

Development and Validation of a South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict Scale

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Abstract

A South Korean male gender role conflict scale was developed in order to identify unique characteristics and negative aspects of the gender role of South Korean men. Items were adopted from the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) of O'Neil et al. (37 items), the Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (MGRSS) by Eisler and Skidmore (40 items), along with items generated by the authors of this paper in order to reflect both the general experience of South Koreans and the results of a literature review.

The findings of this research demonstrate that this new scale reflects two basic elements in male gender role conflict in a relatively balanced manner: men's fear of femininity and masculinity ideology. A total of six factors were examined, among which four are shared with O'Neil's GRCS and the remaining two (family head responsibility and male superiority) are unique to this Korean scale. The results of male gender role conflict as measured using this scale were in line with those of previous studies, showing a positive relationship with depression, stress, low self-esteem, and, albeit lower, with life satisfaction. A confirmatory factor analysis proved a good fit and confirmed construct validity.

1. Introduction

While South Korean men enjoy considerable privilege and benefits as a result of being male, it is true that they are also expected to bear equally great responsibilities. Since such privilege and responsibility are endowed simply for being a man, they can be said to constitute part of male gender roles. The concept of gender roles, which are socially prescribed roles based on the sex of the individual, spans not only activities and duties, but also personality traits and appearance. The responsibilities assigned based on such gender roles can at times be overwhelming and lead to psychological distress. Previous research has established that men's gender roles, in particular, can cause severe conflicts and negative psychological consequences among men.

Development of scales designed to quantify the negative effects of gender roles or gender role conflict has enabled the measurement of the relationship between male gender roles and psychological distress. Since O'Neil and his research team introduced their well-known Gender Role Conflict Scale, hundreds of studies have been devoted to exploring male gender role conflict and its impact on men's psychology (O'Neil, 2008).

While O'Neil's scale has been used in a number of South Korean studies, it demonstrates clear limitations in its adaptation to a South Korean context. South Korean men would share certain common gender role conflicts with their American counterparts, for whom O'Neil's scale was developed, but at the same time may include discrepancies stemming from cultural differences. For example, while

the nation may be rapidly westernizing, intrinsic elements of South Korean male culture such as Confucian patriarchy, emphasis on collective identity and face-saving, along with mandatory duty of military service can create particular manifestations of gender roles unique to South Korean men. Further more, the greater gap in social status between South Korean men and women relative to their American counterparts could impose stricter norms of the gender roles expected of men, resulting in more severe gender role conflict. The fact that South Korean men are restricted by gender roles is fully exhibited in emotional and behavioral respects. Assuming an extreme level of responsibility for their family, South Korean men at times transcend the limits of legal boundaries in order to support the livelihood of their family. In terms of emotional aspects, however, they can be profoundly inept in communicating their feelings to the people around them, including family members. Their suppressed emotions are often release dinexcessive form through binge drinking or pursuit of sexual satisfaction. In this sense, the frequent occurrence of sexual harassment in South Korean society can be interpreted as a symptom of male gender role conflict.

In conclusion, it is presumed that gender role conflict among South Korean men is deeply rooted in South Korean culture and that its consequences include unique features. Therefore, identification of such characteristics of the gender role conflict experienced by South Korean men and their psychological and social implications should be an important part of gender research. Development of a male gender role conflict scale specifically designed for South Korean men is an essential step in this process. Relevant research will also enable the

examination of gender role conflict among South Korean men relative to other cultures and explore the impact of such conflict on male psychological distress, such as depression and stress, while providing an opportunity to open a societal discussion on how to resolve this problem. With this in mind, this research attempts to develop a Korean-specific male gender role conflict scale.

II. Theoretical background

Gender roles have long been recognized as playing a positive role among men. The gender role identity paradigm, which dominated the social sciences' view of masculinity from the 1930s to 1980s in the United States, is based on the perceived positivity of male gender roles. This model assumed that boys need to develop their innate masculine sex role identity to ensure that they developed normally into adult men (Pleck, 1981, 210). Behaving according to gender role norms was considered essential and natural, or at least necessary (ibid., 210). Against the backdrop of such an academic convention, both the Sex Role Inventory, developed by Bem (1974) with an aim to measure masculinity and femininity, and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire by Spence and Helmreich (1978) included only socially positive aspects in their masculinity scale; the bulk of the subsequent studies that made use of these measurements reported that these masculinity scales correlated to positive traits. Studies that show the relationship between such scales and misbehaviors, as well as the relationship between the scales and psychological abuse against dating partners, are exceptions (Horwitz & White, 1987, Thompson 1990;

requoted from Pleck, 1981, 17).

In the early 1980s, research on the negative effects of male gender roles was instigated. With the gender role identity paradigm having failed to explain empirical data, instead reinforcing the dominant gender role stereotypes (Levant & Pollack, 1995, 2), a gender role strain paradigm emerged, which was followed by a social constructionism paradigm (Soo-yeon Lee et al., 2009, 18-21). The gender role strain paradigm proposed by Pleck (1995), a revolutionary perspective for viewing male gender roles, points to gender role discrepancy or incongruity, gender role trauma, and gender role dysfunction as the issues facing male gender roles. Unlike the assumptions of the gender role identity model, this paradigm conceives that typical men are not easily able to meet traditional gender role expectations and can undergo traumatic experiences and consequential psychological dysfunction during their socialization process into traditional masculine gender roles.

