

Androgyny and Self-esteem Revisited: †

Gender-related personality traits and self-esteem in Japanese society

Yoko SUGIHARA*

Los Angeles County Department of Mental Health

Emiko KATSURADA**

Akita University

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between gender-related personality types and self-esteem in Japanese society. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSE) with pertinent demographic questions were given to 455 volunteer participants (165 males; 290 females). The results indicated that both men and women scored significantly higher on the Feminine scale than on the Masculine scale. It also showed that the androgynous and sex-congruent gender-personality types have higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated and sex-incongruent gender personality types in both sexes. Implications and limitations are discussed.

Key Words : Androgyny, Self-esteem, Japanese gender-role personality traits

The relationship between self-esteem and gender roles has been examined extensively (Orlofsky, 1977, Whitley, 1983; Antill & Cunningham, 1979, Colker & Widom, 1980, Gilbert, 1981, Schiff & Koopman, 1978, Stake & Orlofsky, 1982, Worrell, 1978, Stake, Zand & Smalley, 1996). The research has been dominated mainly by three theoretical models: the traditional sex-typed, masculine, and androgynous models. The traditional sex-typed model claims that individuals with sex-typed gender-related personality traits have higher self-esteem than the individuals high in both masculinity and femininity, low in both, or with cross-sex typed gender-related traits (Lubinski, Telegen, &

Butcher, 1983). In other words, high self-esteem is associated with high femininity in females and high masculinity in males.

The findings, however, were far from conclusive with regards to the traditional sex-typed model. Further empirical testing of this model found that masculinity was closely associated with high self-esteem in both sexes (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Whitley, 1984; Rose & Montanaya, 1994). Those findings assert that masculine traits are responsible for personal well-being since they are closely related to the characteristics required in society for both men and women.

Bem (1974; 1978) proposed the androgynous model that both masculinity and femininity are required for individuals' well-being. This model was also empirically supported (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Marsh, Antill, & Cunningham, 1987; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975; Wulff & Steitz,

2004年1月23日受理

† アンドロジニーと自尊心再考：日本社会における性役割的性格特性と自尊心

* 杉原洋子, ロサンジェルス郡精神衛生局

** 桂田恵美子, 秋田大学教育文化学部

1999; Lubinski, Tellegen, & Butcher, 1983; Hall & Teylor, 1985; Stake, Zand, & Smalley, 1996). Although overwhelming research findings support the androgynous model of well-being (Hunt, 1993; Orlofsky, 1977, Spence, Helmreich & Strapp, 1975), the results are not conclusive. Orlofsky & Windle (1978) found that sex-incongruent gender personality types of both male and female are poorly adjusted and have low self-esteem, while both androgynous and gender-congruent gender-typed individuals are better adjusted and have high self-esteem. The results suggest that further examination is necessary to clarify the relationship between self-esteem and gender-related personality traits.

Gender-role personality traits and self-esteem in Japan

Japan has been described as a highly masculine society where gender roles are specific for men and women and sex-based gender related personalities are valued and encouraged (Hofstede, 1998). In masculine society men are expected to be strong, assertive, and achievement oriented, while women are expected to be gentle, nurturing and modest (Hofstede, 1991, 1998). When the society is masculine (where gender specific behavior is encouraged and valued), people tend to internalize the societal values and behave accordingly with certain variations to the extent each individual identifies with gender assignment in the society. Bem (1993) discusses the internalization of the gender lenses of androcentrism and gender-polarization to make men masculine and women feminine. In male-centered societies, people see things from a viewpoint in which men are the center of the universe and things are defined in terms of how it is significant to men but not to others. People also tend to organize life in two distinct categories of men and women and believe that everything can be organized based on biological sex. Once a person internalizes these lenses, he/she only looks at herself/himself through the lenses and establish their own

identities.

