	0.009
Preoccupied RS	-1.806**	.352	-.267	0.061
Dismissing RS	1.339*	.409	.171	0.027
			$R^2 = .102$	
		Adjusted	$R^2 = .092$	
			$R = .319$	

* $p < .05$, **$p < .001$

Table 24

Standard Multiple Regression of Relationship Styles on IPB Subscale of Identity (N = 388)

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Secure RS	2.517*	.604	.212	.036
Fearful RS	-2.087*	.389	-.273	.060
Preoccupied RS	-2.563*	.477	-.262	.060
Dismissing RS	.879	.554	.078	.005
			$R^2 = .208$	
		Adjusted	$R^2 = .200$	
			$R = .456$	

*$p < .001$

Table 25

Standard Multiple Regression of Relationship Styles on IPB Subscale of Intimacy (N = 383)

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Secure RS	4.160*	.696	.292	.068
Fearful RS	-3.406*	.449	-.371	-.110
Preoccupied RS	-.132	.549	-.011	-.000
Dismissing RS	.824	.638	.061	.003
			$R^2 = .273$	
		Adjusted	$R^2 = .266$	
			$R = .523$	

*$p < .001$

Table 26

Standard Multiple Regression of Relationship Styles on IPB Subscale of Generativity (N = 383)

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β	sr^2
Secure RS	2.108*	.642	.180	.026
Fearful RS	-1.343*	.414	-.178	.025
Preoccupied RS	-.764	.507	-.079	.005
Dismissing RS	1.880**	.588	.169	.024
			R^2 = .082	
		Adjusted	R^2 = .072	
			R = .286	

*p = .001, **p = .002

DISCUSSION

The goal of this study was to examine the possible associations among Berzonsky's concept of ego identity style, Bem's sex-role identity, and relationship style as conceived of by Bartholomew and Horowitz, within the broader context of Erikson's psychosocial stages of development. As such, the project yielded mixed results, for although there were data that supported an association between sex-role identity and relationship style, the evidence did not support a connection between ego identity style and relationship style. Similarly, an association between sex-role identity and stage of psychosocial balance emerged, but an association between identity style processing and psychosocial balance was not supported.

The hypotheses under examination were that there would be: differences in (1) relationship style and (2) psychosocial balance as a function of age, gender, and identity style category; differences in (3) relationship style and (4) psychosocial balance as a function of age, gender, and sex-role identity; (5) differences in identity style commitment scores as a function of sex-role identity; and, (6) that scores on the four relationship style scales (secure, fearful, preoccupied, and avoidant) predict scores on the psychosocial balance scales. These hypotheses will be discussed from the perspective of the support each garnered from the evidence presented in the results section.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis stated that differences in relationship style would vary as a function of age, gender, and ego identity style, with the latter concept a form of social-cognitive processing developed by Berzonsky (1989) as a dynamic alternative to the static concept of ego identity status conceived of by Marcia (1966). This hypothesis arose out of

earlier findings by Orlofsky, Marcia, and Lesser (1973) and Fitch and Adams (1983) indicating that the more advanced the individual's identity status (e.g., achieved status), the greater that individual's capacity for intimacy. Thus, it was presumed that a similar connection would be found between identity style and the capacity for intimacy in which individuals with a more advanced identity style category (e.g., informational) would demonstrate a greater capacity for intimacy (as measured by the Relationship Style Questionnaire; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). However, this hypothesis was not supported since an analysis of variance found no significant differences in mean relationship style scores as a function of identity style category.

The failure to find support for the first hypothesis was puzzling in light of prior research (e.g., Orlofsky, Marcia, & Lesser, 1973; Fitch & Adams, 1983), as well as in light of Erikson's (1959; 1994) assertion that true intimacy with self or other was dependent upon, and a natural result of, the successful development of ego identity attained through self-exploration. One possible explanation for the paucity of support for the first hypothesis is that earlier work supporting the ego identity – intimacy link employed the concept of ego identity as a *status* and not as a *style*. Identity status is viewed as a trait that is stable over time, whereas identity style might be more accurately seen as a state that is subject to change over time. The importance of this consideration is that the Relationship Style Questionnaire developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1994) is predicated on the concept of the attachment style that individuals develop in infancy, which is considered stable over the lifespan. Hence, two measures that purport to assess stable traits are more likely to yield evidence of a relationship between the two constructs (where one exists) than two measures wherein one accesses a stable trait and the other does not. In other words, because identity

style describes a social-cognitive processing style that can change over relatively short periods of time (Berzonsky, 1992), there may be no reliable manner for it to map successfully on to a static relationship style as conceived of by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1994). Berzonsky assumed that situational variables, past or potential consequences, and personal preferences constituted motivational factors in the individual's determination of self-relevant information processing style. As stated by Berzonsky (1994, p. 780), "virtually all normal individuals are *capable* of employing all three of the social-cognitive processing strategies [italics original]". Because of this fluidity, identity style may be too flexible a concept to associate with a stable measure of intimacy.

Another possible explanation for the failure to find support for the first hypothesis is that previous research connecting identity and intimacy relied on the Intimacy Interview developed by Orlofsky, Marcia, and Lesser (1973), which was based on Erikson's concept of intimacy. Erikson's concept of intimacy is based upon three separate criteria that consist of demonstrable relationship skills or behaviors (see Fitch & Adams, 1983) and not on any underlying attachment style arising from infancy, as illustrated in the two-dimensional model developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1994). Judging by the findings in the present research, it appears that differing conceptualizations of intimacy do not yield consistent results when examined as a function of ego identity.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that measures of psychosocial balance would vary as a function of age, gender, and identity style category. Although significant multivariate interactions emerged as a function of both age and gender, there were no significant findings

as a function of identity style category. Given that Erikson (1959; 1994) suggested that individuals who have successfully resolved the identity/role confusion crisis will have done so through a process of self-exploration, it was assumed that in the context of the current project, a clear connection should have emerged between the more achieved identity style category (i.e., informational identity style) and higher scores for psychosocial balance.