In their exploration of male gender role conflict based on this gender role strain paradigm, O'Neil and his colleagues defined male gender role conflict as a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others (O'Neil et al., 1986, 336) and argue that rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, result in personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self (O'Neil, 2008). As to causes of gender role conflict, Pleck points to the contradictory, unrealistic, and relative nature of societal norms for gender ideals. That is, gender role norms fail to harmonize with the personal traits of every individual, can result in psychological dysfunction, and fail to reflect

societal change. The severe consequences of failing to conform to norms heighten men's psychological burden and gender role conflict. According to Pleck (1995, 12), gender role conflict as experienced by men can develop into a more serious social problem because the violation of gender roles has more severe repercussions for men than for women (Pleck, 1995, 12).

Male gender role conflict is creating a serious social problem in South Korea as well. As they restrict themselves to the roles defined by societal norms for masculinity, South Korean men fail to adapt swiftly to change, are inflexible in their relationships with women, expose themselves to psychological dysfunctions such as stress, and fail to establish harmony with their inner selves. Gender role conflict such as stubborn adherence to masculinity, indifference to emotions (both their own and those of others), underdeveloped relationship skills, and blind pursuit of success is degrading to the wellbeing of themselves and others. Unfortunately, male gender roles and the resulting dysfunctions have attracted relatively little academic attention.

In order to investigate gender role conflict among South Korean men, the elements comprising such conflicts need to be determined. O'Neil and his research team (1986), who developed one of the most frequently adopted scales for research on male gender role conflict around the world, saw the cause of male gender role conflict in the universal psychological structure of men and the masculinity ideology of society. The researchers refer to the universal psychological structure of men that causes male gender role conflict the fear of femininity (ibid., 336), a concept which has been supported by a number of studies on masculinity (David & Brannon, 1976; Farrell,

1974; O'Neil, 1981; requoted from 1982, *ibid*, 337). Fear of femininity refers to powerful negative emotions in opposition to the values, attitudes, and behaviors associated with stereotypical femininity, together with men's desire to prove their masculinity by differentiating themselves from feminine traits. With the exception of success/power/competition from the four factors (success/power/competition, restrictive emotionality, conflict between work and family relations, and restrictive affectionate behavior between men) used in O'Neil's GRCS, the remaining three factors are related to this fear of femininity. The masculinity ideology held by society is another cause of male gender role conflict. The traditional masculinity ideology commonly identified in masculinity research is that men should strive to be respected for success in achievement, men should never show vulnerability, and men should seek adventure and risk and use aggression when necessary (Brannon & Juni, 1984). These are represented as a success/power/competition factor in O'Neil's GRCS. Meanwhile, in the Male Gender Role Stress Scale (MGRSS) developed by Eisler and Skidmore (1987) around the same period when the O'Neil's scale was developed, four out of the five factors of physical inadequacy, subordination to women, intellectual inferiority, and performance failures are related to masculinity ideology, while only the emotional inexpressiveness factor is related to fear of femininity.

Masculinity ideology is an element that results in discrepancies in particular aspects of gender role conflict in different societies. Fear of femininity is a universal phenomenon across societies, as it is the common male psychological structure noted in a gendered society. In terms of masculinity ideology, however, there are differences between

societies; South Korean and American societies will diverge in that regard. In South Korean society, this rather excessively manifested masculinity ideology is expected to demand an ideal image of masculinity that can be separated from femininity, given the extensive gap in status between men and women. As the masculinity ideology of South Korea has been formed by means of traditional elements passing through the modernization period with capitalistic influences from the West and Japan (Park Noja, 2010, 9), it can be considered more multidimensional and multifaceted than that of American society. South Korean elements such as self-sacrifice, honor, loyalty, and face-saving compound those elements of masculinity ideology found in the West such as strength, accomplishment, bravery, and independence. Hence, it can be supposed that South Korean men assume greater readiness for self-sacrifice and a heightened sense of superiority over women than do their counterparts in the West.

Most of the factors pertaining to male gender role conflict identified by South Korean researchers are related to masculinity ideology. Su-ae Park and Eun-gyeong Jo(2002) examined the gender roles expected of men in South Korean society in order to understand South Korean men's gender role conflict. The five factors identified as a result of such research, including achievement-orientedness, loyalty between men, project-orientedness, leadership, and responsibility for family, were all related to masculinity ideology. This may be because researchers set masculinity as a concept based on male ideology such as strictness, autonomy, accomplishment, and aggressiveness (requoted from O'Neil, 1981, *ibid.*, 83). Yoon Jin and her colleagues (1987) developed a male gender role stress scale. Although this 40-item scale did not include a

factor analysis, it can be assumed that most factors would be related to masculinity ideology, given that the majority of the items were the same as those used in the MGRSS by Eisler and Skid more. Meanwhile, Kim Ji-hyeon and his colleagues(2003) adopted O'Neil's GRCS for a South Korean context and identified three dominant gender role conflict factors among South Korean men: success/power/competition, restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and conflict between work and family relations. In other words, they found two factors related to fear of femininity and one related to masculinity ideology.

