PROSPECT THEORY APPLIED TO DATING CHOICES INVOLVING VARIATIONS IN SOCIAL STATUS AND PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

By

SUSAN K. RHODES

Bachelor of Arts
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1983

Master of Arts
Central State University
Edmond, Oklahoma
1988

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
December, 1993

PROSPECT THEORY APPLIED TO DATING CHOICES

INVOLVING VARIATIONS IN SOCIAL STATUS

AND PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

Thesis Approved:

James L. Phillips

Thesis Adviser

James M. Price

Judith E. Dobson

Thomas C. Collins

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are a number of persons whom I would like to acknowledge for their contributions in the making of this dissertation. First of all, to my advisor and mentor, Dr. Jim Phillips, I am eternally grateful for his continual patience and encouragement which were crucial to seeing me through the trials and tribulations of this endeavor. It has been a great pleasure to work with a person who truly understands the motivating force of positive reinforcement. I would also like to thank Dr. Jim Price for his keen interest in this project as well as for his guidance and tutelage in the areas of computer programming and statistics. Many thanks also go to Dr. Frank Collins and Dr. Judith Dobson for serving as a members of the reading committee and for their comments and corrections which truly enhanced the quality of this manuscript.

To the students enrolled in 4990, I wish to extend sincere thanks for their help in the data collection phase of this study. In addition, I would like to thank my son, Gable, for his assistance in making the graphs. Thanks go to my entire family for their love, support, and patience which has been a constant source of comfort and motivation throughout my graduate student career.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The factors that influence dating decisions have received a great deal of attention from researchers during the past three decades. These factors include those which are visible to the research participant, such as the target's physical attractiveness and age, as well as factors which must be inferred on the basis of this limited information, such as the target's personality attributes and perceived compatibility. In addition, researchers have been concerned with understanding the process by which these available pieces of information, both explicit and inferred, are weighed and finally integrated into a decision regarding the appropriateness of the target as a potential dating partner. One theory of how such decisions are made is known as prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) which has been applied to a variety of decisions involving risk.

Variables Involved in Dating Decisions

Physical Attractiveness

Physical attractiveness has proven to be a powerful predictor of dating choices in a variety of contexts. In a landmark study, Walster, Aronson, Abrahams, and Rottman

(1966) randomly paired male and female college students at a "computer dance" with the supposition that couples of approximately equal social desirability would prove to be more compatible. Social desirability was defined as the sum of the person's "dating resources", namely, physical attractiveness, popularity, personality, and social status. Contrary to predictions, they found that the most reliable predictor of liking for a partner, desire for additional dates with the partner, and actual frequency of asking the partner out in the future, was the partner's physical attractiveness. Various personality and intellectual measures were found to be unrelated to partner compatibility.

Research addressing person perception on the basis of photographs has revealed that physically attractive individuals, in general, have an edge over those of lesser attractiveness. The physically attractive are thought to lead more successful and happier lives and are believed to possess more socially desirable personalities (Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972) as well as greater intelligence (Clifford & Walster, 1973) and higher social status (Kalick, 1988).

An exception to this physical attractiveness stereotype--"what is beautiful is good"--was noted by Dermer and Thiel (1978) for females of very high physical attractiveness. Although these women were thought to possess more socially desirable characteristics, they were

additionally stereotyped as conceited, adulterous, and bourgeois. In spite of these findings, both males and females have been found to base their dating decisions primarily on the physical attractiveness of the target (Berscheid, Dion, Walster, & Walster, 1971; Byrne, Ervin, & Lamberth, 1970; Green, Buchanan, & Heuer, 1984; Huston, 1973; Kleck & Rubenstein, 1975; Shanteau & Nagy, 1979).

Matching hypothesis. Controversy exists as to whether persons actively seek to date and eventually marry those to whom they are similar. Research examining the correlation in physical attractiveness of actual couples tends to support this "matching hypothesis" (Murstein & Christy, 1976; Price & Vandenburg, 1979). Furthermore, Folkes (1982) found that degree of similarity in physical attractiveness of members of a computer dating service correlated with the number of behavioral steps taken toward relationship formation (i.e. revealing names and phone numbers, going out on a second date).

This research can be misleading, however, given that many factors work to constrain a person's field of eligibles prior to mate selection. Feingold (1988) proposed a three stage theory of relationship formation. At the first stage, social stratification serves to limit contact to persons of similar race, educational level, and occupational status. The second stage involves screening out from this limited group of opposite-sex persons those persons of lower social

desirability. In the third stage, decisions are made about the viability of the relationship on the basis of interpersonal similarity of affective variables during the courting period. In support of this theory, Feingold (1982) found that couples who formed a relationship shortly after meeting (3 months or less) were more similar in physical attractiveness than those who were acquainted for longer periods of time (at least 8 months) prior to dating.

The foregoing studies suggest that people attempt to select a mate of similar physical attractiveness. However, computer models developed by Kalick and Hamilton (1986) demonstrated that "matching" will occur even in the absence of motivation to do so. A matching effect resulted from a computer simulation in which decisions were based solely on a desire for the most attractive mate. The models in which decisions were based on matching alone, or a combination of matching and attractiveness-seeking produced much higher correlations than are observed in actual couples. However, in order to achieve complete pairing in the simulation, a correction factor was incorporated which allowed the computer-generated individuals to become more lenient in their choices as the number of unsuccessful pairings increased. Without this correction factor only those of very high attractiveness would find a mate. It was posed that it may be through unsuccessful pairings that a person learns of his/her own level of social desirability and hence "value" in the dating market.

Attitude Similarity

Evidence suggests that physical beauty is a better predictor of heterosexual attraction than is attitude similarity. It is well-known that people prefer to associate with others who hold similar attitudes, thereby allowing consensual validation of their beliefs and values and, at the same time, avoiding the cognitive dissonance attached to dissimilar others (Byrne & Clore, 1970). However, heterosexual attraction tends to obscure this effect. Kleck and Rubenstein (1975) found that, regardless of perceived attitude similarity, male subjects who had been paired with an attractive, rather than an unattractive, female confederate, reported lingering thoughts about her, feelings of liking for her, and better recall of details of her appearance two to four weeks after their interaction. Gold, Ryckman, and Mosley (1984) investigated this phenomenon and discovered that male subjects exposed to a romantic mood induction distorted the attitudes of an attractive female confederate to make them more in keeping with their own. These findings lend credence to the old adage-- "love is blind".

Probability of Acceptance

Because physical attractiveness is the most salient measure of social desirability and is easily manipulated in the laboratory, it is not surprising that it has been found

to be so important in predicting dating choices. In the aforementioned contrived situations, most people expressed a desire for the most physically attractive dates. However, in the real dating world, it would stand to reason that persons must also be concerned with the probability of acceptance by the partner. When the probability of acceptance is guaranteed, it appears that desire to date is primarily a function of the physical attractiveness of the target (Huston, 1973). However, when a probability statement about the target's likelihood of acceptance was provided along with a photograph, subjects tended to combine this information multiplicatively (Shanteau & Nagy, 1979) as shown in Equation 1, where R is the desirability of a date, P is the probability of acceptance, and PA is the physical attractiveness of the target.

$$R = P \times PA \qquad (1)$$

When probability information was not made explicit, and instead had to be inferred, subjects tended to assume an inverse relation between physical attractiveness and probability: the greater the physical attractiveness of the target, the less likely they believed were their chances of acceptance.

Shanteau and Nagy (1976) described several patterns of actual dating preferences for female subjects. In general, female subjects tended to adopt a "playing it safe" strategy by preferring dates of intermediate attractiveness but high

probability of acceptance. A few females seemed to be "shooting for the moon" by basing their preferences on attractiveness and disregarding probability. Several other subjects appeared to use a "have your cake and eat it too" strategy by preferring dates of intermediate attractiveness but at the same time having some preference for a highly attractive date. The different strategies employed by these women were found to be unrelated to their own individual levels of attractiveness.

Nagy, Jewett, and Shanteau, (cited in Shanteau & Nagy, 1976) repeated the study using male subjects and found a similar multiplicative pattern for dating preferences when probability was explicit, with the exception that males tended to differentiate more on the basis of attractiveness. However, when the probability had to be inferred, males tended to disregard probability and base decisions solely on attractiveness. In addition, males displayed very little preference among unattractive targets but for targets beyond a moderate level, they showed strong preferences based on attractiveness. Perhaps males discount their subjective probabilities of acceptance in this hypothetical dating scenario but would consider this variable in the real world.

Compatibility

The model proposed by Shanteau and Nagy (1976) was not able to completely explain the preferences of several of the female subjects. In addition, post-experimental probing

revealed that many of the subjects had made inferences about their compatibility with the date (i.e. he's not my type, etc.). For these reasons, Nagy, Ruggles, and Shanteau (cited in Shanteau & Nagy, 1976) conducted an additional study to test for the influence of this inferred compatibility. The resulting integration function revealed a three-factor multiplicative model for probability of acceptance, attractiveness, and compatibility. Therefore to be considered desirable, a date must be in the middle to high range on each of these three factors. However, individual differences still were observed.

Gender Differences

Social Status

The foregoing studies suggest that, even though physical attractiveness is important for both males and females in making their dating decisions, gender differences exist in the relative weight assigned to attractiveness when other information is available. When subjects are asked to rate the characteristics they look for in a mate, males consistently emphasize physical attractiveness (Buss, 1985; Buss & Angleitner, 1989; Daniel, O'Brien, McCabe, & Quinter, 1985; Green et al, 1984; Howard, Blumstein, & Schwartz, 1987; Nevid, 1984; Townsend, 1989) whereas females tend to place more importance on good earning capacity (Buss, 1985; Buss & Angleitner, 1989) and socioeconomic status of

potential partners (Green et al, 1984; Harrison & Saeed, 1977; Townsend, 1989). These findings are quite robust and remain stable across samples of different ages, educational levels, geographical locations, and marital status (Buss, 1985) as well as in other western countries (Buss & Angleitner, 1989).

Hypergamy

These gender differences in mate selection criteria imply that women aim to marry upward in socioeconomic status (SES). Indeed, hypergamy (marrying upward) appears to be a real social phenomena. Abbott and Sapsford (1987) examined social mobility data from Great Britain and the United States and concluded that the social class of women is raised through marriage. Elder (1969) in a large scale longitudinal study found that physically attractive women are most apt to "marry up". In light of these findings, hypergamy might be explainable in terms of social exchange theory. Beautiful women are able to exchange their attractiveness for a move up the social ladder, while men of high status are able to bargain for the most attractive females. Indeed, women from the highest socioeconomic level and men from the lowest socioeconomic level are more likely to remain unmarried (Abbott & Sapsford, 1987).