A possible explanation for a lack of significant results supporting the second hypothesis might again be found in Berzonsky's concept of identity style. If ego identity style is conceived of as a means of social-cognitive processing, which individuals can select according to situational criteria, there is reason to expect that identity style might not be associated with psychosocial balance. Although Erikson assumed that individuals could successfully resolve earlier developmental crises later in life (e.g., positively resolve a trust crisis as an adult), there is nothing in the literature to indicate that one would ever *reverse* this process. For example, once an individual has positively resolved the identity/role confusion crisis, there is no suggestion that the individual would then revert back to an unresolved state in which identity was still in question. Yet, Berzonsky suggested that an individual with an informational identity style could cease their adaptivity and become entrenched in their social-cognitive processing strategies to the extent that their identity style shifts to a normative style in which they become rigid adherents to their own authority.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis addressed the question of whether there are differences in relationship style as a function of gender versus sex-role identity (Bem class). Early attachment studies concluded that there were no gender differences in romantic attachment

style (e.g., Hazen & Shaver, 1987), which was consistent with the paucity of observable gender differences in childhood attachment (e.g., Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wells, 1978). Yet, in recent years, researchers have proposed that there may be gender differences in the quality of one's emotional attachments. For example, a prevalent assumption is that men will more often choose to be more affectively distant and dismissing compared to women (Bem, 1993). The stereotype that men tend to be more distant in relationships has received empirical support, particularly where romantic relationships are concerned (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994). Later research using more continuous measures of attachment, such as the four-category model employed in the current project, provided evidence suggesting that men were significantly more dismissing in their relationship style compared to women (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Similarly, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found that, compared to men, women tended to endorse items on the Relationship Styles Questionnaire indicating a preoccupied relationship style. Finally, Schmitt et al. (2003) found evidence supporting the notion that men are generally more dismissive in their relationship style (again using the four-category rating system of Bartholomew and Horowitz) across a wide array of ethnicities and cultures.

The results from the current project are in agreement with some of the above findings, but contradict others. First, the present results support the notion that women are more preoccupied in relationships than men. Females had mean preoccupied relationship style scores that were significantly higher than the mean scores of their male counterparts when categorized in two of the sex-role identity categories: androgynous and feminine (but not masculine or undifferentiated). However, unlike previous research suggesting that men are more dismissing in relationships, the present results point to opposite conclusions suggesting

that, in fact, women are more dismissing in their relationship style compared to men. Again, this finding is in conjunction with women's sex-role identity, wherein females had significantly higher mean scores for the dismissing relationship style than males did when the women could be categorized as undifferentiated or masculine (but not feminine or androgynous).

Other results indicate that Bem class on its own plays an important role in relationship style scores. For example, subjects with a sex-role class of androgynous scored significantly higher for the secure relationship style compared to those with a sex-role identity of undifferentiated, but not when compared to those with a feminine or masculine sex-role identity. Finally, individuals with the Bem class of undifferentiated scored significantly higher for the fearful relationship style than those in the class of androgyny, but not compared to those with a masculine or feminine sex-role identity.

The consistent opinion concerning the explanation for the relationship style differences in gender is based on perceptions of stereotypical gender-based responses to close or romantic relationships (Collins & Read, 1990). Primarily, men are seen as more strongly oriented towards autonomy and independence than are women (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994), whereas women are seen as more nurturing and expressive of the emotions associated with affiliation than are men (Bem, 1974).

From a socio-cultural perspective, researchers have expected to find that gender-based differences in relationship style would emerge as a function of sex-role ideology (Schmitt et al., 2003). According to this line of thinking, individuals from cultures with more rigid, traditional structures of sex-role ideology would be more likely to adhere to stricter definitions of male-female comparisons associated with relationship styles. Yet, the

evidence indicates that quite the opposite is the case and, indeed, the more liberal and progressive the sex-role culture, the more pronounced the gender-based differences in relationship styles (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). Speculation about this finding rests on the idea that individuals from traditional cultures are far less likely to make across-gender comparisons, whereas those from more progressive sex-role cultures are more likely to make such comparisons and in the process amplify gender differences in attachment orientations (Schmitt et al.., 2003).

Thus, differences in relationship style have been viewed as both a function of gender as well as sex-role socialization; a perspective that is supported by the present research wherein significant interactions emerged between gender and sex-role identity. However, though the available literature contains evidence that can offer an explanation for the current finding that women tend to be more preoccupied in their relationship style compared to men, it does not offer any insight into the finding that women can also be more dismissing in their relationship style compared to men.

Another relationship characteristic credited to women that might offer support for the current findings is the notion that women operate as "gatekeepers" for romantic relationships. For example, Kirkpatrick and Davis noted "the well-established observation that women are typically (although, of course, not necessarily) the maintainers and breakers of relationship" (1994, p. 510). It has also been noted that women initiate divorce twice as often as do men (Rice, 1994), suggesting that women experience greater optimism in their opportunities for future relationships compared to men. As has been stated in Bem's gender schema theory (cited in Hoffman & Borders, 2001), women possess the affective skills essential to manage relationships (e.g., nurturance, willingness to compromise, sensitivity, and affection).