In order to develop a male gender role conflict scale unique to a South Korean context, it is important to determine Korean-specific factors of gender role conflict. As discussed above, this effort will be segmented into the worldwide universal 'fear of femininity' and the Korean-specific masculinity ideology. Identification of the factors related to the latter, in particular, will be crucial in developing a gender role conflict scale customized for South Korea.

III. Research methods

1. Generation of items

1) Goals

Accurate measurement of the gender role conflict unique to South Korean men will be possible only when the items in the scale properly reflect the characteristics of South Korean male gender roles. For this, items reflecting the experiences of general South Koreans

were developed as a compliment to theory-based items created through review of previous studies.

2) Procedure

The development of items based on literature review accessed the following resources: the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) by O'Neil et al. (37 items), which was released in 1986 and has since been adopted in a plethora of studies; the Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (MGRSS) by Eisler and Skid more (40 items); scales either translated or adopted by Kim Ji-hyeon, Yoon Jin, and Park Su-ae from those developed by international researchers; and items generated by the authors of this paper based on the characteristics of masculinity and male gender role conflict in South Korean society as identified in recent research on South Korean men.

A pool of items intended to reflect the experiences of mainstream South Koreans was created by allowing a group of South Korean men to write down the male gender role conflict they identify with or experience in their daily lives. A total of 90 men, including 40 college students, 20 office workers, 20 public servants, and ten retirees, participated in this survey and were asked to freely describe in a brief writing exercise those difficulties they experience as a man. In order to encourage the participants to consider experiences pertaining to the goal of this research, areas of life in which they were considered more likely to experience difficulties related to male gender roles were presented along with two to three sample items for each area. Items used in previous surveys were combined with items obtained through this survey to generate a total of 320 items.

The researchers studied necessary concepts by reviewing the conception of male gender role conflict, previous scales, other helpful scales, research papers on the characteristics of South Korean men before examining the content validity of the 320 items in cooperation with experts experienced in the development of male gender role conflict measurement tools. With a large number of items emphasizing the importance of military service and men's responsibility to sustain their family's livelihood, integration and removal were conducted repeatedly to compile a preliminary pool of 85 items. A number of items were those that had been translated or adopted from scales developed by overseas researchers. These items passed through three revisions by the researchers and experts, taking care not to distort the original meaning of the items. Finally, the 85 total items were shown to a South Korean linguist to be checked for grammar and fluency.

2. Reviewing gender differences and the primary exploratory factor analysis (Phase One Preliminary Research)

1) Goals and procedure

The first phase of the preliminary research was conducted to identify items appropriate to the measurement of male gender role conflict, which should be differentiated from female gender role conflict. Given that a male gender role conflict scale should be designed to measure gender role conflict unique to men rather than that experienced by both sexes, the attempt was made to ensure that it is discriminated from female gender role conflict. Furthermore, through an exploratory

factor analysis, the potential factor structure of this scale was understood, items that aptly reflect each factor were selected, and the internal consistency of each factor was checked in order to identify any items that might impact the internal consistency negatively.

2) Subjects

One-on-one in-person interviews were conducted with a total of 400 persons (200 men and 200 women) aged 19 or older residing in the Seoul Metropolitan Area. The age, area, and occupation of the subjects were selected based on the demographics of the Seoul and Gyeonggi Province area. Participants were asked to respond to each item on a six-point Likert scale according to the degree of their experience.

3. Secondary exploratory factor analysis (Phase Two Preliminary Research)

1) Goals

A basic item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and item-to-subscale correlation analysis were performed to validate the factor structure obtained through the primary factor analysis and selected items and increase their reliability.

2) Subjects

Computer-assisted web interviewing (CAWI) was used to survey a total of 800 men across the nation aged 19 or older. Using the surveyor's nationwide panel, subjects were randomly chosen based on age- and area-based demographics of the adult population.

4. Confirmatory factor analysis (Main Research)

1) Goals and analysis method

As for the 37-item male gender role conflict measurement tool, confirmatory factor analysis and correlation analysis were conducted in order to determine the stability of the factor structure and appropriateness of the items, as well as to obtain the reliability, discriminant validity, convergent validity, and criterion-related validity which are required for an evaluation tool.

2) Subjects

Proportionate quota random sampling based on the age and area of residence was used to select a total of 1,800 men aged 19 or older across the country. In order to prevent over-sampling of the unemployed, retired, or officer workers, job statistics created through government data was used for profession-based quotas. One-on-one in-person interviews were used.

3) Measurement tool

These interviews relied upon the South Korean male gender role conflict scale, which consists of six factors and 37 items. Some items were adopted from the Gender Role Conflict Scale by O'Neil et al. and the Male Gender Role Stress Scale by Eisler and Skidmore, while others were collected according to input from average South Koreans in order to reflect the characteristics of the South Korean context. Responses were made on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 'Do not agree at all' to 'Strongly agree'.

4) South Korean Gender Equality Awareness Scale

A condensed version of the South Korean Gender Equality Awareness Scale developed by Yang-hee, Kim and Gyeong-ah, Jeong (1999) was used to measure gender equality awareness levels among South Korean men. This scale, a compilation of gender equality-related scales developed by overseas researchers, is designed to measure the level of overall gender equality awareness, including stereotypes about the abilities and personalities of men and women, stereotypes about gender roles, attitudes toward social rights/human rights/freedom of men and women, attitudes toward institutions and policies related to women's issues (Yang-hee, Kim and Gyeong-ah, Jeong, 1999). In other words, it aims to measure attitudes toward women, discriminatory attitudes toward women, contemporary gender discrimination, and new types of gender discrimination. The reliability coefficient was .95 when used for both men and women and .93 when used for men. The reliability coefficient in this research was .92.