Abbott and Sapsford looked at intergenerational changes in social class but did not address the occupational mobility of the spouses prior to marriage. In a study

(Townsend, 1989) examining mate selection criteria of subjects with excellent future earning potential (medical students), women were found to nonetheless prefer to marry a man of equal or greater income and status. Males, on the other hand, preferred that their mates not have higher incomes and status. These findings suggest that increasing the SES of women also increases their standards for a mate and thereby reduces their pool of acceptable partners. For males, however, increasing SES increases the field of eligibles.

However, studies such as these tend to represent qualities looked for in the "ideal mate" and may simply reflect sex-role stereotyped notions of mate selection. Subjects may be simply supplying the socially acceptable response. Very few experimental studies have examined the role of SES in dating decisions. Hill, Nocks, and Gardner (1987) manipulated SES by varying the type of dress and ornamentation of targets. They found that both males and females reported greater attraction to targets of high status. However, physical attractiveness was not systematically varied in this study. Naficy (1981) provided written information regarding income level along with slides of varying levels of attractiveness. As expected, target attractiveness was a powerful predictor of desire to date and marry for both genders. In addition, females preferred the target with a high income, particularly when rating him as a potential marriage partner.

Prior Research by the Author

Experiment 1

Similar results were obtained in a study designed to provide a more subtle manipulation of income (Rhodes, Phillips, & Bearde, 1989). In this study, photographs of men and women of three levels of attractiveness were combined with backgrounds representing various annual incomes (approximately $30, $60, and $90 thousand) using a computerized technique. The resulting photographs appeared as if the target were standing in front of a residence purported to be the target's family home. In actuality, the photographs were superimposed to give this appearance. Subjects were asked to rate their desire to date the nine targets as well as to determine how much they would be willing to spend on a "special occasion" date. For both males and females, desire to date was highly influenced by the physical attractiveness of the target; however males tended to give higher ratings than did females at the upper levels of physical attractiveness. In addition, males were found to base their decisions solely on the attractiveness level of the target whereas females used both pieces of information in making their decisions. The low income targets were rejected by female subjects while males did not differentiate on the basis of income. Furthermore, both males and females based their monetary decisions (amount to spend on the date) on an additive combination of the

attractiveness and income level of the target.

These findings support the notion that females reject males of lower social class, but this was not done uniformly. Instead, females differentiated among the low income targets on the basis of physical attractiveness. It is difficult to interpret these results in terms of hypergamy without knowledge of the subject's own income level in comparison to her choice of targets. Perhaps the income levels represented here were "adequate" for a majority of the females and therefore only influenced the choices of the upper class.

Experiment 2

Further attempts to replicate these results proved confusing (Phillips & Rhodes, 1991a). When subjects were asked to rate two equivalent sets of photos representing the factorial combination of two levels of attractiveness (low and high) and two levels of income ($30 and $90 thousand), results were somewhat different. Both males and females apparently combined attractiveness and income additively in making their decisions. In addition, at high levels of physical attractiveness (PA) and income ($), males gave significantly higher ratings (PA: $\underline{M}$ = 6.42; $: $\underline{M}$ = 6.02) than did females (PA: $\underline{M}$ = 5.52; $: $\underline{M}$ = 5.14). At low levels, males' ratings (PA: $\underline{M}$ = 3.42; $: $\underline{M}$ = 3.82) did not significantly differ from female's ratings (PA: $\underline{M}$ = 3.62; $: $\underline{M}$ =4.00).

The only methodological difference between these two studies, other than a reduction in the number of levels of the independent variables, was that, in the second study, subjects were not asked to estimate the amount of money they would be willing to spend for the date. Perhaps bringing into the situation the idea of costs had differing effects on males and females. In our society, males are generally responsible for initiating and paying for dates. The requirement that they estimate the cost of the date may have brought an element of reality into an otherwise hypothetical situation. For females, the idea of paying for the expenses involved in a "special occasion" date is a more novel experience and may have had the flavor of an investment in future good times. For males, however, this same question may have brought into the forefront the costs involved in dating women of high status. This notion is supported by the fact that both males' and females' monetary decisions were based, in part, on the income level of the target. Thinking in terms of costs (amount of money required for the date) versus gains (date's physical attractiveness) may account for the failure of males to differentiate on this variable. Nonetheless, this tendency was not strong enough to bring about a preference for the low status targets of high attractiveness which would be expected from the male who is a "smart shopper". For females, the costs are likely to be viewed as a one-time expense which may even bear a return on their investment.

Prospect Theory

This phenomena may be explainable in terms of Kahneman and Tversky's (1979) prospect theory of decision making under risk. The first stage, in this two stage process, involves the psychological editing of a set of prospects. This is done relative to a subjective reference point, usually the status quo. In other words, potential outcomes are mentally represented in terms of changes from some fixed reference point. The second stage of the process involves evaluating each of these edited prospects according to a subjective value function and a probability weighting function. These subjective evaluations are then integrated quantitatively and hence the prospect with the maximum subjective value is identified and chosen.

A feature of the value function is that "decision weights" do not coincide with the objective probability. Most people are more sensitive to a difference between a sure thing and one with a high probability (90% chance) and are relatively insensitive to the intermediate gradations of probability (e.g. 40% chance vs. 30% chance). In a like manner, the difference between impossibility (sure loss) and slight possibility (25% chance to lose nothing) loom larger than similar changes in the intermediate range. Therefore, low probabilities tend to be overweighted whereas high probabilities tend to be underweighted relative to certainty. For these reasons, the value function is concave for gains but convex for losses, giving the function a

distinct S-shape. Moreover, the psychological impact is less for the possibility of a gain than it is for the threat of an equivalent loss, thereby making the convex portion of the function steeper.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Framing Effects

Because of this difference in psychological impact, decision makers tend to avoid risk when the outcomes are presented as a choice between gains and seek risk when the outcomes are presented as a choice between losses. For example, when asked to imagine that they had been given a bonus of $200, and then to make a choice between the following: (1) a sure win of $50 or (2) a 25% chance to win $200 and a 75% chance to win nothing, a majority of persons chose the sure win thereby demonstrating risk-aversion. However, when subjects were additionally instructed to imagine that they were given a $400 bonus and then asked to choose between: (3) a sure loss of $150 or (4) a 75% chance to lose $200 and a 25% chance to lose nothing, most subjects preferred the gamble and hence displayed risk-seeking. There is no logical explanation for why this would occur given that accepting the sure loss of $150 will afford the same benefit ($400 - $150 = $250) as the choice for the sure gain in the first problem ($200 bonus + $50 sure gain).

This reversal of preferences that results from altering the descriptions of equivalent outcomes is known as framing effects.

Framing effects have been shown to operate in non-monetary problems as well. The difference between framing medical programs in terms of lives saved versus lives lost has been shown to consistently induce risk-averse and risk-seeking preferences respectively (Kahneman & Tversky, 1981). The way in which the problem is framed evidently alters the reference point from which one evaluates the outcomes of a given prospect. This is analogous to viewing a glass as "half-full" versus "half-empty". Labeling or framing a stimulus in positive terms evokes more favorable associations than an equivalent negative frame. Levin and Gaeth (1988) discovered that people evaluated beef more favorably when it was described as 75% lean rather than 25% fat. Likewise, the incidence of cheating was judged to be more prevalent for students who received a message professing that "65% had cheated" versus "35% never cheated" (Levin, Schnittjer, & Thee, 1988). Furthermore, a medical procedure was judged as more effective when described as having a "50% success rate" rather than a "50% failure rate" (Levin, et al, 1988).

Sunk costs and frames. One of the basic tenets of prospect theory is that outcomes of decisions are perceived as changes from a subjective reference point, usually the

status quo or the point to which one has become adapted. This suggests that decision makers set up a mental account in which the costs and benefits of a particular course of action are balanced. A resulting decision can therefore be either risk-seeking or risk-averse depending on whether costs (negative framing) or benefits (positive framing) predominate. For example, going to a theater is normally framed as a transaction in which the cost of the ticket is exchanged for the benefit of seeing the play. In this way the mental account is "balanced". When subjects were asked whether they would buy a replacement ticket if they discovered that their original ticket had been lost upon arrival at the theatre, a majority said they would not. However, when the problem involved a loss of an equivalent amount of money, rather than the pre-purchased tickets, a majority of the students indicated that they would purchase the ticket (Kahneman & Tversky, 1982). Money, time, or other resources already committed to a given course of action are known as sunk costs.

Many situations exist in which the balance in an account is affected by decisions made previously in a given domain. Consider the example of a person who has spent the day at the race track with a net loss of $190. He/she is considering placing a $10 bet in the last race on a horse with 20:1 odds. Rather than viewing this from his/her current asset position (a 5% chance to gain $200 for a loss of $10), he/she is likely to lump this decision together

with prior losses and view it as a choice between losing $200 or breaking even. Because his/her mental account is set up with a negative balance he/she is certain to bet on the long shot. The existence of a negative balance, reflecting sunk costs, results in all subsequent decisions being framed as a choice between losses and consequently, risk-seeking ensues.

Subjective frames. Much of the research in the area of framing effects involves frames that are imposed upon a given problem by the researcher. In contrast, Elliott and Archibald (1989) examined the subjective frames that are imposed by the subject when problems are worded neutrally. They found that knowledge of these subjective frames predicted subjects' decisions in the same manner as do imposed frames. Additionally, this study examined the relationship between risk style and choice of frame. Although most people are risk-seeking for losses and risk-averse for gains, some individuals consistently prefer the risky prospect even in regard to gains while others are characteristically risk-averse even when facing losses. Responses for subjects who responded as significantly risk-seeking or risk-averse to a number of risky prospects were compared to the rest of the group. No significant differences were found in either choices made or frames chosen. From this it can be concluded that knowledge of an individual's subjective frame is more important than

knowledge of risk style in predicting decisions. One problem noted in the methodology employed by these researchers is that the risky prospects used to assess risk style involved monetary decisions whereas the problem in the study involved a choice between medical treatments.