Perhaps it is women's innate sense of possessing these skills that allows them the authority to steer their relationships in whichever direction they decide upon. In this manner, women then fall into two categories of relationship style: those who are preoccupied and those who are dismissive. The first category is marked by a higher degree of feminine sex-role characteristics versus masculine characteristics, whereas the second category is marked by a lower degree of feminine sex-role characteristics versus masculine characteristics. In other words, in the absence of high self-ascribed masculinity, women become the "maintainers" of relationships, but in the absence of high self-ascribed femininity, women become the "breakers" of relationships.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis examined the issue of psychosocial balance as a function of gender versus sex-role identity. Given the lack of available literature addressing this question, this part of the research is completely exploratory and there were few if any assumptions concerning its outcome. Although both gender and Bem class were significantly related to psychosocial balance, sex-role identity demonstrated the greater association. Concerning gender, only the psychosocial stage of intimacy was significantly associated, with females having the higher mean scores compared to males. Given the reports from research into gender differences in relationship capacities in which there is a consistent observation that women exhibit a greater capacity for intimacy than men, this result is not surprising. As for Bem class, all psychosocial stages proved significant, though not in a uniform manner. For example, although the sex-role identity class of androgyny had the highest mean scores on all psychosocial stages, androgyny was significantly greater than

the other three Bem classes (masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated) only in the case of basic trust versus mistrust. Androgyny did not significantly surpass masculinity in the stages of autonomy and identity, nor did it significantly surpass femininity in the stages of intimacy and generativity.

Bem's studies that led to the development of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory were directed more towards the exploration of androgyny as opposed to masculinity and femininity per se (Bem, 1974). She envisioned androgyny as both high masculinity and high femininity present within one individual whereby that individual employs the appropriate trait, whether masculine or feminine, according to circumstances rather than in accordance with a gender schema (Bem, 1977). In this sense, androgynous individuals are equally capable of employing traits of instrumentality as they are traits of expressiveness and communality. Androgyny, then, could be seen as the natural result of adult development in which the individual comes to express a wholeness of personality and capacity, akin to Freud's claim that a normal well-adjusted adult should direct his or her energy towards love and work (cited in Erikson, 1959; 1980). In Bem (1974, p. 156) Freud's sentiments are paraphrased nicely when she claims that the central characteristic of masculinity is a "cognitive focus on getting the job done", whereas the central characteristic for femininity is "affective concern for the welfare of others". When these two sets of traits are combined, as they are in androgynous individuals, the outcome is a person with satisfactory adult capacities for "love" and "work". In other words, androgynous individuals tend to score higher on a measure of psychosocial balance because they have positively resolved the Eriksonian stages in a fashion thought to be required for a person to be able to lead a fruitful adult life (Erikson, 1959; 1980).

Note, however, that some of Erikson's stages appear to represent one side of the masculine – feminine dichotomy more than the other. For example, androgynous individuals did not score significantly higher in the psychosocial stages of autonomy and identity compared to those with a masculine Bem category. According to Choi and Fuqua (2003), those who are sex-typed as either masculine or feminine tend to exhibit traits that conform to social expectations. If it is accepted that autonomy and identity are comparable to independence and individuality, traits often attributed to the masculine sex-role, then it is likely that individuals that can be classified as masculine would tend to endorse items on a measure of psychosocial balance that pertain to those qualities. In a similar manner, androgynous individuals did not score higher on the psychosocial stages of intimacy and generativity compared to those who could be classified as feminine. That is, intimacy and generativity are psychosocial stages marked by involvement with and caring for others (Erikson, 1959; 1980); traits/behaviors that are remarkably similar to the Bem femininity characteristics that include "affectionate", "compassionate", "sensitive to the needs of others", and "loves children" (Bem, 1974).

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis concerned an exploration of the commitment subscale of the Identity Style Questionnaire. Of primary interest was the question of whether sex-role identity would prove to be more strongly associated to commitment than was gender. This hypothesis was supported. The sex-role identity class of androgyny was significantly related to identity style commitment to a greater degree than the other three Bem classes (i.e.,

feminine, masculine, and undifferentiated), whereas the undifferentiated class scored significantly lower than the other three classes.

It is difficult to explain these results, given that there is no prior literature looking at gender differences in the Identity Style Questionnaire commitment subscale, let alone an examination of sex-role identity differences. It is important to remember that the commitment subscale is a measure of one's commitment to one's identity style as opposed to commitment in the broader sense (e.g., relationship or career commitments). Indeed, these results appear contradictory since Berzonsky (1992) notes that a high degree of identity style commitment has been observed to suppress an informational identity style, one that has as its operating principle the tendency to respond to circumstances by weighing options instead of acting in a patterned manner according to the tenets of one's identity style. In other words, an individual high for commitment would likely act in accordance to their identity style regardless of the situation due to what Berzonsky refers to as "structural consolidation of one's self-theory" (1992, p. 773). The reason, then, that the results seem contradictory is that androgynous individuals, like those with an informational identity style, are also expected to respond in accordance with situational demands rather than in a patterned fashion dictated by their gender schema (Bem, 1974). Based on the comparison between the informational identity style and the Bem class of androgyny, it might have been expected that individuals classed as androgynous would have measured lower for the commitment subscale.

An alternative explanation for results indicating that a measure of androgyny is associated with higher commitment scores, and a sex-role category of undifferentiated is associated with lower commitment scores, rests on the make-up of the commitment scale itself. Although the commitment subscale relates to identity style adherence, items on the

subscale refer to broader commitment issues, such as religion, employment, sets of values, and one's future. Thus, it is conceivable that these items might be interpreted by the individual in the context of a broader definition of commitment that could be incorporated into an individual's self-schema. Bem (1987) commented about how sex-typed social information constitutes an important aspect of one's "self-concept", whereas Berzonsky described self-identity as a "self-constructed theory" (Berzonsky, 1992, p. 771). Given that the commitment subscale, though not an identity style in itself, is still a component of identity style, it is possible that these two identity styles (i.e., ego and sex-role) map on to similar attributes. If this is so, then it might be expected that those who measure on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory as undifferentiated may do so in part because they have been unsuccessful in realizing a clear or distinctive self-concept or self-constructed theory. In other words, for the undifferentiated individual, there is little to commit *to*. Conversely, individuals who strongly endorse both masculine and feminine characteristics (i.e., androgynous) might be considerably more conscious of and committed to a rich and effective self-theory governing cognition, affect, and motivation.