It is evident that this process of establishing identity in gendered society is closely associated with the process of establishing self-concepts (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975; Cross & Markus, 1993). Previous studies in Japan support Bem's assumption (1974) that androgynous personality is closely associated with healthy adjustment. Shimonaka et al. (1994; 1997) examined the relationship between adjustment and an androgynous personality type through the life span using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). They found that there was a strong positive relationship between adjustment and androgynous personality in all the developmental stages. The results suggested that femininity increases along with age while masculinity decreases or stays unchanged. They suggested that femininity might be an indicator of maturity.

Another study showed that Japanese society expects men to be more balanced, or androgynous, while women are expected to be more sex-typed, namely feminine type (Sugihara & Katsurada, 2000). It is assumed that people possessing socially desirable traits have higher self-esteem than the people who have characteristics deviant from the socially desirable traits. However, the results of the study done by Shimonaka et al. (1997) were not consistent with this assumption. The discrepancy between highly adjusted personality and socially desirable personality in Japanese society indicated in the previous studies might be due to the scale used to measure masculine and feminine personality traits. Shimonaka et al's study used the original BSRI items where negative items such as childish, gullible, and flatterable were included in the Feminine scale. It is also understandable that females have difficulty in identifying themselves as feminine because some of the feminine characteristics are negatively valued in the society. In order to investigate a relationship between self-esteem and gender personality traits, we conducted a study with the BSRI validated and

modified specifically for Japanese culture (Sugihara & Katsurada, 2000).

Method

Subjects

Subjects consisted of four hundred and fifty-five Japanese men (165) and women (290). The age ranged between 18 years old and 68 years old with the mean of 38.7 years old and a standard deviation of 12.9. There was no significant difference on age between men ($M=40.2$, $SD=13.3$) and women ($M=37.9$, $SD=12.6$). The mean education was 14.5 years with a standard deviation of 2.1. Forty percent of the participants were single, 58 percent married, 1 percent separated and 1 percent divorced. Twenty-six percent of the participants resided in Kyushu (South Japan), 44 percent in Kanto (North Central Japan), 29 percent in Hokkaido (North Japan), and 1 percent in Kansai (South Central Japan).

Measures

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI): The BSRI is 60-item self-report inventory (Bem, 1978) developed in the United States to measure gender related personality traits. It consists of two subscales: Masculine and Feminine. A participant rates each item on a 7-point scale with regard to the extent the item describes her/himself. The median-split method was used to identify the personality types. A person whose Masculine score was higher than the median score with a Feminine score lower than the median score is a masculine type, while a person whose Feminine score is higher than the median score with a Masculine score lower than the median score is the feminine type. A person whose Feminine and Masculine scores are higher than the medians is said to be of the androgynous type, while one with both scores lower than the median score is said to be of the undifferentiated type.

The BSRI was translated into Japanese with a careful translation process (Brislin, 1970) and validated. The validation process included the

population sampling method to test content validity, a factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis to establish the stable factor structure of the scale (Sugihara & Katsurada, 2000). The results indicated that 12 masculine items (defend my own belief, independent, assertive, strong personality, forceful, have leadership ability, willing to take a stand, self-reliant, competent, ambitious, and act as a leader) and 7 feminine items (affectionate, eager to soothe hurt feelings, tender, love children, gentle, cheerful, and soft-spoken) successfully measure the etic aspects of masculinity and femininity. Cronbachs alpha for 7 feminine items is .76 and that for 12 masculine items is .77 for this study.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem (RSE): The RSE is a 10-item self-report inventory to measure self-esteem (Rosenburg, 1965, 1979). The scale consisted of five positive statements and five negative statements. A participant is asked to rate on a 5-point scale on to what extent the statement is true for him/herself. Although the scale was originally developed for high school students, it has been widely used for adult population. The previous studies of two-week test-retest reliability show correlations of .85 and .88.

The Japanese translated version (Yamamoto, Matsui, & Yamanari, 1982) was used in this study. A validity and reliability study was conducted since the previous study did not report either validity or reliability of the scale.

The subjects were randomly divided into two samples. The first sample consists of 228 participants and the second 227 individuals.