Personal involvement and frames. The effects of framing are found to vary when personal involvement in the decision is manipulated. Harkness, DeBono, and Borgida (1985) found that when personal involvement was high (subjects believed they would be dating the person), more complex decision making strategies were employed in making a covariation judgment. These strategies required longer processing time and resulted in more accurate perceptions. This suggests that when a subject is motivated enough to mull over a decision, he/she is able to frame and reframe the problem in various ways before committing to a decision. Maheswaran and Meyers-Levy (1990) found that under conditions of low involvement (benefits were not personally relevant), subjects were very susceptible to framing effects; those in a negatively framed (benefits lost) condition gave more negative evaluations to a proposed treatment whereas those in the positive framing (benefits gained) condition evaluated the treatment more favorably. However, when personal involvement was high and the benefits were considered to be of vital importance, subjects used more detailed processing strategies in which the negative

information was assigned more weight, and consequently were more persuaded by the negatively framed information. This suggests that in cases of vital decisions, subjects carefully consider the potential costs and benefits and impose their own frame on the situation based on its personal relevance. From this we can assume that framing effects may be more influential in situations of intermediate involvement where the subject is involved enough to consider all relevant costs and benefits, but at the same time not so involved that subjective frames override the imposed frame.

Cost salience and frames. Huber, Neale, and Northcraft (1987) examined the influence of framing and cost salience on selection decisions for job interviews. Subjects were instructed to use either a "rejecting" (negative frame) or an "accepting" (positive frame) strategy in deciding which applicants to interview in a personnel selection simulation. They proposed that accepting strategies give the impression of gains and therefore would elicit risk-aversion. Rejecting strategies, on the other hand, evoke the idea of losses and would subsequently induce risk-seeking behavior. Costs associated with the selection of an interviewee were either made explicit (high cost salience) or were left implicit (low cost salience). Huber and colleagues found that decision makers who employed an accepting strategy did, indeed, accept fewer applicants for interviewing than did

those who used a rejecting strategy, but only when the costs of interviewing were made salient. In addition, both cost salience and the use of an acceptance strategy induced more conservative (risk-averse) decisions; applicants with a higher perceived probability of success in the position were selected for interviewing.

Prospect Theory and Dating

What does all of this have to do with dating? The decision involved in dating are analogous to a risky prospect in that they often involve a choice between a "sure thing" of lower social desirability versus a more desirable date with a higher probability of rejection. Given this analogy, it should follow that the principles of prospect theory will apply to dating choices. In other words, the majority of persons will be risk-averse with regard to gains and risk-seeking with regard to losses. But given that, in a true dating situation, personal involvement is high, subjective frames are likely to be more important than imposed frames in predicting decisions. In a hypothetical dating situation, decisions should be highly susceptible to framing effects. When subjects are asked to simply rate their desire to date each of a series of photos, they are thinking strictly in terms of gains (they would have nothing to lose) and rate according to an additive combination of the available attributes. When they are asked to estimate the costs of the date, however, the losses involved are made

salient. These losses are the ones normally incurred by males in our society and thereby influence their decisions accordingly. Females' responses to this novel task may simply make potential for gains more salient.

Experiment 3

To test this notion, a pilot study (Phillips & Rhodes, 1991b) was designed in which half of the subjects were asked to rate their desire to date each of four targets representing the factorial combination of two levels of income and two levels of attractiveness. The other half were asked to rate their desire to date the targets and in addition, to estimate the amount of money they would be willing to spend for the "special occasion" date. As expected, physical attractiveness was predictive of desire to date for both males and females. Males also gave higher ratings than females to attractive targets. Moreover, the interaction between subject sex, income level, and cost salience was found to be marginally significant. A comparison of the cell means revealed that females who received the monetary question, gave significantly higher ratings to rich targets ($\underline{M}$ = 5.31) than to poor ones ($\underline{M}$ = 4.17). None of the other means exceeded the critical difference. However, males' ratings in the low cost salience (no monetary question) were slightly greater ($\underline{M}$ = 4.73) for rich targets than for poor ones ($\underline{M}$ = 4.53) whereas means were identical for rich and poor targets when cost

salience was high (M's = 4.66). It is possible that this effect would have been stronger if the sample size had been increased to a level that would have afforded greater power to the test (power = .406). These results should be interpreted cautiously given that the F-test was marginally significant, although they do represent a trend in the predicted direction.

Dating Frames

Prospect theory has interesting implications for the ways in which males and females view or "frame" the dating situation. Perhaps males and females use a different subjective frame when faced with a dating decision. Because males usually bear the brunt of the costs in the dating scenario including initiating, planning, and paying for the dates, they are likely to have a negative balance in their "dating account" and subsequently behave in a risk-seeking manner, i.e. preferring the most attractive date. Shanteau and Nagy's (1976) finding that men tend to disregard the probability of acceptance of the partner and "shoot for the moon" by preferring the most attractive date, would support this view. Females, on the other hand, demonstrated more varied patterns. Perhaps they were carefully weighing all the variables in terms of potential gains and were therefore, inclined to be risk-averse. Indeed, Parra (1988) found that females demonstrated risk-aversion by preferring dates deemed to have a less variable outcome whereas males

did not.

Male perspective. Another way of looking at this is to consider the typical dating scenario. A young man, Jason, attends a party at which there are a number of unattached young women with whom he is acquainted to various degrees. It is a Friday night and he as yet has no plans for the following evening. As he mingles with the crowd, he spots a very attractive woman whom he has seen a number of times around campus and, on each occasion, he has felt his knees weaken and his heart race. Also at the party is a girl named Kelly that Jason has talked to at previous parties. He has subsequently learned through the grapevine that Kelly is interested in him. Jason feels certain that if he were to ask her out for Saturday night, she would accept. Jason is faced with a common dilemma. Does he ask Kelly out or does he ask out this new girl whom he perceives to be ten times more appealing? He knows from experience that he will have to strike up a conservation with this new girl and spend the evening "wooing" her in order to ask her out for the date. If he does this, he will most likely destroy his chances for getting a date with Kelly.

If Jason were viewing this as simply a choice between gains, he would take Kelly, the "sure thing", over the new girl who has a potential for a higher payoff but a lower probability of acceptance. However, because he has to consider the costs involved, it is more likely that Jason

would think of this situation as a choice between losses. The monetary and time investment would be essentially the same for Jason regardless of which girl he chose to pursue. Because Jason is strongly motivated to play the game and has essentially written off the time and money involved, he is likely to choose the "long shot". Jason's mental account for dating contains a negative balance and hence, acceptance by a desirable girl would restore him to a zero balance more quickly than an acceptance by an average one.

Female perspective. Consider the example from the female perspective. Jennifer is at a party and she has been approached by a dashing young man who is very handsome and appears to be interested in her. Also at the party is Bill, a guy that Jennifer is somewhat interested in, and in turn, Jennifer is certain that he is very interested in her as well. Jennifer knows that Bill would ask her out if she spent some time with him at the party, but she is uncertain about the other guy. In this case, Jennifer is apt to carefully consider each of her suitors and make her decision based on which one she believes has the most to offer as well as on the likelihood that each would ask her out. In other words, Jennifer is thinking in terms of gains and therefore is more inclined to go for Bill, the "sure thing".

This would suggest that sex roles are responsible for the inclination of males to disregard probability of acceptance and base their decisions on the physical attractiveness of the date (Shanteau & Nagy, 1979). In

addition, sex roles would account for the aversion to risk demonstrated by females but not males (Parra, 1988). When one adds to this the fact that men feel obliged to pay more for dates of higher status this could explain their modulation on this variable when the salience of costs is increased. Furthermore, one would expect this effect to be even more pronounced when the involvement in the decision is increased as when the subject expects to get an actual date rather than simply make a hypothetical judgment.

Personality Variables in Dating

Risk Style

As mentioned earlier, there are subsets of individuals who tend to be characteristically risk-seeking or risk-averse. It is not known if persons who are risk-seeking for monetary gains are also risk-seeking in other situations as well. The usual way of identifying these individuals is to administer a series of well-researched gambles and select out those individuals who respond persistently as risk-averse or risk-seeking. Elliott and Archibald (1989) found that knowledge of risk style in regard to monetary gambles did not predict choices made in another domain (lives lost). It is possible that persons identified as risk-seeking or risk-averse in the domain of money may not be consistent in risk style with regard to dating decisions.

Self-Monitoring

Another factor that is known to affect dating behaviors is Snyder's (1974) concept of self-monitoring. This concept describes two distinct orientations that may be adopted as individuals plan and enact their behavioral choices in social contexts. Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale was designed to measure the extent to which a person relies on situational and interpersonal cues of social appropriateness to guide his/her behavior versus relying on his/her own inner states, attitudes, and dispositions. A high self-monitoring individual is one who strives to be the kind of person that is called for in a given situation and therefore guides and molds his/her behavior accordingly. These persons show very little correspondence between their social behavior and relevant underlying personal attributes. A low self-monitoring individual is one whose social behavior is consistent across social situations and is in correspondence with underlying traits, dispositions, and attitudes.

High self-monitoring individuals are known to be very concerned with the images they project to others and are inclined to be greatly affected by social roles, including sex-roles, as sources of regularity in their behavior. This would suggest that high self-monitoring males would be more likely to be risk-seeking and high self-monitoring females would be risk averse with regard to dating. Low self-monitoring individuals however, would more likely follow their attitudes toward risk in making their decisions.

Attentional differences. Snyder, Berscheid, and Glick (1985) examined the attention given to different sources of information about a potential date by high and low self-monitoring males. They found that high self-monitoring men paid closer attention to information about physical appearance (photographs), whereas low self-monitoring men attended more to information about their personal attributes. This is predictable given the high self-monitoring individuals's concern with public images and attention to sex-roles. Furthermore, when forced to choose between an unattractive date with a good personality versus an attractive date with an undesirable personality, low self-monitoring men chose the former and high self-monitoring men chose the latter. This further strengthens the idea that self-monitoring orientation influences dating decisions.

Behavioral differences. Self-monitoring orientation also is known to affect attitudes toward commitment in dating relationships. Low self-monitoring individuals tend to become very committed to their dating partners and form intimate and close relationships with them. High self-monitoring individuals, however, remain uncommitted to their partners and express the desire to date others (Snyder & Simpson, 1984). Furthermore, Snyder, Simpson, and Gangestad (1986) found that high self-monitoring individuals have a more unrestricted view of sexual relations. They were more

likely to endorse the idea that casual sex with someone with whom they were not well-acquainted was a comfortable experience. They reported a greater number of sexual partners, including "one-night stands" and expected to have a greater number of sexual partners in the future than did low self-monitoring persons. Low self-monitoring individuals maintained that they would not be comfortable engaging in casual sex and preferred to restrict sexual contact to those to whom they are committed. These results are somewhat perplexing in terms of risk preference. It appears that high self-monitoring individuals engage in riskier behavior in general, than do low self-monitors. It would seem that within the low self-monitoring group, individuals would base their behavior on their attitudes toward sex and would show a more varied pattern. From this it seems that the Self-Monitoring Scale may be measuring a type of risk preference.