Hypothesis 6

The final hypothesis centered on the questions of whether one's relationship style would be predictive of one's level of psychosocial balance. To explore this question, a series of standard regressions were conducted for each of the five Eriksonian stages of interest. With *basic trust versus mistrust* as the criterion, both the secure and fearful relationship styles proved significant predictors though in opposite directions, with secure predicting an increase in the measure of basic trust and fearful predicting a decrease in basic trust. This

result is certainly what one might expect judging from the model for adult attachment as conceived of by Batholomew and Horowitz (1991). Erikson (1959; 1980) described the first psychosocial crisis as the judgment of whether the individual's world (and those in it) is safe or not, whereas Batholomew and Horowitz (1991) state that secure individuals see others as trustworthy and fearful individuals do not.

The results concerning the *autonomy versus shame and doubt* crisis are straightforward. The secure and dismissing relationship styles predict an increase in a measure of autonomy, whereas the fearful and preoccupied styles predict a decrease. The secure relationship style, as proposed by Batholomew and Horowitz (1991, p. 227), is described as "comfortable with intimacy and autonomy", suggesting that the secure individual has met Erikson's (1959; 1980) criteria for positively resolving the second psychosocial crisis, which is a positive resolution to the first crisis (basic trust). In a similar fashion, it seems apparent that fearful individuals, after experiencing a negative resolution to the basic trust crisis, are not equipped to positively resolve the autonomy crisis. Similarly, it is quite plain as to how the preoccupied relationship style is negatively related to autonomy since Batholomew and Horowitz (1991) describe the preoccupied style as one in which the individual seeks out relationships with others in an attempt to satisfy a need for dependency. On the face of Batholomew and Horowitz's description of the dismissing style, which is one of independence and invulnerability, one would logically assume that those with a dismissing style would endorse items that measure higher autonomy, if you assume that autonomy and independence are synonymous. As expected, those with a dismissing style tend to avoid relations with others, perhaps not so much as a result of innate self-sufficiency, but out of a wish to avoid being disappointed and hurt by others (Batholomew and Horowitz, 1991).

Thus, the independence that Bartholomew and Horowitz ascribe to dismissing individuals are actually synonymous with autonomy in they are indicative of a self-protective response to intimacy that Batholomew and Horowitz labeled counter-dependence.

The results indicated that the secure relationship style scores positively predicted scores on the *identity versus role confusion* scale. In contrast, scores on the preoccupied and fearful style scales negatively predicted the scores on the identity scale. The positive relationship between the secure relationship style and the criterion is hardly surprising given that the secure style is positively predictive of all five psychosocial stages under examination. Erikson (1959; 1980) repeatedly stressed that the positive resolution of successive stages was largely dependent upon the successful resolution of earlier stages; in this manner, individuals with a secure relationship style appear to demonstrate Erikson's concept since they are consistent in their endorsement of items that reflect higher psychosocial balance. In contrast, the fearful relationship style was negatively associated with the identity versus role confusion stage, just as it is with all five psychosocial stages. Those with a fearful relationship style are consistent in their endorsement of items reflecting lower psychosocial balance and the negative resolution of successive Eriksonian stages. Finally, the preoccupied style was also negatively predictive of psychosocial balance, a result that possibly reflects the observation that those who score high on the preoccupied relationship style tend to have a lower sense of their own worth and consequently must depend on others to affirm their acceptance (Batholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

The results connected to the *intimacy versus isolation* stage appear quite clear-cut with the secure relationship style positively predictive of intimacy and the fearful style predictive of lower intimacy scores. Once again, Erikson's missive that the current stage's

positive resolution depends a great deal on the positive resolution of the previous stage(s) is an important factor. Erikson (1959; 1980) stated that true melding with another person requires that one must first be a "true individual" (i.e., posses a clear ego identity) because the act of merging with another means the loss of the sense of self. As noted above, those with a secure style are more likely to have positively resolved the *identity versus role confusion* stage compared to those with a fearful relationship style. As well, Batholomew and Horowitz (1991, p. 227) state that the secure individual is "comfortable with intimacy", whereas the fearful individual is "fearful of intimacy".

The final psychosocial stage, *generativity versus stagnation*, contains an interesting and puzzling finding. Although the positive relationship between the secure relationship style and the criterion and the negative relationship between the fearful style and the criterion seem straightforward, the positive predictive relationship between the dismissing style and generativity is unexpected. If generativity, as described by Erikson (1959; 1980), is predominantly the desire to create and then guide and nurture the subsequent generation, then it is difficult to comprehend the positive relationship between the dismissing style and generativity if the dismissing style is marked by a negative disposition toward others (Batholomew & Horowitz, 1991). However, one possible insight into this matter could be the observation that individuals who have fallen into the stagnation end of the generativity versus stagnation crisis have a tendency to cater to their own whims and desires as if they were their own and only child (Erikson, 1959; 1980). It is possible that a measure of psychosocial generativity might tap into this sentiment, as perverse as it may be in light of what actual generativity means.

Limitations of the Current Study

There are three limitations to the present research project. First, due to the nature of the methods used to gather data, which amount to a convenience sample, there is the hazard of self-selection for participation that attends all nonrandom samples. Although the sample was fairly large and the breakdown of participants by ego identity style and sex-role classes approximated those groupings found by Berzonsky (1989) and Bem (1974), a truly random sampling procedure would still be preferable. Second, though the sample population was large enough to generate significant results in a number of analyses, some of the analyses fell short of significance, possibly because of insufficient power due to a small sample size. Additionally, other analyses had to be amended because of too few individuals in some cells for SPSS to perform the desired calculations. It is possible that with the addition of another 70 or more participants, power might have been attained in the analyses concerning identity style.