5) South Korean Multifaceted Gender Perception Test

While relevant to gender equality awareness, this scale measures the opposite of gender equality awareness, gender-discriminatory perceptions, by separating them into hostile perceptions and compassionate perceptions. This 24-items scale developed by Sang-su Ahn et al. in 2007 contains twelve items each on hostile and on compassionate perceptions. This research used a condensed version of the scale with twelve total items. The reported reliability coefficient was .86 for hostile perceptions and .77 for compassionate perceptions. The figures

for this research were .81 and .73, respectively.

6) Depression scale

Depression was measured using a tool adapted by Gyeom-gu Jeon and Min-gyu Lee (1992) from Radloff's Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression (CES-D) (1977). CES-D is a 20-item self-reporting scale that measures the frequency of symptoms experienced over the course of a week. The seriousness of depression increases with the score: Rarely (Less than one day per week) is assigned 0; Sometimes (2-3 days) 1; Quite often (4-5 days) 2; and Most of the time (6-7 days) 3. The average for typical adults is 9.25, and a subject is considered depressed if the score is 16 or higher. The Cronbach's was .85 in Radloff's research (1977) and .88 in this research.

7) Self-esteem scale

The degree of self-esteem and self-approval was measured using a scale designed by Byeong-jae Jeon(1974) by adapting Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). While Jeon's scale comprises a total of ten items, including five items for positive self-esteem and the remaining five items for negative self-esteem, this research utilized five items with both positive and negative self-esteem combined. The degree of self-esteem goes up with the score on this four-point scale. The reported reliability coefficient was .92 for Rosenberg's scale and .62 when Jeon (1974) used it with seniors. It was .70 in this research.

8) Stress scale

Stress was measured using a 15-item tool developed by Sooyeon Lee et al. (2008) with three items each for five areas considered stress-prone for adult men: finances, job, health, spousal relationship, and parenting. Items for finances, spousal relationship, and parenting were adopted from Lantz, House, Mero and Williams(2005). The higher the number, the greater is the stress on this five-point scale. The reported reliability coefficient for each stress area was .84, .83, .51, .79, and .65, respectively. The figures for this research were .87, .87, .57, .78, and .66, respectively; and it is .83 for the entire group.

9) Satisfaction with life scale

The five-item Satisfaction with Life Scale developed by Diener et al. (1985) was used to assess level of satisfaction with life. This scale narrowly defines satisfaction with life from among the various subjective opinions about what constitutes a good life and distances itself from concepts such as positive emotions or loneliness. The score on this scale is assumed to be related to a subjective assessment of a good life or personal characteristics. Although it was originally developed for use with college students, it is appropriate for other age groups as well. It is a five-point scale (1 = Not at all; 5 = Very much so) and a higher score indicates a higher level of satisfaction with life. In this research, the reliability coefficient was .833.

IV. Results

1. Results of the primary item selection and exploratory factor analysis

The primary item selection process for gender validity was carried out in two stages. In the first stage the average value and intermediate value of each item were compared. Factor scores were reviewed in the second stage. In the first stage, two principles were applied for item removal: 1) if the average score of the item for men was lower than that for women; 2) if the average value of each item for men was lower than the intermediate value of the six-point scale of 3.5. As a result, none of the average values were lower than the intermediate value and four items were removed whose average value on the item for men was lower than that for women.

In the second stage, an exploratory factor analysis was performed in order to investigate a potential factor structure and select items based on factor scores. A total of 81 items from the first stage were subject to factor analysis without deciding upon the number of factors, with a result of 21 factors with an eigenvalue larger than one. Upon reviewing the scree diagram, however, it was determined that six factors were appropriate. At that point, factor scores were obtained using a direct oblimin (oblique) rotation. Selection criteria required the factor score to be 0.5 or higher and to not belong simultaneously to more than one factor. This excluded 24 items, reducing the total number of items for the second stage to 57. Next, a factor analysis was carried out once again with these 57 items. An analysis without

deciding on the number of factors resulted in 13 factors. Upon reviewing the theoretical framework and scree diagram, the optimum number of factors was determined to be six, and these six factors were subjected to a factor analysis. As a result, three items which did not belong to any factor were deleted, reducing the total number of items to 54. A factor analysis was conducted once again in order to obtain the factor scores of the remaining 54 items.

Factor extraction without determining the number of factors produced twelve factors with an eigenvalue greater than one. With the scree diagram concluding the appropriate number of factors to be six, six factors were subject to factor analysis to determine their factor scores. The factor scores of all items that belong to each factor were 0.5 or higher and the reliability coefficient of each factor was within the range of .738 to .927, meeting internal consistency. Since none of the items lowered the internal consistency, all 54 items were used in the second phase of the preliminary research.