The Experiment Proper

The current study was designed to further examine dating decisions in terms of prospect theory. A preliminary study examined the dating choices of each gender. A set of problems were framed in either negative or positive terms from either a stereotypical male or female viewpoint to assess for risk preference and effects of framing. It was expected that females would be risk averse and males risk seeking in response to both stereotypically masculine and

feminine roles. However, this effect was expected to be modulated by framing effects given the low involvement in the task. Furthermore, the relationship between risk style, self-monitoring, physical attractiveness, social status, and the subject's choice were explored.

The second study was an expansion on previous studies involving wealth, physical attractiveness, and cost salience. Subjects in the first study who qualified by age (17-21 years old), race (Caucasian), and dating status (single--free to date) participated in the second part of the study. Participants were shown the factorial combination of three levels of physical attractiveness and three levels of income and rated their desire to date the targets. Half of the subjects were asked to estimate the probability of acceptance (positive frame) and half the probability of rejection (negative frame) by the target. In addition, half of the subjects were asked to estimate the amount of money they would be willing to spend on the date prior to determining their desire to date ratings and half were asked in the reverse order. Finally, subjects were asked to select one target from among the nine photographs that they would most like to meet.

Hypotheses

Judgments. Physical attractiveness was expected to have a powerful influence on all dating decisions. Both males and females were expected to give increasing desirability

ratings and monetary expenditure estimates with the increasing attractiveness of the target. Moreover, males were expected to give higher ratings of dating desirability to targets at the upper levels of attractiveness than would females. In addition, probability of acceptance was expected to be negatively related to physical attractiveness for both males and females. Targets of greater physical attractiveness would be judged as less likely to accept a date with the subject. Furthermore, perceived compatibility was expected to be greater for targets of moderate physical attractiveness than for targets of either low or high physical attractiveness.

Wealth level of the target was expected to affect males and females in a different manner when the cost of the date is made salient. Both genders were expected to give higher desirability ratings to rich targets when cost was not salient. However, when the cost of the date was emphasized, males were expected to give equivalent ratings to all income levels whereas females were expected to give higher ratings to rich targets and lower ratings to poor ones. In addition, the wealth level of the target was expected to influence the estimated monetary expenditure. Both males and females were expected to be willing to spend more on dates with rich targets than on dates with poor ones.

Framing was expected to influence dating judgments as well. Subjects who received the negative framing condition and as a result were thinking in terms of rejection by the

target, were expected to give lower ratings of perceived compatibility overall, than would subjects who were thinking in terms of acceptance.

Choice. The photo chosen from among the nine photos as the one the subject would most like to meet, is expected to vary with gender and frame. Females, because of their risk aversive tendencies, were expected to choose a less attractive target overall than would males. In addition, both males and females who received the negative framing condition were expected to become more risk seeking in their choices and therefore prefer a target of higher physical attractiveness.

Wealth of the target was expected to influence males and females differently. Males were expected to disregard income in making their final choices. Females, on the other hand, were expected to prefer wealthier targets, particularly those who received the negative framing condition.

Furthermore, females were expected to choose a target with a higher probability of acceptance as a result of their risk aversive nature. Females who receive the negative frame were expected to be more risk seeing in their choices and hence choose a target with a lower probability of acceptance. Males, however, were expected to disregard probability ratings in making their choices regardless of framing condition.

In a like manner, males were expected to disregard their perceived compatibility with the target in making their choices. Females were expected to choose a target of higher perceived compatibility because of their aversion toward risk. When females received the negative frame and hence display more risk seeking, they were expected to choose targets with lower perceived compatibility and instead base their decisions more on the physical attractiveness of the target.

Hypergamy. In order to test the notion of hypergamy, subjects were divided into three groups on the basis of their social status. The income rating of the chosen photo was compared to the subject's social status. It was expected that males would make their choices irrespective of their own status level. Females, on the other hand were expected to choose targets of equal or greater status than their own and reject targets of lower status.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Experiment 1

Subjects

Subjects (126 males and 156 females) were recruited from introductory psychology classes at Oklahoma State University during three consecutive semesters (Fall 1991, Spring and Summer, 1992). Extra credit points were awarded for participation. Subjects ranged in age from 17 to 51 with a mean age of 19.5. A majority described themselves as Caucasian (92.2%), and single (95.7%). Of the single subjects, 15.9% described themselves as not currently dating, 41.7% as dating casually, 38.0% as involved in a committed relationship, and 4.3% as engaged to be married. In order to increase the homogeneity of the sample, data were discarded for subjects describing themselves as non-Caucasian (n = 15), married (n = 9), divorced (n = 3), or older than 21 (n = 14). This left a final sample of 246 subjects (136 females and 110 males).

Instruments

Consent form. Subjects provided informed consent

(Appendix A) and were treated in accordance with the guidelines for treatment of human subjects of the Institutional Review Board at Oklahoma State University (Appendix B).

Demographic questionnaire. All subjects provided information about their age, race, marital status, socioeconomic status, and dating experience (Appendix C). Questions regarding mother's and father's occupation and educational level comprised a modified version of the Hollingshead (1974) Two Factor Index of Social Position. Occupations for both mothers and fathers were scaled according to Hollingshead's categories ranging from 1 (higher executives and major professionals) to 7 (unskilled workers). Educational achievement was likewise scaled from 1 (graduate professional training) to 7 (less than seven years of school). These scores were then multiplied by Hollingshead's factor weights which were determined by multiple correlation techniques (occupation = 7, education = 4). This provided an index of social position for both mother and father with a potential range from 11 to 77.

Risk style survey. The risk style survey employed by Schneider and Lopes (1986) was administered (Appendix D). This series of monetary prospects provided a measure of risk-seeking propensity. The survey was scored by summing the number of times the gamble was preferred to the sure thing. Scores can potentially range from 0 (completely

risk-averse) to 5 (completely risk-seeking).

Sex-role stereotyped prospects. Dating prospects were developed to represent both feminine and masculine sex-roles. These were then validated by a separate sample of 43 male and 33 female subjects. Two prospects which appeared to reflect each sex role were worded from both a male and female viewpoint. Subjects were asked to decide which of the two sounded more natural (Appendix E). For the masculine prospects, 85.5% (#1) and 81.6% (#2) of the total sample perceived them as representing a male sex role. For the feminine prospects, 69.7% (#3) and 81.6% (#4) of the total sample perceived them as representing a female sex role. No gender differences were noted for either of the masculine prospects. However, for feminine prospect #3, 19 out of a total of 43 males viewed the prospect as masculine, whereas only 4 out of 29 females viewed it as masculine, (chi-square = 9.09, $p < .05$) For feminine prospect #4, 12 out of 43 males viewed the prospect as masculine, whereas only 2 out of 31 females viewed it as masculine (chi-square = 5.9, $p < .05$).

Masculine and feminine sex roles were factorially combined with positive and negative framing to create four questionnaires (Appendices F-I). The questions given to each genders were identical with the exception of the names and pronouns used to describe the prospective dates. For each question scores could potentially range from 1 (sure

thing) to 4 (gamble). These scores were then summed across the two questions to create a total risk score.

Self-monitoring scale. Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale was also administered (Appendix J). Scores could potentially range from 0 (low self-monitoring) to 25 (high self-monitoring).

Procedure

Subjects were recruited from introductory psychology classes by the experimenter and asked to participate in "a study about dating". Those who agreed, reported to an assigned classroom in groups of 4 to 20. Subjects were given a packet containing the aforementioned questionnaires. The sex role stereotyped questionnaires were alternated for each gender. Four confederates of the experiment, (2 males and 2 females), independently rated each opposite-sexed subject's physical attractiveness on a scale from 0 (least attractive) to 10 (most attractive) while the subject completed the packet. A final page in the packet explained the requirements for the second experiment and asked the subject to indicate if he/she was willing to participate for additional extra credit points. If so, they were asked to provide a phone number for future contact.

Experiment 2

Subjects

Subjects (62 males and 61 females) who indicated an interest in the second study, and met the requirements for participation, were contacted via telephone by the experimenter. The requirements for participating in the second study were as follows: age between 17 and 21 years (M = 18.96; Males M = 18.7; Females M = 19.22), single (not engaged), and Caucasian. Participants provided informed consent (Appendix K) and received extra credit points in introductory psychology for their participation.

Apparatus

An IBM-compatible micro-computer equipped with a 40 megabyte hard disk drive was used to present the stimulus items and collect subject responses. The digitized images were created using a Professional Image Board (PIB) video digitizer by Atronics. Photographs of both persons and residences were entered into the computer via an RCA camcorder. Halovision III software by Atronics was used to edit and combine the digitized images.

A computer program written in GWBASIC provided random orderings and combinations of the composite photos for each subject. In addition, it provided the instructions to the subjects and collected their responses. The written instructions were presented on a Magnavox monochrome

monitor. When an image was to be rated by the subject, the program entered a slide show software package by Atronics and the image was presented on an adjacent Thomson color monitor.

Stimulus Materials

Target persons. Photographs were selected from a large set of photographs which had been previously rated on physical attractiveness in prior research (Rhodes et al., 1989). The persons depicted in the photographs were members of a fraternity or sorority from another university who had consented to the use of their photographs in subsequent research. The photographs were made from the waist up and from an approximately equal distance. All males wore long-sleeved shirts and ties. Females were more diversely dressed but all appeared well-groomed. All selected targets were smiling.

Three pictures were chosen from each of three levels of attractiveness and were presented to subjects in groups of nine. Three groups of males rated separate sets of nine female pictures [(1) n = 15, alpha = .94; (2) n = 14, alpha = .92; (3) n = 15, alpha = .91)] and two groups of females rated sets of nine male pictures [(1) n = 17, alpha = .93; (2) n = 16, alpha = .89)] on a scale from 0 (least attractive person ever seen) to 10 (most attractive person ever seen). From these sets, a single set of nine photos was selected for each gender that had the most comparable

ratings at each level within each gender and were approximately equivalent across genders. These sets were rated a second time by separate samples (males: n = 20, alpha = .96; females: n = 17, alpha = .96). Because ratings for some photos changed considerably when in a new grouping, some of them were replaced and a third group of nine photos was assembled for each gender and re-rated (males: n = 18, alpha = .97; females: n = 22, alpha = .89). From these ratings, a final set of photos was chosen that had the most stable ratings. Table 1 contains the means across all ratings for the final set of photos for each gender.