Previous studies on the RSE argued unidimensionality (Hensley, 1977; Simpson & Boyal, 1975) vs. bi-dimensionality of the scale (Hensley & Roberts, 1976; Kaplan & Pokorny, 1969). Research showed that a two-factor solution consists of a factor with positive-items and a factor with negative items, which together represent a single factor (Carmines & Zeller, 1974; Shevlin, Bunting & Levin, 1995). We, therefore, factor analyzed negative items and positive items

separately in this study to establish the stable factor structure of the RSE using the first half of the sample. A scree test identified one main factor for a group of positive and negative items separately. The final version of the RSE consisted of two factors and each factor consists of four items (see Appendix A). A confirmatory factor analysis was rendered on eight RSE items (4 positive and 4 negative items) using the second sample ($n=227$). Chi square was 61.08, $df=9$, $p=.0001$ (GFI=.92; AGFI=.81).

Internal consistency was .82 and .81 for the Factor 1 and Factor 2 respectively. The correlation between the Factors 1 and 2 was .47. In this study, a total score of Factors 1 and 2 was used to describe participants level of self-esteem.

Procedures

The BSRI was translated into Japanese using the backtranslation method (Brislin, 1970). A questionnaire consisted of the BSRI, the RSE and pertinent demographic questions. The data was collected in 1999. Two researchers contacted friends and colleagues in different regions in Japan to ask cooperation for data collection by phone and email. They were asked to collect data from adults excluding college students. In the Kyushu area, students in psychology classes volunteered to collect data. Once they agreed to collect data, the questionnaires with detailed instructions were mailed to them with a return envelope. The instruction indicated the nature of the research and anonymity of the data collection. The researchers received 467 returned questionnaires. Twelve of them were eliminated from data analysis since the participants did not complete the questionnaire. Four hundred and fifty-five questionnaires were used for this study.

Results

The BSRI shows that Japanese men ($M=3.90$, $SD=1.06$) scores significantly higher on the Masculine scale than women do ($M=3.58$, $SD=1.03$), $t(455)=3.17$, $p<.005$, whereas men (M

$=4.44$, $SD=.95$) does not differ from women ($M=4.39$, $SD=1.06$) on the Feminine scale. An examination of the difference between the Masculine and Feminine scores in men and women shows that both the men's and the women's Feminine scores ($M_s=4.44$ and 4.39 , $SD_s=.95$ and 1.06) are significantly higher than their Masculine scores ($M_s=3.90$ and 3.58 , $SD_s=1.06$ and 1.03), $t_s(455)=-4.84$, -10.14 respectively, $p_s<.0001$.

The median split method shows that 22 percent of the participants (male=20%; female=23%) are identified as the Masculine type, 26 percent (male=26%; female=26%) the Feminine type, 24 percent (male=28%; female=22%) the Undifferentiated, and 28 percent (male=27%; female=29%) the Androgynous. No significant gender difference is found in these types. These types are equally distributed in both sexes.

Gender Personality Types and Self-esteem

Relationships between self-esteem and gender personality types are examined in males and females separately. The results indicates that self-esteem differs significantly among gender personality types in both men $F(3, 160)=10.466$, $p<.001$ and women, $F(3, 284)=9.210$, $p<.001$. A post hoc analyses shows that the Androgynous men ($M=29.9$, $SD=4.9$) have significantly higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated men ($M=23.9$, $SD=5.7$), $p<.001$. Moreover, the Undifferentiated men have significantly lower self-esteem than the Masculine ($M=28.9$, $SD=6.7$), $p<.001$, and the Feminine men ($M=27.19$, $SD=5.54$), $p<.05$. A post hoc analysis indicates that the Androgynous women ($M=29.85$, $SD=5.39$) score significantly higher on self-esteem than the Undifferentiated women ($M=25.24$, $SD=4.38$), $p<.001$, and marginally higher than the Masculine women ($M=27.55$, $SD=5.32$), whereas no significant difference is found between the Androgynous and the Feminine women ($M=28.26$, $SD=5.49$). Moreover, the Undifferentiated type is found to have

Table 1 Means and Standard Deviations of Four Sex Types and ANOVA Statistics for Self-esteem and Gender Typed Personality among Males and Females