2. Results of the second exploratory factor analysis

As mentioned in the research methods section, a total of 800 adult South Korean men were asked to respond to 54 items and a second exploratory factor analysis was conducted with their answers. Based on a scree diagram, six was identified to be an appropriate number of factors, and then a direct oblimin (oblique) rotation was performed. One item was deleted for its factor score failing to reach .5. Still, too many items remained, which could reduce user convenience, and the gap in the number of items between factors was considered excessive.

Thus, another round of process to reduce the number of items was conducted in accordance with the following criteria: 1) the maximum number of items per factor should be eight; and 2) items are removed based on the order of the factor loadings.

Upon applying these criteria, a total of 38 items were finalized. A factor analysis was then conducted on these 38 items without designating the number of factors, which resulted in six factors with a factor value of one or greater. This time, however, the analysis demonstrated that the item It is hard to be a strong but at the same time gentle man, which was originally developed as an item related to restrictive emotionality based on the theoretical framework and had been categorized as such in all the previous exploratory factor analyses, belonged not only to the restrictive emotionality factor (factor score .554), but also to the restrictive affectionate behavior between men factor (factor score .565). Accordingly, that item was removed and the resulting number of items in the scale became 37. The average values of the items ranged from 2.69 to 4.62 and the standard error from 1.04 to 1.40. Both the skewness value and the kurtosis value were within an acceptable range, with from -.839 to .495 and from -.911 to .670, respectively. The correlation between item and factor was from .328 to .884; the correlation between item and the overall scale from .364 to .658; and the correlation between items from .109 to .708.

<Table 1> shows the loadings of the finalized six factors and 37 items and the explanatory variance of each item. The total variance explained by the six factors is .602. Factor 1 Male Superiority includes items that represent the perception that a man should take the

higher position in his relationship with a woman. Factor 2 Work-Family Life Balance refers to a state in which it is difficult for a man to contribute to family life or to rest due to work or academic pursuits. Factor 3 Restrictive Emotionality describes difficulty in expressing emotions. Factor 4 Success/Power/Competition refers to a desire to succeed, obtain power, and triumph in competition. Factor 5 Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men represents fear of intimate relationships between men. Finally, Factor 6 Family Head Responsibility¹⁾ addresses the sense of burden that a man feels regarding his role as family head. Factors 2, 3, and 5 are related to fear of femininity and factors 1, 4, and 6 touch on masculinity ideology²⁾.

1) The Family Head Responsibility factor includes few items because it is relatively self-explanatory.

2) With the exception of Male Superiority and Family Head Responsibility, the factors are adopted from O'Neil's scale in order to maintain consistency with other studies, taking into account the popularity of the scale. The Family Head Responsibility factor is custom-designed for South Korea. While subordination to women from the scale of Eisler and Skid more is similar to the Male Superiority factor used in this study, this factor was given that specific name as it was deemed to more accurately describe the intention of this study.

(Table 1) Factors and items in the South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict Scale

Factor	Item	Factor loading	Eigenvalue (Explanatory variance)
Factor 1. Male Superiority	I wouldn't like to work for a female boss.		10.462 (28.276%)
	I would feel uncomfortable living with a woman who is more successful than I am.	.850	
	It would hurt my self-esteem to marry a woman who makes more money than I do.	.841	
	I feel bad when I lose to a woman in a game.	.825	
	If I don't perform better than female coworkers, it hurts my self-esteem.	.801	
	It is not manly if I allow a woman to control a situation.	.779	
	My education and income should be higher than that of my wife.	.768	
	It is hard to tell my friends that I do housework.	.739	
		.681	
Factor 2. Work-Family Life Balance	My work or study often interferes with other areas of my life (home, family, health, leisure).		3.330 (9.001%)
	I overwork and experience stress because of my desire for accomplishment at work or school.	.837	
	I don't spend much time with my family because of my work or study.	.826	
	I feel a sense of burden because I'm expected to be perfect both at home and work.	.810	
	It is hard to have leisure time.	.759	
	I feel conflicted between a busy work schedule and managing my health.	.726	
		.662	
Factor 3. Restrictive Emotionality	I cannot express complex emotions well.		2.850 (7.701%)
	It's hard for me to express affection.	.794	
	I often have a hard time looking for appropriate words to express my feelings.	.752	
	It is hard to be a fun person.	.742	
	I don't want to show my feelings to others.	.700	
	It's hard to understand other people's strong emotions.	.689	
	It's hard to tell a woman that I felt hurt because of something she said to me.	.667	
	.609		
Factor 4. Success/Power/ Competition	It is important for me to be smarter and stronger than other men.		2.369 (6.402%)
	I want to feel that I'm superior to others.	.808	
	Winning in competition with others is a yardstick that shows my value.	.783	
		.775	
		.724	
	.720		

Factor	Item	Factor loading	Eigenvalue (Explanatory variance)
	I care a lot about how others see my achievements at school or work. Always doing well is important to me. Competition with others is the best way to achieve success. Making money is an important element in becoming a successful person. I try not to show it to others when I'm weak.	.713 .703 .686	
Factor 5. Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	I feel uncomfortable about getting too close with other men. It makes me nervous when I feel affectionate toward other men. I come to wonder about their sexual orientation if other men act overly friendly to me. I feel hesitant to be caring to other men because I'm worried about how other people think of me. It is dangerous to express my feeling to other men.	-.831 -.771 -.767 -.759 -.719	1.784 (4.822%)
Factor 6. Family head Responsibility	I should take responsibility for the livelihood of my family. I should sacrifice for my family. I should take responsibility and determine important decisions of my family.	.881 .840 .806	1.470 (3.972%)