A potentially more serious limitation concerns the use of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. The BSRI has been in use for a quarter century and has become the test of choice for researchers in the field of study of gender and sex-role socialization differences, with references to 795 separate studies involving the BSRI cited in the literature (Hoffman & Borders, 2001). However, its status as the gold standard by which other, similar instruments are measured has not made it invulnerable to criticism. Recently, Hoffman and Borders (2001) and Choi and Fuqua (2003) have authored rather damning critiques of the BSRI with the most salient objection to it focused on the item selection. In her initial research, Bem (1974) used undergraduate students to rate 400 adjectives on their desirability for men and women and then chose the 60 adjectives used in the BSRI (20 each for femininity,

masculinity, and neutral). In an effort to ascertain if this procedure would net similar results employing a modern undergraduate cohort, Hoffman and Borders (2001) and Choi and Fuqua (2003) followed Bem's procedures and obtained very different results. For one thing, both sets of authors found very little agreement within their sample population on the relative femininity and masculinity of the BSRI items purported to measure these characteristics. Hoffman and Borders (2001) and Choi and Fuqua (2003) concluded that terms that were associated with one gender over the other in the early 1970's did not seem to reflect current views on masculinity and femininity. Secondly, Choi and Fuqua (2003) conducted a factor analysis following Bem's (1974) description of her research and found that the test items did not factor out in the same way as Bem's results indicate. This finding led them to conclude that the supposed sex-related characteristics were not as factorally pure as Bem has alluded. For example, the BSRI items "feminine" and "masculine", assumed by Bem to link closely with their respective sex-role identities, actually formed a separate factor that appeared related to biological as opposed to social concepts. The conclusion reached by Hoffman and Borders (2001) and Choi and Fuqua (2003) was that the BSRI may no longer measure masculinity and femininity as claimed, but instead assess "instrumentality" and "expressiveness".

Those findings highlight the complex issue associated with the use of Bem's inventory. That is, Bem's landmark research was conducted nearly 30 years ago when male and female sex-roles were more clear-cut and distinctive (albeit more restrictive as well) than they are now. Indeed, in recent years, Bem (1993; cited by Hoffman & Borders, 2001) has expressed a concern that our tendencies to use the lens of gender that shape our perceptions of society must be overcome in order to eliminate serious restrictions on both sexes. Is the

fact that recent studies have failed to find the same results as Bem an indictment of the BSRI or a reflection of the evolution of gender-socialization in which modern young men and women eschew the very notion of gender-based labeling, whether or not these labels are more often associated with one sex or the other? After all, in the present study, the sex-role classes broke down in a manner remarkably similar to that of Bem's (1974) original norming population, even though more than half of our data set was collected from outside of the student subject pool. If these test items no longer reflect common male and female characteristics, what do they reflect and how is it that our sample yielded the expected frequencies in each class and by gender? Is it not possible that BSRI items labeled instrumentality and expressiveness by Hoffman and Borders (2001) and Choi and Fuqua (2003) are measuring the same (or a very similar) construct conceived of by Bem, but in today's world, people resist placing gender on such items because they are, in fact, mindful of the same concern associated with that practice as was Bem?

Recommendations for Future Research

The primary recommendation for future research would be a further attempt to isolate an association between ego identity style and adult romantic attachment. It is possible that no significant association between identity style and relationship style emerged in the present study because of either too small a sample size or test instruments that were incompatible. In the former case, a larger sample would obviously add power to the analyses, but effect sizes for the relevant analyses were too small to support the idea that increasing the sample size within the realm of practicality would have sufficed. In the latter case, instruments measuring identity style and relationship style that would map on to each other in a more

appropriate manner could possibly find the expected results. For example, in the current project, the measure for identity style that was employed had been shown to reveal changes in an individual's identity style over relatively short periods of time, thus reducing the probability of finding stable associations between Berzonsky's identity style and the Bartholomew and Horowitz construct of relationship style. However, it is possible that the dynamic ego identity *style* is simply too ephemeral to be matched to adult attachment style in the same manner as was the static ego identity *status*.

Another recommendation would be a further exploration of the association between relationship style and psychosocial balance. Given the rather impressive proportions of variance in individual level of psychosocial balance explained in some of the regressions (e.g., nearly 30% in *basic trust versus mistrust*), an attempt to elaborate on the explanation of this phenomenon seems warranted. For example, the causal direction would be particularly interesting: does advanced psychosocial balance result in a secure relationship style or vice versa? Or is it simply a case where a positive resolution to the first crisis, *basic trust versus mistrust,* leads to further positive resolutions in the subsequent Eriksonian stages while simultaneously yielding a secure infant attachment, which in turn leads to a secure adult attachment? Such are the challenges to other researchers interested in lifespan development.

Summary and Conclusion

This project was an attempt to explore earlier findings suggesting a connection between ego identity, sex-role identity, and romantic relationships. As such, it met with mixed results, with no significant association between identity style and either relationship style or stage of psychosocial balance. However, a clear association emerged between sex-

role identity and both relationship style and psychosocial balance. There were also interesting results found in the analyses of the identity style commitment subscale and in the prediction of Eriksonian stage from relationship style scores.

Although the positive results from this project, most of which stem from associations with sex-role identity, might be called into question by those who have come to doubt the validity of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, the findings comply with the theories concerning adult attachment, Eriksonian development, and gender socialization. Great strides have been made over the past four decades in an effort to erase social and personal imbalances created by notions of traditional gender differences; is it any surprise that a modern and well-educated research population would balk at gender-specific labeling of characteristics that ideally belong to both sexes? However, if "instrumentality" and "expressiveness" have come to replace "masculine" and "feminine" in the minds of researchers or those who fill out research surveys, does it really change the patterns of cognition, emotion, and behavior associated with adult romantic attachment? According to the Jungian concept of "sex-role convergence" (Hosley & Montemayor, 1997), most adults in middle life experience an emerging androgyny marked by increased "instrumentality" in women and increased "expressiveness" in men, characteristics which were strongly linked to masculinity and femininity, respectively. In other words, whether we refer to these domains as "instrumentality" and "expressiveness" or "masculine" and "feminine", the connection to other aspects of one's life, such as romantic attachment, is the same.