Insert Table 1 about here

Target backgrounds. Photographs of residences which were previously selected from a large set of photos (Rhodes et al., 1989) to represent three levels of income (approximately $30, $60, and $90 thousand) were used as backgrounds for the targets. This was intended to provide a subtle manipulation of the targets' wealth levels. Residences were originally selected which had relatively well-kept yards and no visible automobiles. All homes had either a brick or rock exterior and similar architecture. Subjects in the original sample were asked to rate the "income of persons who could afford to live in these houses". On the basis of these ratings, three photographs

were selected to represent each of the three levels of income. Table 2 presents the mean income ratings and standard deviations of the nine residences.

Insert Table 2 about here

Composite images. The selected photographs were combined via computer to create composite photos in which all nine male targets and all nine female targets were represented with all the nine residences to create a total of 162 composite images. These images remained in the hard disk drive of the computer and were accessed by the program in a randomized factorial combination of income and physical attractiveness for each subject. Each opposite-sex person and each background was seen only once by each subject. The composite photos were presented in a completely randomized order for each subject.

Procedure

Subjects were scheduled by telephone and run individually. Upon the subject's arrival, an identification number, matching the subject to his/her data from the previous experiment, was entered into the computer. The subject was then seated in front of the computer terminal and told that the program is self-explanatory and they need only follow directions.

The program first asked for demographic information (age, gender, race, and marital status) to insure that the subject qualified for the study and to determine which set of photos to present (male or female). Half of the subjects, within each gender, were randomly assigned to the low cost salience condition and half to the high cost salience condition. In addition, half were assigned to the negative framing condition and half to the positive framing condition. Subjects in the high cost salience condition were asked to estimate the amount of money they would be willing to spend on the date prior to rating their desire to date the target whereas subjects in the low cost salience condition were asked in the reverse order. Subjects in the negative framing condition were asked to estimate the probability of rejection by the target whereas those in the positive framing condition estimated the probability of acceptance.

Subjects were informed by the computer program that they would be viewing nine pictures of college students who had been photographed in front of their family home prior to leaving for college in the fall. All pictures were previewed by the subject prior to their making any judgments. Subjects then made four judgments: (a) desire to date using a 1 (low desire) to 9 (high desire) scale; (b) amount to spend (reversed for high cost salience); (c) probability of acceptance (rejection for negative frame) and (d) perceived compatibility on a scale from 1 (incompatible)

to 9 (highly compatible). Subjects rated each of the nine targets on a given dimension before moving on to the next one. Therefore, the nine targets were seen five times by each subject; once for the preview, and once for each of the four judgments.

Finally, the subject was asked to select from the nine photos the one whom they would most like to meet for a possible date. The nine photos were then shown again and the subject indicated his/her preference by entering the corresponding number of the photograph.

Subjects were debriefed via the computer program. They were told that the photos had been superimposed and that they would not be meeting the person whose picture they had chosen. Subjects were asked if they had been involved in any prior research which used these same photographs. One male subject had been involved in the picture rating task, and therefore his data was excluded from the analysis. In addition, subjects were asked if they were acquainted with any of the persons depicted in the photographs and, if so, their data were excluded from the analyses. This affected two subjects, one male, and one female, leaving a final sample size of 60 males and 60 females.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Experiment 1

Dating Risk Scores

A 2 (gender) by 2 (sex role) by 2 (frame), completely between-subjects, analysis of variance was performed on the dating risk scores taken from the sex-role stereotype survey. The source table for this analysis is presented in Table 3. Contrary to predictions, the main effect for

---

Insert Table 3 about here

---

gender was not significant. Males (n = 110, M = 5.45) did not differ from females (n = 136, M = 5.29) with regard to the riskiness of their dating decisions. Likewise, the framing of the question failed to produce a significant main effect. Negatively framed questions (n = 122, M = 5.23) did not yield more risky decisions than did positively framed questions (n = 124, M = 5.41). It was expected that negative framing would induce riskier decisions for males while positive framing would induce greater risk aversion in females. However, the gender by frame interaction failed to achieve significance ($F(1, 238) = 0.45$, $p > .05$) thereby

disconfirming this hypothesis.

Unexpectedly, the main effect for sex role was found to be significant ($F(1, 238) = 3.67$, $p < .10$). An inspection of the means revealed that masculine sex roles produced riskier decisions ($n = 121$, $M = 5.50$) than did feminine roles ($n = 125$, $M = 5.23$). In addition, the gender by sex role interaction was found to be marginally significant ($F(1, 238) = 3.49$, $P < .10$). Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc comparison of the means revealed that females were significantly more risk averse when responding to feminine roles ($n = 70$, $M = 5.04$) than when responding to masculine roles ($n = 66$, $M = 5.55$) whereas males did not differ with regard to sex role (masculine: $n = 28$, $M = 5.41$; feminine: $n = 27$, $M = 5.52$). Furthermore, when responding from the masculine sex-role, female risk scores did not significantly ($p > .05$) differ from male risk scores from either the masculine or feminine roles.

Multiple Regression

Separate multiple regression analyses were performed for each gender with the dating risk scores from the sex-role stereotyped survey as the criterion variable. Occupational and educational levels of each parent, self-monitoring scores, risk survey scores, age, and subject physical attractiveness served as predictor variables. Subject physical attractiveness ratings were averaged across the two raters. This was justified given the high inter-

rater reliabilities (alpha = .76). A stepwise method was used to enter variables into the equation. For females, none of the variables significantly predicted dating risk. For males, dating risk was significantly correlated with scores on the risk survey involving monetary gambles (r = .268, $p < .01$) as well as with maternal occupation level (r = -.165, $p < .05$). These two variables together accounted for 10% of the total variance in the dating risk scores.

A perusal of the correlation matrices revealed a few significant correlations of interest between the variables in the regression analysis. The risk scores for monetary gambles were positively correlated with the self-monitoring scores of females (r = .15, $p < .05$), but not for males (r = .05, $p > .05$). For males, physical attractiveness was positively correlated with dating status (r = .236, p , .01), as well as negatively correlated with maternal occupation (r = -.165, $p < .05$), paternal occupation (r = -.286, $p < .001$), paternal education (r = -.174, $p < .05$), and self-monitoring (r = -.185, $p < .05$). From these data it appears that physically attractive males are likely to be high self-monitorers, have more experience with dating, and to have parents of higher social status (lower occupation and education scores correspond to higher status). However, this was not evident for females in the sample.

Experiment 2

Design 1

A 2 (gender) by 2 (cost salience) by 3 (physical attractiveness) by 3 (wealth) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the desire to date and monetary expenditure judgments. Gender and cost salience served as between subjects factors whereas physical attractiveness and wealth were within-subjects factors. Because the framing manipulation was not presented until after these judgments had been made, and therefore could not have affected them, scores were collapsed across the framing condition creating a sample size of 30 per cell. All significant multivariate effects were followed by univariate analyses with Greenhouse-Geiser adjustments to degrees of freedom for repeated measures.

Multivariate results. MANOVA revealed significant main effects for cost salience ($F(2, 115) = 3.43$, $p < .05$), and physical attractiveness ($F(4, 464) = 69.94$, $p < .05$), as well as a significant gender by physical attractiveness interaction ($F(4, 464) = 11.48$, $p < .05$). In addition, the gender main effect was marginally significant ($F(2, 115) = 2.75$, $p < .10$). No other effects achieved significance.

Desire to date. The results of the univariate analysis of the desire to date ratings are presented in Table 4.

Insert Table 4 about here

As had been predicted, univariate analysis revealed a significant main effect for physical attractiveness ($F(1.95, 225.88) = 306.30$, $p < .05$), as well as a significant gender by physical attractiveness interaction ($F(1.95, 225.88) = 23.01$, $p < .05$) for desire to date. The mean desire to date ratings are depicted in Figure 2 as a function of subject gender and target physical attractiveness. Tukey's HSD post

---

Insert Figure 2 about here

---

hoc comparisons of the means revealed a significant difference in desirability ($p < .05$) between each level of physical attractiveness (low ($M = 3.4$) < moderate ($M = 5.53$) < high ($M = 6.92$) as was expected. In addition, Tukey's HSD revealed no significant gender difference ($ps > .05$) in desirability ratings between targets of low physical attractiveness (male $M = 3.35$, female $M = 3.44$), or for targets of moderate physical attractiveness (male $M = 5.3$, female $M = 5.76$). However, for targets of high physical attractiveness, males gave significantly higher ratings ($M = 7.61$) than did females ($M = 6.23$). Moreover, female ratings of moderately attractive targets ($M = 5.76$) did not significantly differ ($p > .05$) from their ratings of highly attractive targets ($M = 6.23$).

It was predicted that both males and females would give higher desirability ratings to rich targets when the costs of the date were not salient. Alternatively, when the cost of the date were emphasized, females were expected to give higher desirability ratings to rich targets whereas males were expected to give uniform ratings across wealth levels. However, the interaction of gender, cost salience, and wealth which would have supported this hypothesis, failed to achieve the desired significance level ($F(1.97, 228.35) = 0.06$, $p > .05$). A simple effects analysis on the gender by wealth level interaction was performed for each level of the cost salience condition (Low: $F(3.94, 228.35) = 1.57$; High: $F(3.94, 228.35) = 0.96$). These results, likewise proved nonsignificant ($ps > .05$).

A priori predictions warrant examination of the significant univariate main effect for wealth level ($F(1.97, 228.35) = 3.28$, $p < .05$). Tukey's HSD comparisons among the means revealed significantly higher ($p < .05$) desirability ratings for rich targets ($M = 5.48$) than for poor ones ($M = 5.14$), but neither differed significantly from targets of moderate wealth ($M = 5.22$).

The cost salience condition resulted in an unexpected significant main effect ($F(1, 116) = 4.10$, $p < .05$) on the desirability ratings. Subjects in the high cost salience condition gave significantly ($p < .05$) greater desirability ratings ($M = 5.46$) than did subjects in the low cost salience condition ($M = 5.10$).