3. Results of the confirmatory factor analysis

1) Goodness-of-fit of the model

The goodness-of-fit of this factor model was investigated through a confirmatory factor analysis. In order to see if the factor structure that was obtained through several rounds of exploratory factor analyses could be obtained with a different sampling, a third phase of research (Main Research) was conducted to perform a confirmatory factor analysis and gauge the fit of the model. Table 2 represents the fit

when the third survey data was used to assess the model fit of the 37 items. As shown in the table, it shows a good fit with RMSEA (.047), less than .05. The confidence interval, which is between .045 and .048, is narrow. CFI and NNF also show a good fit, with CFI .912 and NNFI .905. Based on the RMSEA, CFI, and NNFI(TLI) indices, the previously obtained factor structure was confirmed in a new sampling.

(Table 2) Goodness-of-fit of the scale

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	GFI	NNFI(TLI)	CFI	RMSEA
37-item CFA	3018.723	614	.913	.905	.912	.047(.045-.048)

2) Examination of construct equivalence

Next, construct equivalence was examined between groups in the research model. Construct equivalence between groups can be confirmed by looking into configural invariance, which examines if the model structure of the tool is better fit compared to other models in all groups, and through measurement invariance, which determines if each item in different groups is interpreted in the same manner. Configural invariance measures if the baseline structure remains the same across different groups and considers the difference in factor loading patterns between groups. For configural invariance in this research, the subjects were separated into two groups: those younger than 40 years of age and those over 40 years of age. This was because an analysis of group averages of gender role conflict scores

revealed a significant gap between those in their 20s and 30s and those in their 40s or older. Competition models were elected to be four-and five-factor structures. The reason that four factors were chosen was because O'Neil's GRCS, which is a model for this scale, retains a four-factor structure. A four-factor model integrated the family head responsibility factor into the work-family life balance factor and the restrictive affectionate behavior between men factor into the restrictive emotionality factor, narrowing the factors down to: success/power/competition, male superiority, work-family life balance, and restrictive emotionality. The five-factor model integrated the restrictive affectionate behavior between men factor into the restrictive emotionality factor, resulting in success/power/competition, male superiority, family head responsibility, work-family life balance, and restrictive emotionality.

As a result, the six-factor model exhibits the best fit with the smallest 2, df, and RMSEA value and the largest NNFI and CFI values in those at 19-39 years of age, those in their 40s or older, and the entire group (Table 3). Therefore, configural invariance test confirmed that the six-factor model was the best fit.

〈Table 3〉 Fit indices of competition models by group

Age group	Model	χ^2	df	NNFI (TLI)	CFI	RMSEA (90% confidence interval)
19-39 years of age (N=743)	4-factor model	3658	623	.729	.746	.081(.078-.084)
	5-factor model	2778	619	.806	.819	.069(.066-.071)
	6-factor model	1957	614	.878	.888	.054(.052-.057)
40-88 years of age (N=1057)	4-factor model	4276	623	.741	.762	.075(.072-.077)
	5-factor model	3287	619	.813	.826	.064(.062-.066)
	6-factor model	2068	614	.897	.905	.047(.045-.050)
Total (N=1800)	4-factor model	7272	623	.741	.758	.077(.075-.079)
	5-factor mode	5137	619	.823	.835	.064(.062-.065)
	6-factor model	3019	614	.905	.912	.047(.045-.048)

Next, a metric invariance test was conducted in order to verify whether the difference between the χ^2 value of the baseline and that of the measurement invariance model was significant. The χ^2 value and degree of freedom of the baseline are obtained by combining the χ^2 values and the degree of freedom values, respectively, of the comparison groups when measuring configural invariance. The configural invariance model is restricted by equality constraints. That is, it is assumed that the factor coefficient is the same across the comparison groups. As shown in Table 4, the results of a χ^2 test show that the difference in the χ^2 values is 53.722, in the degree of freedom values 32, and $p < .01$, implying a significant difference. Accordingly, the equality assumption was dismissed in the χ^2 test. However, in the χ^2 test used in the verification of equality, the value increases in accordance with the size of the sample, as in verification of goodness-of-fit of a model in general (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Marsh & Grayson, 1990; requoted from Steenkamp & Baumgartner,

1998, Hong et al., 2003, 645). Therefore, NNFI(TLI) and RMSEA needed to be reviewed as well. In conclusion, the measurement invariance was validated as the NNFI and RMSEA indices of Model 2, which was restricted with a factor coefficient equality constraint, did not deteriorate.

Next, verification of intercept equality was attempted. Perfect intercept equality means that it satisfies the assumption that the intercepts of all items in the two groups are equal. A χ^2 test was conducted, which showed a significant difference: intercept equality was not confirmed by a χ^2 test. Upon reviewing the NNFI(TLI) and RMSEA indices, it was found that the NNFI index grew slightly worse. However, intercept equality does not need to be perfect and equality between groups does not need to be proved for all items (Bryne, Shavelson, & Muthen, 1989; requoted from Steenkam & Baumgartenr, 1998, Hong et al., 2003, 646). In other words, the equality restraint on the items whose intercepts are not equal can be relieved and if partial intercept equality for the remaining items is satisfied, the verification of intercept equality can be considered satisfied. As suggested by Sang-su Ahn et al. (2007), equality restraint for eleven items whose intercepts were not equal was relieved upon reviewing AMOS's modification indices. As shown in Table 4, the difference in the χ^2 values was significant and the NNFI and RMSEA indices of the partial intercept equality model were the same as those of the measurement equality model. As a result, the partial intercept equality was verified.