The importance of this research is twofold. First, the finding that sex-role identity plays an important part in adult romantic relationship style has the potential for application in the field of marriage and relationship therapy. Based on the idea that, for example,

stereotypical masculine characteristics are less frequently associated with a secure relationship style in men, our findings might inform an approach to therapy designed to improve men's long-term relationship stability and satisfaction by helping them develop sex-role androgyny or, at least, question a singular reliance on a masculine sex-role identity. At the least, the connection between the secure relationship style and the successful resolution of the Eriksonian stages of psychosocial development is a finding that *should* inform child-raising practices, if it can be assumed that securely attached children become securely attached adults.

Perhaps the most important aspect of this project was the finding that although ego identity style was not associated with relationship style, sex-role identity definitely was. This leads to the temptation to speculate that where adult romantic attachment is concerned, sex-role identity, as a social-cognitive processing system, is more important than ego identity. In other words, sex-role identity is a more fundamental personal construct when romantic relationship issues are involved as compared to identity style or even gender. If so, then it is time to reexamine stereotypical notions about romantic relationships with respect to initiation, maintenance, and termination of these relationships.

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Appendix A: Demographics Questionnaire

The following demographic information is collected to help describe the sample

1. Date of birth: _____
2. Sex: male _____ female _____
3. Mother tongue: _____
4. Ethnicity: _____ Aboriginal_____ African-Canadian_____ Asian_____ Black (other than African) _____ Caucasian _____ Other _____
5. Marital Status: _____ married/common-law _____ single
   _____ widowed _____separated _____ divorced
6. Check your **highest** education level completed:
   _____ Elementary school (please specify grade completed) _____
   _____ Secondary school (please specify grade completed) _____
   _____ High school diploma
   _____ Trade/technical school (please specify: _____)
   _____ Some college
   _____ College diploma (please specify: _____)
   _____ Some university
   _____ University degree
   _____ Other (please specify: _____)
7. Your occupation or previous occupation: _____
   ____ full-time _____ part-time____ retired _____ currently unemployed
8. Number of children you have: _____
9. Ages of your children: _____
10. In general, how would you rate your health?
    _____ Excellent
    _____ Very Good
    _____ Good
    _____ Fair
    _____ Poor
11. Compared to others your age, how would you rate your health?
    _____ Excellent
    _____ Very Good
    _____ Good
    _____ Fair
    _____ Poor

Appendix B

Informed Consent

The psychological research you have been asked to participate in is governed by the Canadian Psychological Association's regulations governing ethical care and respect for research participants. As research participants, you may be assured that every precaution will be taken to safeguard the security of the research materials, particularly with respect to issues of confidentiality. Your completed test forms may remain anonymous and do **not** have to have your name on them, but should you put your name on any of the test materials, it will be removed and replaced with a code number. In addition to myself, only my supervisor and a research assistant will have access to the test data. The information you supply will be used for research purposes **only** and will be stored in a secure, locked filing cabinet.

It is important for you to note that you may withdraw from this research project at any time, even after you have returned the completed test forms to me, for **any** reason.

The purpose of this research is to conduct an exploratory examination of a possible association between age and relationships, with the focus on looking at differences between age groups and the nature of their close relationships.

I have read the statement above and understand my rights with respect to this research project. I am willing to participate, knowing that I may withdraw my participation at a later date, should I so choose.

Name (please print): _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C: Bem Sex-Role Inventory

Please circle a number between 1 and 5 that best reflects how much you agree or disagree with the sentence. There are no right or wrong answers.

YOUR REACTION TO EACH QUESTION SHOULD BE YOUR ANSWER.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Unsure	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

1.	I know what I believe about religion.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	I've spent a lot of time thinking about what I should do with my life.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	I'm not sure what I'm doing with my life.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	I act the way I do because of the values I was brought up with.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	I've spent a lot of time reading and/or talking to others about religious ideas.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	When I talk to someone about a problem, I try to see their point of view.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	I know what I want to do with my future.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	I don't worry about values ahead of time; I decide things as they happen.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	I'm not really sure what I believe about religion.	1 2 3 4 5
10.	I was brought up to know what to work for.	1 2 3 4 5
11.	I'm not sure which values I really hold.	1 2 3 4 5
12.	I know where the government and country should be going.	1 2 3 4 5
13.	If I don't worry about my problems they usually work themselves out.	1 2 3 4 5
14.	I'm not sure what I want to do in the future.	1 2 3 4 5
15.	I feel that the work I do (or have done in the past) is right for me.	1 2 3 4 5
16.	I've spent a lot of time reading about and/or trying to understand political issues.	1 2 3 4 5
17.	I'm not thinking about my future now – it's still a long way off.	1 2 3 4 5
18.	I've spent a lot of time talking to people to find a set of beliefs that works for me.	1 2 3 4 5
19	I've never had any serious doubts about my religious beliefs.	1 2 3 4 5
20.	I'm not sure what job is right for me.	1 2 3 4 5
21.	I've known since I was young what I wanted to do.	1 2 3 4 5
22.	I have a strong set of beliefs that I use when I make a decision.	1 2 3 4 5
23.	It's better to have a firm set of beliefs than to be open to different ideas.	1 2 3 4 5
24.	When I have to make a decision, I wait as long as I can to see what will happen.	1 2 3 4 5
25.	When I have a problem, I do a lot of thinking to understand it.	1 2 3 4 5
26.	It's best to get advice from experts (preachers, doctors, lawyers, teachers) when I have a problem.	1 2 3 4 5