Amount to spend. The results of the univariate analysis of variance are summarized in Table 5. It was

---

Insert Table 5 about here

---

expected that both males and females would base their monetary decisions on an additive combination of the wealth and attractiveness levels of the target. The main effect for wealth level did not attain significance ($F(1.91, 221.55) = 0.84$, $p > .05$). Nevertheless, the main effect for physical attractiveness did prove significant ($F(1.4, 162.06) = 85.18$, $p < .001$) as did the main effect for gender ($F(1, 116) = 4.06$, $p < .05$). Tukey's HSD post hoc comparisons of the means revealed significant differences ($ps < .05$) in expenditure estimates across each level of attractiveness (low: $M = \$24.86$ < moderate: $M = \$34.10$ < high: $M = \$45.09$). Moreover, males were willing to spend significantly more ($p < .05$) on dates overall than were females. In addition, the gender by physical attractiveness interaction was found to be significant ($F(1.4, 162.06) = 11.62$, $p < .001$). Figure 3 displays the means for the monetary expenditure estimate for each gender by physical attractiveness level of the target. Tukey's HSD comparisons

---

Insert Figure 3 about here

---

revealed that males would not spend significantly more ($p >$

.05) for a date with an unattractive target ($\underline{M}$ = $27.21) than would females ($\underline{M}$ = $22.5). Likewise, male expenditure ratings for moderately attractive targets ($\underline{M}$ = $36.68) did not significantly exceed ($\underline{p} > .05$) those of females ($\underline{M}$ = $31.53). However, for highly attractive dates, males agreed to spend significantly more ($\underline{M}$ = $54.02, $\underline{p} < .05$) than did females ($\underline{M}$ = $36.15). Furthermore, females expense estimates for targets of moderate attractiveness ($\underline{M}$ = $31.53) did not significantly exceed ($\underline{p} > .05$) their estimates for highly attractive targets ($\underline{M}$ = $36.15) or male estimates for unattractive targets ($\underline{M}$ = $27.21).

The cost salience main effect, although not predicted, was found to be significant ($\underline{F}(1, 116) = 3.95$, $\underline{p} < .05$). Subjects in the high cost salience condition agreed to spend significantly more ($\underline{p} < .05$) for dates ($\underline{M}$ = $39.24) than did subjects in the low cost salience condition ($\underline{M}$ = $30.06).

Design 2

A 2 (gender) by 2 (frame) by 3 (physical attractiveness) by 3 (wealth) multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the probability of acceptance and compatibility ratings. The design was collapsed across the cost salience factor for this analysis given that all subjects had estimated the cost of the date prior to making these judgments. Each cell in the design contained data from 30 subjects. All significant multivariate tests were followed by univariate analyses of variance with Greenhouse-

Geiser adjustments to degrees of freedom for the repeated measures.

Multivariate results. The framing condition resulted in a significant main effect ($F(2, 115) = 3.03$, $p < .05$). In addition, a significant main effect was found for wealth level ($F(4, 464) = 2.87$, $p < .05$). Physical attractiveness produced a significant main effect ($F(4, 464) = 53.25$, $p < .001$), and a significant interaction with gender ($F(4, 464) = 6.67$, $p < .001$), as well as a significant interaction with frame ($F(4, 464) = 8.47$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, the gender by frame by physical attractiveness interaction was found to be marginally significant ($F(4, 464) = 1.91$, $p < .10$). No other effects achieved significance.

Probability of acceptance. Because subjects in the negative framing condition rated the probability of rejection rather than acceptance, their scores were equated with the positive framing condition by subtracting them from 100. The summary table for the analysis is presented in Table 6. Both males and females were expected to give

---

Insert Table 6 about here

---

probability of acceptance ratings to targets of higher physical attractiveness. In support of this prediction, the main effect for physical attractiveness was found to be significant ($F(1.43, 165.39) = 38.72$, $p < .001$). Tukey's

HSD post hoc comparisons revealed the expected pattern, highly attractive targets received significantly lower ($p < .05$) probability of acceptance ratings ($M = 64.06$) than did moderately attractive targets ($M = 71.12$) which were significantly lower than those given to unattractive targets ($M = 75.26$).

Probability ratings were not distributed uniformly by males and females across the levels of physical attractiveness as evidenced by a significant interaction with gender ($F(1.43, 165.39) = 3.99$, $p < .05$). Mean probability of acceptance ratings for males and females at each level of attractiveness are presented in Figure 4.

Insert Figure 4 about here

Tukey's HSD post hoc comparisons among the means established that males expect significantly ($p < .05$) less acceptance from highly attractive targets ($M = 60.41$) than do females ($M = 67.71$). On the other hand, males and females expect to be accepted equally ($p > .05$) at moderate (Males: $M = 70.9$; Females: $M = 71.31$) and low (Males: $M = 74.29$; Females: $M = 76.22$) for unattractive targets. For males, highly attractive targets received significantly ($p < .05$) lower acceptance ratings ($M = 60.41$) than both moderate ($M = 70.91$) and unattractive ($M = 74.29$) targets, although acceptance ratings for moderately attractive targets did not differ significantly from ratings of unattractive targets.

For females, highly attractive targets received significantly lower ($p < .05$) probability of acceptance ratings ($M = 67.71$) than unattractive targets ($M = 74.29$), although ratings for moderately attractive targets ($M = 71.31$) did not differ significantly from ratings of either highly attractive or unattractive targets.

A significant main effect was also found for the wealth manipulation ($F(1.92, 222.69) = 5.76$, $p < .01$). Tukey's post hoc comparisons revealed that rich targets were given significantly lower ($p < .05$) probability of acceptance ratings ($M = 68.60$) than were poor ones ($M = 71.61$). Although, acceptance ratings of moderately wealthy targets ($M = 70.22$) did not differ significantly ($p > .05$) from either rich or poor targets.

Compatibility. The results of the analysis of variance for the compatibility ratings are summarized in Table 7.

Insert Table 7 about here

The prediction that subjects who received the negative frame would give lower compatibility ratings ($M = 5.17$) overall than would those who received the positive frame ($M = 5.54$) was supported by a marginally significant main effect for frame ($F(1, 116) = 3.29$, $p < .10$). In addition, compatibility ratings of both males and females were expected to be greater at moderate levels of physical

attractiveness. A significant main effect was found for physical attractiveness ($F(1.84, 212.91) = 147.15$, $p < .001$) as had been expected. However, Tukey's HSD post hoc comparisons revealed an unexpected pattern. Highly attractive targets were seen as significantly ($ps < .05$) more compatible ($M = 6.48$) than moderately attractive targets ($M = 5.71$) which were in turn more compatible than unattractive targets ($M = 4.19$). In addition, the gender by physical attractiveness interaction was significant ($F(1.84, 212.91) = 10.99$, $p < .001$), as well as the frame by physical attractiveness interaction ($F(1.84, 212.91) = 17.83$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, the gender by frame by physical attractiveness interaction also achieved significance ($F(1.84, 212.91) = 3.58$, $p < .05$). Figure 6 depicts the compatibility ratings of each framing condition by gender

---

Insert Figure 6 about here

---

and physical attractiveness. Tukey's post hoc comparisons of the means revealed that no significant differences ($p > .05$) existed for females between the framing conditions for unattractive [(+ frame): $M = 4.43$; (- frame): $M = 3.83$)], moderately attractive [(+ frame): $M = 6.24$; (- frame): $M = 5.55$)], or highly attractive targets [(+ frame): $M = 5.93$; (- frame): $M = 6.13$]). In addition, for females under both framing conditions, compatibility ratings for unattractive targets were significantly lower ($p < .05$) than those given

to moderately attractive targets, which in turn do not differ from those for highly attractive targets. For males, a different pattern emerged. Males in the positive framing condition gave significantly higher ($p < .05$) compatibility ratings to highly attractive targets ($M = 6.46$) than to unattractive targets ($M = 4.92$) with moderately attractive targets receiving intermediate ratings ($M = 5.87$) which did not significantly differ ($ps > .05$) from either group. For males in the negative framing condition, a significantly increasing difference ($ps < .05$) was noted across each level of physical attractiveness ((low: $M = 3.59$) < (moderate: $M = 5.19$) < (high: $M = 7.38$)). In addition, males in the negative framing condition gave significantly lower ($p < .05$) compatibility ratings to unattractive targets ($M = 3.59$) than did males in the positive framing condition ($M = 4.92$) although no such framing effect was noted for the moderate or highly attractive targets.

Choice

Design. A 2 (gender) by 2 (frame) multivariate analysis of variance was be performed on the following dependent variables of the chosen photo: (a) the scaled value of physical attractiveness, (b) the scaled value of the income rating (c) the probability of acceptance rating and (d) the compatibility rating. The cost salience factor is expected to have no effect on the photo chosen, given that all subjects would have estimated the cost of the date

prior to choosing, and hence it was not a relevant factor in this analysis. Univariate analyses were done following all significant multivariate effects.

Multivariate results. Significant main effects were determined for gender ($F(4, 113) = 3.73$, $p < .01$), and the framing condition ($F(4, 113) = 2.42$, $p < .05$). However, the gender by frame interaction failed to achieve significance ($F(4, 113) = 0.98$, $p > .05$).

Physical attractiveness. The scaled values of the physical attractiveness of the choice were computed by subtracting the grand mean for each gender from the attractiveness rating of the photo chosen (Table 1). As expected males chose a more attractive target ($M = 1.20$) overall than did females ($M = 0.56$) resulting in a significant main effect for gender ($F(1, 116) = 13.98$, $p < .001$) on the univariate analysis. In addition, a significant main effect was found for the framing condition ($F(1, 116) = 5.17$, $p < .05$). As expected the negative frame significantly ($p < .05$) increased ($M = 1.07$) the attractiveness of the chosen photo over the positive frame ($M = 0.69$).

Income. Because the same backgrounds were used for both males and females, the corresponding mean income rating of each residence was used as the dependent variable (Table 2). It was expected that females would choose a target with

a higher income level than would males. However, the main effect for gender failed to achieve the desired significance level ($F(1, 116) = 0.001$, $p > .05$). The main effect for the framing condition was also nonsignificant ($F(1. 116) = 0.05$, $p > .05$).

Probability of acceptance. Females were expected to select a photo with a higher probability of acceptance given their risk-aversive nature. Females who received the negative frame were expected to demonstrate more risk-seeking and therefore choose a target of lower probability of acceptance than those who received a positive frame. Males were expected to disregard the probability ratings in making their choices and consequently, show no difference as a result of frame. These hypotheses were not confirmed given the nonsignificant gender by frame interaction ($F(1, 116) = 0.068$, $p > .05$) and the nonsignificant gender main effect ($F(1, 116) = 0.218$, $p > .05$). The main effect of frame was likewise nonsignificant ($F(1, 116) = 0.27$, $p > .05$.

Compatibility. Females were expected to choose a target of higher compatibility overall and to be influenced by frame. In the negative framing condition, females were expected to choose a target of lower compatibility thereby demonstrating an increase in risk-seeking. Males were expected to disregard compatibility in making their choice of targets and consequently fail to differ as a result of

frame. However, the gender by frame interaction was nonsignificant ($F(1, 116) = 3.58$, $p > .05$) thereby disconfirming this hypothesis. Furthermore, no gender differences in compatibility of the chosen target were noted ($F(1, 116) = 0.11$, $p > .05$. The main effect for frame was, however, significant ($F(1, 116) = 4.73$, $p < .05$). Comparison of the means revealed that subjects in the negative framing condition chose a target of higher compatibility ($M = 8.10$) than did subjects in the positive framing condition ($M = 7.63$).