〈Table 4〉 Fit indices of equality verification of the two groups
(19–39 years of age and 40s and older)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	NNFI (TLI)	RMSEA (90% confidence interval)
Model 1: Configural equality (baseline)	4025	1228	.889	.036(.034-.037)
Model 2: Measurement equality	4080	1259	.891	.035(.034-.037)
Model 3: Measurement and perfect intercept equality	4225	1290	.889	.036(.034-.037)
Model 4: Measurement and partial intercept equality	4136	1280	.891	.035(.034-.036)

〈Table 5〉 Verification of the χ^2 difference test of the two groups
(19–39 years of age and 40s and older)

	Difference in χ^2 values	Difference in <i>df</i> values	Significance
Model 1 and Model 2	55	31	p = .006
Model 2 and Model 3	145	31	p = .006
Model 2 and Model 4	56	21	p = .000

Upon verifying the differences between groups by education, economic status, residence, and marital status, construct equivalence was established in all cases. This implies that the results of the test are not significantly different across different demographic groups and therefore, can be used with all groups.

5) Convergent validity

Convergent validity of the scale was measured using the South Korean Gender Equality Awareness Scale (Yang-hee Kim et al., 1999) and the hostile gender discriminatory perception and compassionate

gender discriminatory perception scale of the South Korean Multifaceted Gender Perception Test (Sang-su Ahn et al., 2007). As a result, the correlations with both the South Korean Gender Equality Awareness Scale (.505; $p=.000$) and the hostile gender discriminatory perception scale (.411; $p < .01$) were significant.

6) Criterion-related validity

In order to check criterion-related validity, the relationship between the scale and psychological variables including depression, self-esteem, and stress (finance, health, parenting, love and marriage, work/study) was examined. The correlation coefficient was the highest, with total stress of .296($p < .01$), followed by depression with .276($p < .01$). However, the scale had a negative correlation with self-esteem (-.166), implying that the higher the conflict, the lower self-esteem. Regarding stress, in which five areas were examined, the correlation coefficient was the highest with finances with .226($p < .01$). Meanwhile, the correlations with health and satisfaction with life were relatively low, with .113($p < .01$) and .128($p < .01$), respectively. Contrary to our expectations, the scale did have a positive correlation with satisfaction with life but the size of the correlation was not great.

〈Table 6〉 Correlation between the Gender Role Conflict Scale and psychological variables

	Success/ power/ competition	Male superiority	Family head responsibility	Work- family life balance	Restrictive emotionality	Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	Total gender role conflict
Depression	.150**	.178**	-.081**	.221**	.217**	.227**	.276**
Self-esteem	-.018	-.111**	.165**	-.097**	-.208**	-.237**	-.166**
Satisfaction with life	.123**	.084**	.082**	.053*	-.040	.180**	.128**
Financial stress	.146**	.093**	.005	.231**	.175**	.138**	.226**
Health- related stress	.035	.022	-.023	.154**	.116**	.088**	.113**
Parenting- related stress	.080**	.155**	-.246**	.132**	.178**	.283**	.216**
Love and marriage- related stress	.077**	.116**	-.123**	.136**	.165**	.119**	.165**
Work/study- related stress	.028	.123**	-.097**	.087**	.214**	.196**	.171**
Total stress	.106**	.153**	.063**	.271**	.248**	.222**	.296**

**p< .01, *p< .05

V. Conclusion and discussion

In order to measure South Korean men's gender role conflict, this research has attempted to develop a male gender role conflict scale that reflects the characteristics of South Korean culture. Assuming that the characteristics of South Korean men's gender role conflict stem from the masculinity ideology of South Korean society, it strived to develop items that reflect this ideology. A sample of typical South

Korean men was asked to describe the difficulties they experience as a man in South Korean society, literature on men (masculinity) was reviewed, and existing items used in relevant scales were reflected. The results of the development of a South Korean male gender role conflict scale offer several implications regarding the gender role norms expected of South Korean men and conflict. The first is the multifaceted nature of South Korean men's gender role conflict. The South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict developed in this research consists of six factors. Four of them, Success/Power/Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, Work-Family Life Balance, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, are shared with the factors used in O'Neil's Gender Role Conflict Scale. The other two factors, Family Head Responsibility and Male Superiority, are unique to this scale.

Three of the four factors used in O'Neil's scale are derived from fear of femininity, the scale's operational definition, while the remaining factor (success/power/competition) is related to masculinity ideology. When it comes to the South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict Scale, restrictive emotionality, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and work-family life balance are related to fear of femininity, and the other three factors, which are success/power/competition, family head responsibility, and male superiority, treat masculinity ideology. Male superiority is similar to subordination to women, one of the factors used in the MGRSS of Eisler and Skidmore. Family head responsibility is unique to the South Korean scale.