27.	I don't take life too serious; I just enjoy it.	1 2 3 4 5
28.	It's better to have one set of values than to consider other value options.	1 2 3 4 5
29.	I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can.	1 2 3 4 5
30.	My problems can be interesting challenges.	1 2 3 4 5
31.	I try to avoid problems that make me think.	1 2 3 4 5
32.	Once I know how to solve a problem, I like to stick with it.	1 2 3 4 5
33.	When I make decisions, I take a lot of time to think about my choices.	1 2 3 4 5
34.	I like to deal with things the way my parents said I should.	1 2 3 4 5
35.	I like to think through my problems and deal with them on my own.	1 2 3 4 5
36.	When I ignore a potential problem, things usually work out.	1 2 3 4 5
37.	When I have to make a big decision, I like to know as much as I can about it.	1 2 3 4 5
38.	When I know a problem will cause me stress, I try to avoid it.	1 2 3 4 5
39.	People need to be committed to as et of values to live a full life.	1 2 3 4 5
40.	It's best to get advice from friends or family when I have a problem.	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D: Relationship Style Questionnaire

Please read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which you believe each statement best describes your feelings about close relationships.

		Not at all like me		Somewhat like me		Very much like me
1.	I find it difficult to depend on other people.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	It is very important to me to feel independent.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I find it easy to get emotionally close to others.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I want to merge completely with another person.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I worry that will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I worry about being alone.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am comfortable depending on other people.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I often worry that romantic partners don't really love me.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I find it difficult to trust others completely.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I worry about others getting too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I want emotionally close relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I am comfortable having other people depend on me.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	People are never there when you need them.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My desire to merge completely sometimes scares people away.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	It is very important to me to feel self-sufficient.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I am nervous when anyone gets too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I often worry that romantic partners won't want to stay with me.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I prefer not to have other people depend on me.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I worry about being abandoned.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I prefer not to depend on others.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I know that others will be there when I need them.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I worry about having others not accept.	1	2	3	4	5

29.	Romantic partners often want me to be closer than I feel comfortable being.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I find it relatively easy to get close to others.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Identity Style Inventory – Grade 6 Reading Level

Please circle a number between 1 and 5 that best reflects how much you agree or disagree with the sentence. There are no right or wrong answers.

YOUR REACTION TO EACH QUESTION SHOULD BE YOUR ANSWER.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Unsure	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

1.	I know what I believe about religion.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	I've spent a lot of time thinking about what I should do with my life.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	I'm not sure what I'm doing with my life.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	I act the way I do because of the values I was brought up with.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	I've spent a lot of time reading and/or talking to others about religious ideas.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	When I talk to someone about a problem, I try to see their point of view.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	I know what I want to do with my future.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	I don't worry about values ahead of time; I decide things as they happen.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	I'm not really sure what I believe about religion.	1 2 3 4 5
10.	I was brought up to know what to work for.	1 2 3 4 5
11.	I'm not sure which values I really hold.	1 2 3 4 5
12.	I know where the government and country should be going.	1 2 3 4 5
13.	If I don't worry about my problems they usually work themselves out.	1 2 3 4 5
14.	I'm not sure what I want to do in the future.	1 2 3 4 5
15.	I feel that the work I do (or have done in the past) is right for me.	1 2 3 4 5
16.	I've spent a lot of time reading about and/or trying to understand political issues.	1 2 3 4 5
17.	I'm not thinking about my future now – it's still a long way off.	1 2 3 4 5
18.	I've spent a lot of time talking to people to find a set of beliefs that works for me.	1 2 3 4 5
19	I've never had any serious doubts about my religious beliefs.	1 2 3 4 5
20.	I'm not sure what job is right for me.	1 2 3 4 5
21.	I've known since I was young what I wanted to do.	1 2 3 4 5
22.	I have a strong set of beliefs that I use when I make a decision.	1 2 3 4 5
23.	It's better to have a firm set of beliefs than to be open to different ideas.	1 2 3 4 5
24.	When I have to make a decision, I wait as long as I can to see what will happen.	1 2 3 4 5
25.	When I have a problem, I do a lot of thinking to understand it.	1 2 3 4 5
26.	It's best to get advice from experts (preachers, doctors, lawyers, teachers) when I have a problem.	1 2 3 4 5
27.	I don't take life too serious; I just enjoy it.	1 2 3 4 5

28.	It's better to have one set of values than to consider other value options.	1 2 3 4 5
29.	I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can.	1 2 3 4 5
30.	My problems can be interesting challenges.	1 2 3 4 5
31.	I try to avoid problems that make me think.	1 2 3 4 5
32.	Once I know how to solve a problem, I like to stick with it.	1 2 3 4 5
33.	When I make decisions, I take a lot of time to think about my choices.	1 2 3 4 5
34.	I like to deal with things the way my parents said I should.	1 2 3 4 5
35.	I like to think through my problems and deal with them on my own.	1 2 3 4 5
36.	When I ignore a potential problem, things usually work out.	1 2 3 4 5
37.	When I have to make a big decision, I like to know as much as I can about it.	1 2 3 4 5
38.	When I know a problem will cause me stress, I try to avoid it.	1 2 3 4 5
39.	People need to be committed to as et of values to live a full life.	1 2 3 4 5
40.	It's best to get advice from friends or family when I have a problem.	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix F: Inventory of Psychosocial Balance

For each statement please indicate, on the answer sheet, whether you:

A = Strongly agree B = Agree C = Are uncertain

D = Disagree E = Strongly disagree

There are no right or wrong answers - what you honestly think, is the right answer for you (CIRCLE ANSWER THAT YOU WISH TO SELECT).