Hypergamy

In order to test the influence of subject social status on the income level of the chosen target, a separate analysis of variance was performed. The Hollingshead Index of Social Position was computed for each subject and scores were categorized into five levels in accordance with Hollingshead (1974). Table 8 presents the mean income values of the chosen targets by gender for each level of

---

Insert Table 8 about here

---

status. Two subjects were unable to be classified because of missing data (both parents were deceased in both cases). Because the two lower status levels had a small number of members (Class 4: $n = 16$; Class 5: $n = 3$), they were dropped from the analysis leaving a final sample size of $N = 99$. A

2 (gender) by 3 (social status) analysis of variance was performed on the scaled income value of the chosen target. For males, subject social status was expected to have no effect on choice of target. For females, the wealth level of the chosen target was expected to increase with increasing social status. However, no support was found for this hypothesis given that the gender by wealth level interaction did not achieve significance ($F(2, 93) = 1.10$, $p > .05$). The gender main effect was likewise nonsignificant ($p > .05$) with $F(1, 93) = 0.064$. The main effect for social class approached significance ($p < .10$) with $F(2, 93) = 2.72$. However, the pattern of the means was not in the expected direction. Persons from the highest social class chose significantly poorer targets ($M = 56.71$; $n = 31$) than did persons of the moderate ($M = 70.85$; $n = 38$) or lower social class ($M = 66.75$; $n = 30$).

Matching hypothesis

Correlations were computed in order to test the notion that subjects would select a target that matched his/her own level of attractiveness. The correlation between subject attractiveness and the attractiveness of the chosen target was nonsignificant ($ps > .05$, one-tailed test) for both males ($r = .136$) and females ($r = 115$). These findings disconfirm the matching hypothesis and instead support the idea that subjects, regardless of their own level of attractiveness, prefer the most attractive dates.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Experiment 1

Dating Risk

The purpose of Experiment 1 was to examine gender differences in dating decisions in terms of prospect theory. It was expected that males and females would respond from an imposed subjective frame resulting from their gender role socialization. Current societal practices regard females as the beneficiaries of the date and males as the initiators. For this reason, females are thought to be more focused on the potential gains and males on the potential costs of the date thereby leading to a difference in subjective frame. The tenets of prospect theory would predict that females would be characteristically risk-averse in dating decisions and males risk-seeking.

Because this was a hypothetical dating situation and therefore involvement in the task was low, these gender differences were expected to be enhanced by the framing of the questions. Positive framing was expected to strengthen risk aversion in females whereas negative framing was expected to strengthen the risk seeking of males. No

differences were expected as a result of sex role. Males and females were expected to approach all dating situations regardless of whether they are the initiator (masculine sex role) or the acceptor (feminine sex role) from the same subjective frame in accordance with their own sex role socialization. These hypotheses were not confirmed. It appears that males were characteristically risk seeking and did not change their risk bias regardless of the sex role manipulation. However, females were equally risk-seeking when responding from a masculine sex role but risk averse when responding from a feminine sex role. The framing of the question did not strengthen risk bias as had been expected. It appears that males will make a riskier decision regardless of whether they are the initiator or the acceptor of the date. On the other hand, females displayed a propensity for increased risk when given the opportunity to be the initiator. Perhaps feminine sex-role socialization has become more relaxed with regard to appropriate behavior and females feel more comfortable taking risks in dating situations.

Another interesting finding with respect to the sex-role stereotyped prospects was the difference in perception of the feminine sex-role between males and females. Females clearly differentiated the sex roles in the dating scenarios by selecting a female as "most natural" in the role of the acceptor and males in the role of the initiators. On the other hand, male subjects clearly viewed the male as "most

natural" in the role of the initiator, but more than one-third of male subjects also viewed males as equally likely to be acceptors. These data would suggest that males view more flexibility in their gender role in that they can be both the initiator and the acceptor of a dating offer. In addition, males appear to approach both the initiating and the accepting of a date from a risk-seeking strategy. Future research into current views of accepted sex roles in dating should focus on gender differences with regard to accepted practices in dating. Perhaps the trend is toward a more balanced relationship with males and females sharing in the initiating and costs of the date which could account for these findings.

Correlational Findings

For males in the sample, dating risk was predicted by scores on the risk survey involving monetary gambles. This suggests that, for males, knowledge of risk preference in the domain of money predicts their willingness to take risks with regard to dating. For females, risk in dating was not predicted by risk preference in monetary gambles or self-monitoring scores. However, risk preference was positively related to self-monitoring for females. This would suggest that, at least for females, self-monitoring is measuring a form of risk. An interesting follow-up study would be to compare the riskiness of the dating decisions of males and females with different risk styles (in monetary gambles).

This would, however, be a difficult feat given that out of a total sample of 282 individuals, only 2.1% (n = 6) consistently preferred the gamble to the sure thing. Of the total sample, 48.6% (n=137) consistently preferred the sure thing. It is evident from these data that for monetary gambles, a risk aversive style is the norm.

Experiment 2

Design 1

One objective of Experiment 2 was to further investigate the differential effects of increasing the salience of dating costs on the decisions of males and females. It was predicted that females would prefer wealthier targets when costs were made salient while males would not differentiate between rich and poor targets. When costs were not salient, males and females were expected to show a similar pattern of preference for the wealthier targets. This prediction was not confirmed. Instead, males and females showed a preference for rich targets under both cost salience conditions.

The cost salience condition had an unexpected effect on the dating decisions of both males and females. Both genders gave higher desirability ratings and monetary expenditure estimates when costs were enhanced. This suggests that the subjects in the high cost salience condition may have been using a different strategy in making their decisions as a result of the cost salience

manipulation. Post-experimental comments by several subjects in the high cost salience condition suggest that these subjects may have been more focused on estimating the "proper" amount of money to spend on a "special occasion" date. Once they established the "appropriate" amount, this may then have been used as a lower limit from which estimates increased for more attractive targets.

Estimating the amount they would spend on the date in this manner may have affected the desire to date ratings as well. Because they were asked to imagine that they had "already agreed" to go on a date with each target, and had pre-determined what the costs would be for such a date, they may have been alleviating cognitive dissonance by professing a greater desire to date them. In the low cost salience condition, subjects first rated their desire to date the targets thereby creating a different "set" under which both ratings were made. Perhaps the targets of higher physical attractiveness were awarded the usual amount of money one would spend on such a "special occasion" and ratings were then extended downwards for the others.

This view is supported by prior research (Phillips & Rhodes, 1991) in which increasing the cost salience did not uniformly effect the desirability ratings. In the prior study, subjects in the low cost salience condition rated only their desire to date each target whereas subjects in the high cost salience condition rated first their desire to date and then the amount of money they would spend for each

target. In addition, both decisions were made for each target before advancing to the next one. This may have been a more effective method for making the costs involved in dating more salient than the one used in the current study. An alternate strategy would be to ask subjects in the high cost salience condition to estimate the price of a "special occasion date" in general, prior to their viewing the targets and eliminate the monetary expenditure estimates for each target.

Nonetheless, other hypotheses of Design 1 were confirmed. Namely, the well-established finding that both desirability ratings and expenditure estimates would be a function of the attractiveness level of the target. Again, the importance of physical attractiveness in dating decisions was supported. Moreover, previously-determined gender differences were upheld. Males desired dates more overall than did females and agreed to spend more for the dates. In addition, males desired dates with highly attractive targets and agreed to spend more on the date than did females whereas no such differences were found for unattractive targets.

Design 2

Another objective of Experiment 2 was to investigate the effects of using an acceptance strategy versus a rejecting strategy on the riskiness of dating decisions. Probability of acceptance estimates were found to decrease

with the increasing attractiveness of the target as had been predicted on the basis of the extant literature (Shanteau & Nagy, 1976, 1979). However, males were found to expect more rejection from highly attractive targets than did females, although both genders assume equal levels of acceptance by moderately attractive and unattractive individuals. In addition, both genders expect to be rejected more by rich targets than by poor ones. From these data, it appears that both males and females base their probability of acceptance ratings on an additive combination of wealth and physical attractiveness. This lends some support to the idea that social class is an important dating determinant although it does not substantiate the well-documented gender differences (Buss, 1985; Buss & Angleitner, 1989).

Subjects also rated their perceived compatibility with each target. Compatibility was expected to be influenced by the framing condition in that subjects using the rejecting strategy would give lower compatibility ratings than would those using an accepting strategy. This prediction was indeed confirmed.

Physical attractiveness of the target was expected to affect compatibility ratings in such a way that targets of moderate physical attractiveness would be seen as more compatible. However, compatibility estimates appeared to be increased by increasing physical attractiveness. Moreover, this was not done uniformly by males and females. In addition, the pattern displayed by each gender varied with

framing condition. Males who were thinking in terms of rejection differentiated much more on the basis of physical attractiveness that those thinking in terms of acceptance. Females, on the other hand, who were thinking in terms of rejection did not differ in their compatibility ratings from those who were thinking in terms of acceptance.

These findings may be due to differences in subjective frames imposed by males and females. For females, who have less experience with rejection due to less experience playing the role of the initiator, a rejecting strategy did very little to change their compatibility estimates whereas for males it had a stronger effect. It is still not clear as to why physical attractiveness is viewed as a measure of compatibility. It would seem that compatibility estimates would involve the matching phenomenon (Murstein & Christy, 1976; Price & Vandenburg, 1979) and hence result in increased compatibility estimates for targets of moderate attractiveness. Perhaps basing compatibility on beauty is simply another instance of the physical attractiveness stereotype in action (Dion, et al., 1972).

Choice. The framing condition was expected to affect the choice of targets on a number of attributes. Thinking in terms of rejection was presumed to induce risk-seeking and thereby result in a more attractive choice. This prediction was affirmed.

In addition, probability of acceptance and

compatibility estimates were expected to vary for each gender as a function of the framing condition. Males were expected to disregard both probability of acceptance and compatibility ratings in their choices. Females, however, were expected to be more risk averse overall resulting in a choice with higher compatibility and acceptance ratings. These ratings were expected to be lower for females who received the negative frame which would result in greater risk seeking. Likewise, these predictions were not substantiated. Instead, no differences were found in compatibility ratings of males and females. In addition, frame was found to affect compatibility uniformly rather than differentially as had been predicted. Subjects in the negative framing condition chose targets whom they perceived as more compatible. This finding is contrary to predictions. However, this result is undoubtedly due to the previously-noted tendency of subjects to base compatibility ratings on the target's attractiveness. In this respect, compatibility and attractiveness are confounded. Because the subjects receiving the negative frame chose targets of higher physical attractiveness, we would expect their choices to be higher in compatibility as well.