It is argued that the South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict Scale includes as sub-factors both elements related to fear of femininity and elements related to masculinity ideology in a balanced manner. In

other words, for South Korean men, differentiation from women and embracing masculinity ideology are both important aspects of performing male roles. Male ideology has a great influence over South Korean society. Essential elements of South Korean male ideology, in particular, are that men should be strong and successful, men should be superior to women, and men should support and lead their family as the family head.

Family head responsibility, which is uniquely represented in the South Korean scale, is the sense of burden that South Korean men feel as a result of their family and includes financial support, leadership, and sacrifice. The fact that the South Korean scale includes this factor demonstrates that family head responsibility is considered one of the important roles for South Korean men and that the patriarchal system remains alive and well in South Korean society. What is more interesting is the correlation between this factor and the criterion variable. While all the other factors showed a positive correlation with depression and stress (the higher the conflict the more depressed and stressed) and a negative relation with self-esteem (the higher the conflict the lower self-esteem), the family head responsibility had a negative correlation with depression and a positive one with self-esteem. Albeit a weak positive correlation with stress overall (.063, $p < .01$), it showed a negative correlation with stress related to parenting, love and marriage, and work/study. This suggests that unlike other factors, family head responsibility plays a positive role in South Korean men's psychology by raising self-esteem while limiting depression and stress. What can be inferred from this result is that although family head responsibility suppresses men through the

expectation that they should sacrifice themselves and do whatever they can to support their family, it is also conducive to their satisfaction with life as it reflects their affection toward their family, which takes a central position in their life.

Another characteristic of the South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict Scale is that male gender role conflict indicates a positive correlation with satisfaction with life. Although the correlation is relatively small (.128), it is significant and shows a significant positive correlation with all the factors except restrictive emotionality. This is a different result than that of previous studies. Although there are few overseas studies that have linked male gender role conflict with satisfaction with life, one study on retirees concluded that higher success/power/competition conflict brought about a more positive impact on the level of satisfaction with life following retirement (Lontz, 2000). This finding that male gender role does not necessarily negatively impact men's psychology in South Korean society can be also explained in relation to the masculinity ideology of the society. As mentioned above, masculinity ideology holds a strong influence in South Korean society and delineates strict guidelines about what is manly. South Koreans frequently use conditional phrases like because I am (or you are or he is) a man, manly or I am (or you are or he is) a man but... When they behave contrary to those conditions of masculinity such as crying, they receive criticism from others and damaged self-esteem. On the other hand, since higher gender role conflict indicates that they try harder to obtain an ideal masculinity, the level of satisfaction can rise commensurate with its achievement. This is not to argue that male gender role conflict is a positive thing.

If so, it would prevent South Korean men from seeing the problems with the rather strict gender role norms and lead them to continue to be obsessive about socially assigned gender roles, making it more difficult to resolve gender role conflict.

In the case of family head responsibility, however, this element should be viewed separately from other factors of gender role conflict in that it contributes to satisfaction with life and self-esteem while lowering depression and stress. The reason that family head responsibility assumes a positive role in men's psychology might be because it not only meets their masculinity ideology, but also offers an actual drive for achievement that can promote their relationship with their family. In this regard, it is necessary to reflect upon whether family head responsibility should continue to be considered a sub-concept under gender role conflict. At the same time, it is also true that it falls in line with O'Neil's definition of gender role conflict in that it restricts and hinders their lives and those of others in the sense that men can harm their health by overreaching in order to fulfill their role as a family head or by repressing others in favor of benefit to their own family. Hence, more in-depth exploration of the relationship between the family head responsibility factor and relevant variables appears to be required.

The implications of this research are as follows. First, the South Korean Male Gender Role Conflict Scale developed in this study includes both the gender role conflict elements based on previous research and theory and those drawn from the unique experiences of South Koreans. Unlike those efforts that simply adopted scales developed by overseas researchers, this scale has attempted to more

broadly reflect South Korean men's experience. Second, the South Korean scale reflects fear of femininity, which has been considered a fundamental element in the negative effect of male gender role, and masculinity ideology in a balanced manner. This is unique in the sense that the gender role conflict scales and gender role stress scales that have frequently been used in research on the negative impacts of male gender roles usually lean towards one of the two sides. Third, this research has determined that the internalization of gender role conflict can cause South Korean men to cling more to their dysfunctional gender roles, even though it might have a positive effect to some extent. The results of this research, therefore, suggest that more aggressive social intervention might be necessary in order to help such men.

The limitations of this research are the following. First, the bulk of the theoretical background for this research was obtained from previous research and theories developed in Western countries, including the United States, as well as from a limited amount of South Korean research. Even though it is considered that research on the negative aspects of male gender role is not active in many countries, including Korea, and the majority of existing research is based on concepts developed by Western researchers, it is a serious limitation of the theoretical background of this research that it has failed to cover more diverse perspectives on the negative functions of male gender roles. Second, it has failed to use criteria that better reflect the negative functions of South Korean men's gender roles and resorted instead to studies by Western researchers to select criterion variables. This resulted in criterion validity that is statistically

significant but has a relatively small effect size. In this sense, more diverse efforts are necessary in future research in order to better reflect the negative facets of male gender role among South Korean men.

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