1.	Having friends is important to me.	A B C D E
2.	I value independence more than financial security.	A B C D E
5.	Sometimes I wonder who I really am.	A B C D E
6.	I have experienced some very close friendships.	A B C D E
7.	I derive-great pleasure in watching a child master a new skill.	A B C D E
8.	If I could relive my life, I would make few changes.	A B C D E
9.	I have confidence in my own abilities.	A B C D E
10.	Those *who* know me say I am stubborn.	A B C D E
13.	When I was a teenager I rarely dated.	A B C D E
14.	There have been at least several people in my life with whom I have developed a very close relationship.	A B C D E
15.	I have many and varied interests.	A B C D E
16.	My religious or spiritual beliefs are stronger now than they have ever been.	A B C D E
17.	I can usually depend on others	A B C D E
18.	It is difficult for me to make up my mind.	A B C D E
21.	As an adolescent I was very shy.	A B C D E
22.	I often feel lonely even when there are others around me.	A B C D E
23.	My life is or has been a productive one.	A B C D E
24.	I think that certain groups or races of people are inferior to others.	A B C D E
25.	I sometimes have difficulties with what I see, hear and feel versus what is real - seeing the world as others do.	A B C D E

26.	When I do something, I do it as carefully as possible.	A B C D E
29.	It makes me uncomfortable to see little boys play with dolls.	A B C D E
30.	I am a loner.	A B C D E
31.	I am often impressed by what young people can achieve nowadays.	A B C D E
32.	You can break a person physically but you can never take away their human dignity.	A B C D E
33.	Suffering can be meaningful for the growth of the person.	A B C D E
34.	I am a very organized person.	A B C D E
37.	My career has changed several times.	A B C D E
38.	There has been times when I felt extremely close to someone I loved.	A B C D E
39.	If it were possible, I would greatly enjoy teaching adolescents.	A B C D E
40.	Life has been good to me.	A B C D E
41.	Host conflicts between people can be resolved by discussion.	A B C D E
42.	In general, I believe that most people can achieve what they wish to achieve.	A B C D E
45.	I always have been a confident person.	A B C D E
46.	There have been people in my life with whom I have been willing to share my innermost thoughts.	A B C D E
47.	To be a good parent is one of the most challenging tasks people face.	A B C D E
48.	I have left my mark on the world.	A B C D E
49.	I have difficulties dealing with my anger.	A B C D E
50.	I find it easy to work for future rewards.	A B C D E
53.	In general, I know what I want out of life.	A B C D E
54.	There have been several times in my life when I felt left out.	A B C D E
55.	I often feel that I am not growing as a person.	A B C D E
56.	There are many things I enjoy in life.	A B C D E
57.	I find it difficult to express my true feelings.	A B C D E
58.	I am quite self-sufficient.	A B C D E
61.	Although outwardly I am at ease, inwardly I am often unsure.	A B C D E

62.	I have never met anyone whom I really admired.	A B C D E
63.	I am very concerned that our children will grow in a polluted world.	A B C D E
64.	I find little sense in living.	A B C D E
65.	I am irritable/frustrated most of the time.	A B C D E
66.	It is important for young people to be independent.	A B C D E
69.	I feel very comfortable with the values I have.	A B C D E
70.	I feel inspired when I read about someone who, overcame major obstacles and achieved a significant goal.	A B C D E
71.	Planning for future generations is very important.	A B C D E
72.	I am of no use to anyone.	A B C D E
73.	It is easy for me to believe most people.	A B C D E
74.	I find it easy to ask favors of others.	A B C D E
77.	I firmly believe that people should be responsible for their behaviors.	A B C D E
78.	When I have an orgasm I loose the sense of who and where I am.	A B C D E
79.	I derive great pleasure in seeing the accomplishments of young people.	A B C D E
80.	If I had the courage I would end my life.	A B C D E
81.	I find that most people are helpful.	A B C D E
82.	We would all be better off if people obeyed the laws we have.	A B C D E
85.	There are some issues on' which I take a strong stand.	A B C D E
86.	Overall, my sexual life has been satisfactory.	A B C D E
87.	With all of our technology, there is no need for anyone to work very hard.	A B C D E
89.	I know what it means to have a strong sense of self.	A B C D E
89.	I find I am open to new ideas.	A B C D E
92.	When necessary, I can devote a lot of energy to a task.	A B C D E
93.	My adolescence was fairly stormy.	A B C D E
94.	It would be difficult for me to have sexual intercourse with a person I did not love.	A B C D E
95.	Hard work teaches self-respect.	A B C D E

96.	When I die I will be missed.	A B C D E
97.	In general I'm an optimistic person.	A B C D E
98.	I have difficulties expressing my own opinion.	A B C D E
101.	There are times when I wish I had been born of the opposite sex.	A B C D E
102.	When I was a teenager I had a very close friend with whom I shared many experiences.	A B C D E
103.	Everyone who can, should have a paid job.	A B C D E
104.	I have given serious thought to the meaning of life.	A B C D E
105.	People have the capacity to solve their problems.	A B C D E
106.	I would prefer a job that pays on commission (i.e. depending upon what I do) than one that pays a fixed salary.	A B C D E
109.	Friends would describe me as a very, changeable person.	A B C D E
110.	I enjoy being with people.	A B C D E
111.	I must admit that I am a fairly lazy person.	A B C D E
112.	When one is old it makes no sense to start new hobbies or activities	A B C D E
113.	Basically, I think I'm an all right person.	A B C D E
114.	"A place for everything and everything in its place" is my motto.	A B C D E
117.	I am very uncomfortable with "feminine" men.	A B C D E
118.	I can be friendly to strangers.	A B C D E
119.	I enjoy learning new skills.	A B C D E
120.	I keep physically active, within my body limits.	A B C D E

Note. 30 items have been removed from this scale due to the fact that they are unnecessary to the present research project. The remaining items retain their regular numbering in order to facilitate scoring.