	Masculine	Feminine	Undifferentiate	Androgynous	F	P
Men	<i>M</i> =28.9 <i>SD</i> =6.7	<i>M</i> =27.19 <i>SD</i> =5.54	<i>M</i> =23.9 <i>SD</i> =5.7	<i>M</i> =29.9 <i>SD</i> =4.9	10.372	.0001
Women	<i>M</i> =27.55 <i>SD</i> =5.32	<i>M</i> =28.26 <i>SD</i> =5.49	<i>M</i> =25.24 <i>SD</i> =4.38	<i>M</i> =29.85 <i>SD</i> =5.39	10.316	.0001

significantly lower self-esteem than the Feminine women and marginally lower self-esteem than the Masculine women.

When age is held constant, the Androgynous men still have higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated men, $p < .001$ whereas the Undifferentiated men have significantly lower self-esteem than the Masculine men, $p < .001$ and the Feminine men, $p < .05$. Moreover, the Androgynous women have significantly higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated women, $p < .001$, and the Masculine women, $p < .05$. The Feminine women also have significantly higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated women, $p < .005$ and the Masculine women have marginally higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated women, $p = .071$.

The results indicates that the Androgynous personality type has the higher self-esteem with the sex-congruent personality types being the second highest in both sexes. The undifferentiated type has the lowest self-esteem in both sexes.

Conclusions and Discussion

This study examined impact of gender personality types on self-esteem. The results found that Androgynous and Masculine men had higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated and Feminine men, while the Androgynous and Feminine women had higher self-esteem than the Undifferentiated and Masculine women. The results for men supported the previous findings that androgynous personality is closely associated with adjustment (Shimonaka, et al.1997, 1990, Payne, 1987) and self-esteem (Kimlicka, Cross & Tarnai, 1983; Kelly & Worell, 1977). Results are also consistent with the findings that

androgynous and masculine personalities are closely related to self-esteem among men (Orlofsky & Windle, 1978).

The results for females, however, are not consistent with previous findings that androgynous and masculine personalities are closely associated with high self-esteem among women (Kimlicka, Cross & Tarnai, 1983). A possible explanation could be the pool of items in the BSRI. The negative personality traits in the BSRI feminine subscale may be responsible for an association between only androgyny and masculine personality types and self-esteem (Payne, 1987). This factor might contribute to the results in this study since all the negative items were eliminated in a process of test validation of the BSRI in Japanese culture.

From gender developmental perspective, since Japanese society wants males to have more balanced gender personality, while females are expected to have sex-typed personality, feminine type (Sugihara & Katsurada, 2000), it is natural to assume that the Androgynous males and Feminine females have higher self-esteem than the other types.

However, the results that Androgynous men and women have high self-esteem was not strictly consistent with social desirability findings in Japan, where men are expected to be more androgynous and women to be traditionally sex-typed. The present study suggests that sex-congruent personality traits are closely related to high self-esteem in both sexes. It implies that as long as an individual has sex-congruent personality traits, his/her self-esteem is not affected by the existence of the sex incongruent personality traits. Japanese society seems to have high

tolerance for sex-incongruent personalities as long as an individual possesses sex-congruent personalities.

Another possible explanation for the results is that gendered behaviors rather than gendered personalities would influence on one's self-esteem among Japanese. In Japanese society gender roles seem to be closely connected with sex appropriate behaviors predetermined by biological sex. For example, a man is expected to behave like a male. That is, he is expected to get a job to support his family. Therefore, sex-congruent behaviors are highly valued and encouraged, while sex-congruent personality is secondary to the behavior. Thus, his personality is not important to establish his self-esteem. A relationship between personality and behaviors is the area that has been neglected in gender studies in Japan. Further study is warranted.

An alternative explanation for the discrepancy between results and expectations might be the way Japanese respond to social desirability questions and self-rating questions. Japanese people have a conception of "tatemae" and "honne" (Doi, 1985). *Tatemae* is "a product of socialization" while *honne* is "an expression of self-consciousness" (Doi, 1985, p.46). When they are questioned about socially desirable traits for male and females in Japanese society, they respond with their *tatemae* since they are asked about the societal attitude, while they respond with their *honne* when they are asked to rate themselves in the scale, since they are asked about themselves where *honne* belongs. *Tatemae* and *honne* are inseparable and one cannot exist without the other. Understanding and exercising *tatemae* and *honne* is key for psychological health and good adjustment in society (Doi, 1985).

Japanese men and women who have higher self-esteem might be the group of people who understand and internalize this double-sided psychological structure and use them appropriately. As long as they have "*tatemae*" (socially desirable personality traits: gender-congruent personality

traits) and appropriate use of them, they also can possess "*honne*" (feminine traits for men and masculine traits for female) and express them as a part of themselves.

This study is limited to gender-personality traits in Japan. Further study is necessary to clarify the relationship between gender personality traits and gender behaviors in the society. Further study is also necessary to clarify the relationship between social desirability and gender personality traits.

References

- Antill, J. K. & Cunningham, J. D. (1979). Self-esteem as a function of masculinity in both sexes. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 47*, 783-785.
- Bem, S. L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 42*, 155-162.
- Bem (1978). *Bem Sex-Role Inventory Manual*. Redwood City: Consulting Psychological Press.
- Bem, S.L. (1993). *The lenses of gender: Transforming the debate on sexual inequality*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1*, 185-216.
- Carmines, E. G. & Zeller, R. A. (1974). On establishing the empirical dimensionality of theoretical terms: An analytic example. *Political Methodology, 1*, 75-96.
- Colker, R., & Widom, C. S. (1980). Correlates of female athletic participation: Masculinity, femininity, self-esteem, and attitudes toward women, *Sex Roles, 6*, 47-58.
- Cross, S. E. & Markus, H. R. (1993). Gender in thought, belief, and action: A cognitive approach. In A. E. Beall & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.). *The psychology of gender*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Doi, T. (1985). *The anatomy of self: The individual versus society*. Tokyo: Kodansha International.

- Flaherty, J. F. & Dusek, J. B. (1980). An investigation of the relationship between psychological androgyny and components of self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38, 984-992.
- Gilbert, L. A. (1981). Toward mental health: The benefits of psychological androgyny. *Professional Psychology*, 12, 29-38.
- Hall, J. A. & Taylor, M. C. (1985). Psychological androgyny and the masculinity x femininity interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49, 429-435.
- Hensley, W. E. & Roberts, M. K. (1976). Dimensions of Rosenberg self-esteem scale. *Psychological Reports*, 38, 583-584.
- Hensley, W. E. (1977). Differences between males and females on Rosenberg Scale of Self-Esteem. *Psychological Reports*, 41, 829-830.
- Hofsted, G. (1991). *Culture and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw Hill.
- Hofsted, G. (1998). *Masculinity and femininity: The taboo dimension of national cultures*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hunt, M. G. (1993). Expressiveness does predict well-being. *Sex Roles*, 29, 147-169.
- Kaplan, H. B. & Pokorny, A. D. (1969). Self-derogation and psychological adjustment. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 149, 421-434.
- Kelly, J. A., & Worell, J. (1977). New formulations of sex roles and androgyny: A critical review. *Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology*, 45, 1101-1115.
- Kimlicka, T., Cross, H., & Tarnai, J. (1983). A comparison of androgyny, feminine, masculine and undifferentiated women on self-esteem, body satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 7, 291-294.
- Lubinski, D., Tellegen, A., & Butcher, J. N. (1983). Masculinity, femininity, and androgyny viewed and assessed as distinct concepts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 428-439.
- Marsh, H. W., Antill, J. K., & Cunningham, J. D. (1987). Masculinity, femininity, and androgyny: Relations to self-esteem and social desirability. *Journal of Personality*, 55, 661-683.
- Orlofsky, J. L. & Windle, M. T. (1978). Sex-role orientation, behavioral adaptability and personal adjustment. *Sex Roles*, 4, 801-811.
- Orlofsky, J. L. (1977). Sex-role orientation, identity formation, and self-esteem in college men and women, *Sex Roles*, 6, 561-575.
- Payne, F. D. (1987). "Masculinity," "femininity," and the complex construct of adjustment. *Sex Roles*, 17, 359-374.
- Rose, A.J. & Montanaya, R. (1994). The relationship between gender role orientation and perceived self-competency in male and female adolescents. *Sex Roles*, 31, 579-595.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving the self*. New York: Basic Books.
- Schiff, E., & Koopman, E. J. (1978). The relationship of womens sex-role identity to self-esteem and ego-development. *Journal of Psychology*, 98, 299-305.
- Shevlin, M. E., Bunting, B. P., & Levin, C. A. (1995). Confirmatory factor analysis of the Rosenberg Self-esteem scale. *Psychological Reports*, 76, 707-710.
- Shimonaka, Y., Nakazato, K., & Kawaai, C. (1990). Rounenki ni okeru seiyakuwari to shinriteki tekiou [Gender role and psychological adjustment in the old age.], *Shakai Ronengaku*, 31, 3-11.
- Shimonaka, Y., Nakazato, K., Kawaai, C., & Sato, S. (1997). Androgyny and successful adaptation across the life span among Japanese adults. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 158, 389-400.
- Simpson, C. K. & Boyal, D. (1975). Esteem construct generality and academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 35, 897-907.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R. & Stapp, J. (1975). Ratings of self and peers on sex role attitudes

- and their relation to self-esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 32, 29-39.
- Stake, A. E., Zand, D., & Smalley, R. (1996). The relation of instrumentality and expressiveness to self-concept and adjustment: A social context perspective. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 15, 167-190.
- Stake, J. E., & Orlofsky, J. L. (1982). On the use of global and specific measures in assessing the self-esteem of males and females. *Sex Roles*, 7, 653-662.
- Sugihara, Y. & Katsurada, E. (2000). Gender role personality traits in Japanese culture. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 24, 309-318.
- Whitley, B. E., Jr. (1983). Sex-role orientation and self-esteem: A critical meta-analytic review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 765-778.
- Whitley, B. E., Jr. (1984). Sex-role orientation and psychological well-being: Two meta-analyses. *Sex Roles*, 12, 207-225.
- Worrell, J. (1978). Sex roles and psychological well-being: Perspectives on methodology. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 46, 777-791.
- Wuff, M. B. & Steitz, J. A. (1999). A path model of the relationship between career indecision androgyny, self-efficacy, and self-esteem. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 88, 935-940.
- Yamamoto, M. Matsui, Y., & Yamanari, Y. (1982). Ninchi sareta jikono shosokumen no kouzou [The structure of the cognitive self], *Kyoiku Shinrigaku Kenkyu*, 30, 64-68.

Appendix A

The Items of the Modified Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

1. I feel that I am a person of worth
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
4. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
5. All in all, I am inclined to think that I am a failure.
6. At times I think that I am no good at all.
7. I certainly feel useless at times.
8. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

日本語抄録

本研究の目的は日本社会での性役割的性格タイプと自尊心の関係を調査・探求することである。ベム・セックスロールインベントリーの日本語改訂版とローゼンバーグ自尊感情尺度を使い、性役割的性格タイプと自尊心を測定した。対象者は455名(男性165名, 女性290名)の成人であった。結果は、男女ともに女性性得点が男性性得点よりも有意に高かった。また、アンドロジニータイプ(男性性・女性性両得点が中央値よりも高い群)と性に一致した性役割的性格タイプ(男性型の男性群と女性型の女性群)が未分化タイプ(男性性・女性性両得点が中央値よりも低い群)や性に不一致の性役割的性格タイプ(女性型の男性群と男性型の女性群)よりも自尊感情得点が有意に高かった。日本文化の特徴(タテマエとホンネ)からこの結果を考察した。

キーワード：アンドロジニー, 自尊心, 日本人の性役割的性格

(Received January 23, 2004)