It was also predicted that females would choose a wealthier target than would males. This however, was not affirmed. No differences existed in the wealth of the target chosen for any of the conditions. This does not support the notion that females give greater weight to

social status and potential earning capacity than do males.

Hypergamy. Another objective of this study was to test the notion of hypergamy by examining the wealth level of the chosen target as a function of the subject's social class and gender. It was expected that females would choose wealthier targets as their own social status increased. Males, on the other hand, were not expected to differentiate on the basis of wealth. This prediction was not corroborated by the data. These findings appear to support the notion that hypergamy is the result of social forces that constrain the field of potential dating partners, rather than the result of a true desire of the female to marry upward in social class.

Conclusions

In summary, these findings lend further support to the predictive value of physical attractiveness in dating decisions. In addition, they substantiate the gender differences that have been previously documented concerning the importance placed on physical attractiveness. Males are more affected by the physical attractiveness of potential dates. They profess a greater desire to date attractive targets. They report a willingness to spend more on an attractive date, and view them as more compatible than do females, even though attractive targets were additionally viewed as being less likely to accept them as a dating

partner. Altogether, this would imply that males are greater risk seekers with regard to dating and that this is due to the subjective frames they impose on the dating situation. The frames are thought to result from sex role socialization.

Females, like males, preferred to date more attractive targets and agreed to spend more money on them, although to a lesser degree. They also based compatibility ratings on physical attractiveness but did not differentiate as much on this variable as did males. In addition, females expected less rejection from more attractive targets than did males probably due to less experience in initiating dates. Furthermore, females responded in a risk averse manner when placed in the role of the acceptor.

The question still remains as to whether females and males differ with regard to the importance they place on social status when making dating decisions. No support was found for the idea that females are more concerned with the earning capacity of potential dates. Instead, it appears that males and females are equally concerned with social status and show a preference for rich over poor targets but do not show a tendency to match on this variable. Maybe altering the composite images in a less subtle way would increase the salience of the wealth variable. Perhaps varying status symbols such as expensive jewelry or cars in addition to background homes would be a better strategy. Nonetheless, findings have been conflicting and inconclusive

and thereby warrant further research in the area.

REFERENCES

Abbott, P., & Sapsford, R. (1987). Women and Social Class. New York: Tavistock.

Berscheid, E., Dion, K. K., Walster, E., & Walster, G. W. (1971). Physical attractiveness and dating choice: A test of the matching hypothesis. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 7, 173-189.

Buss, D. M. (1985). Human mate selection. American Scientist, 73, 47-51.

Buss, D. M., & Angleitner, A. (1989). Mate selection preferences in Germany and the United States. Personality and Individual Differences, 10(12), 1269-1280.

Byrne, D., & Clore, G. L. (1970). A reinforcement model of evaluative responses. Personality: An International Journal, 1, 103-128.

Byrne, D., Ervin, C. F., & Lamberth, J. (1970). Continuity between the experimental study of attraction and real-life computer dating. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 16, 157-165.

Clifford, M., & Walster E. (1973). The effect of physical attractiveness on teacher expectation. Sociology of Education, 46, 248.

Daniel, H. J., O'Brien, K. F., McCabe, R. B., & Quinter, V.

E. (1985). Values in mate selection: A 1984 campus survey. College Student Journal, 19(1), 44-50.

Dermer, M., & Thiel, D. L. (1975). When beauty may fail. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 1168-1176.

Dion, K. K., Berscheid, E., & Walster, E. (1972). What is beautiful is good. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 24, 285-290.

Elder, G. H. (1969). Appearance and education in marriage mobility. American Sociological Review, 34, 519-533.

Elliott, C. S., & Archibald, R. E. (1989). Subjective framing and attitudes towards risk. Journal of Economic Psychology, 10, 321-328.

Feingold, A. (1982). Physical attractiveness and romantic evolvement. Psychological Reports, 50, 802.

Feingold, A. (1988). Matching for attractiveness in romantic partners and same-sex friends: A meta-analysis and theoretical critique. Psychological Bulletin, 104(2), 226-235.

Folkes, V. S. (1982). Forming relationships and the matching hypothesis. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 8, 631-6886.

Gold, J. A., Ryckman, R. M., & Mosley, N. R. (1984). Romantic mood induction and attraction to a dissimilar other: Is love blind? Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 10, 358-368.

Green, S. K., Buchanan, D. R., & Heuer, S. K. (1984).

Winners, losers, and choosers: A field investigation of dating initiation. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 10(4), 502-511.

Harkness, A. R., DeBono, K. G., & Borgida, E. (1985). Personal involvement and strategies for making contingency judgments: A stake in the dating game makes a difference. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49(1), 22-32.

Harrison, A. A., & Saeed L. (1977). Let's make a deal: An analysis of revelations and stipulations in lonely hearts advertisements. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 257-264.

Hill, E. M., Nocks, E. S., & Gardner, L. (1987). Physical attractiveness: Manipulation by physique and status displays. Ethology and Sociobiology, 8, 143-154.

Hollingshead, A. B. (1974). Two factor index of social position. Unpublished manuscript.

Howard, J. A., Blumstein, P., & Schwartz, P. (1987). Social or evolutionary theories? Some observations on preference in human mate selection. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53(1), 194-200.

Huber, V. L., Neale, M. A., & Northcraft, G. B. (1987). Decision bias and personnel selection strategies. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 40, 136-147.

Huston, T. L. (1973). Ambiguity of acceptance, social desirability, and dating choice. Journal of Experimental

Social Psychology, 8, 32-42.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. Econometrica, 47, 263-291.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. Science, 211, 453-458.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1982). The psychology of preferences. Scientific American, 246, 160-173.

Kalick, S. M. (1988). Physical attractiveness as a status cue. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 24, 469-489.

Kalick, S. M., & Hamilton, T. E. (1986). The matching hypothesis reexamined. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51, 673-682.

Kleck, R. E., & Rubenstein, C. (1975). Physical attractiveness, perceived attitude similarity, and interpersonal attraction in an opposite-sex encounter. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 107-114.

Levin, I. P., & Gaeth, G. J. (1988). Framing of attribute information before and after consuming the product. Journal of Consumer Research, 15, 374-378.

Levin, I. P., Schnittjer, S. K., & Thee, S. L. (1988). Information framing effects in social and personal decisions. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 24, 520-529.

Maheswaran, D., & Meyers-Levy, J. (1990). The influence of

message framing and issue involvement. Journal of Marketing Research, 27, 361-367.

Murstein, B. I., & Christy, P. (1976). Physical attractiveness and marriage adjustment in middle-aged couples. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 537-542.

Naficy, A. (1982). Mate selection: The relative contributions of age, physical attractiveness, and income to desirability as romantic and marriage partners. Dissertation Abstracts International, 42, 4561B. (University Microfilms No. 82-08, 223).

Nagy, G., Jewett, R., & Shanteau, J. (1976). Comparison of dating strategies for males and female. (Report No. 76-6). Lawrence: Kansas State University.

Nagy, G., Ruggles, B., & Shanteau, J. (1976). Influence of compatibility, probability, and physical attractiveness in dating choice. (Report No. 76-7). Lawrence: Kansas State University.

Nevid, S. S. (1984). Sex differences in factors of romantic attraction. Sex Roles, 11, 401-411.

Parra, M. (1988). Risk seeking and risk aversion in the social dating situation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK.

Phillips, J. L., & Rhodes, S. K. (1991). [Gender, wealth and physical attractiveness: Replication]. Unpublished raw data.

Phillips, J. L., & Rhodes, S. K. (1991). [Gender, wealth,

physical attractiveness, and cost salience: A pilot study]. Unpublished raw data.

Price, R. A., & Vandenburg, S. G. (1979). Matching for physical attractiveness in married couples. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 5, 398-400.

Rhodes, S. K., Phillips, J. L., & Bearde, L. (1989). Gender comparisons of the relative contributions of wealth and physical attractiveness to desire to date. Unpublished manuscript.

Schneider, S. L., & Lopes, L. L. (1986). Reflection in preferences under risk: Who and when may suggest why. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 12(4), 535-548.

Shanteau, J., & Nagy, G. F. (1976). Decisions made about other people: A human judgment analysis of dating choice. In J. S. Carroll & J. W. Payne (Eds.), Cognition and Social Behavior (pp. 221-242). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Shanteau, J., & Nagy, G. F. (1979). Probability of acceptance in dating choices. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37(4), 522-533.

Snyder, M. (1974). The self-monitoring of expressive behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30, 526-537.

Snyder, M., Berscheid, E., & Glick, P. (1985). Focusing on the exterior and the interior: Two investigations of the initiation of personal relationships. Journal of

Personality and Social Psychology, 48(6), 1427-1439.

Snyder, M., & Simpson, J. A. (1984). Self-monitoring and dating relationships. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47(6), 1281-1291.

Snyder, M., Simpson, J. A., & Gangestad, S. (1986). Personality and sexual relations. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(1), 181-190.

Townsend, J. M. (1989). Mate selection criteria: A pilot study. Ethology and Sociobiology, 10, 241-253.

Walster, E., Aronson, V., Abrahams, D., & Rottman, L. (1966). Importance of physical attractiveness in dating behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 4, 508-516.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM - EXPERIMENT I

CONSENT FORM

I (print name)_____hereby authorize and direct James L. Phillips, Ph.D. and Susan K. Rhodes, or associates or assistants of their choosing, to perform the following procedure:

Questionnaires: As a participant in this experiment, you will be asked to complete several questionnaires. These include a demographic questionnaire, a questionnaire about hypothetical dating decisions (you do not have to be currently dating), a survey asking you to choose between a number of hypothetical monetary gambles, and a survey asking you to answer a few questions about your style of interpersonal relating.

Duration of Participation: Approximately 30 minutes.

Confidentiality: Data from this experiment, including your questionnaires, will be kept in a secure place. Your name will not appear on the questionnaires but instead will be coded by an identification number. This number and your name will be kept in a separate file if you should choose to participate in Part II of this study (optional). This file will then be destroyed following our participation. The results of this study may be presented at professional meetings or in publications. However, your anonymity will be preserved.

Risks: The risks in this study are minimal and do not exceed those ordinarily encountered in everyday life.

Benefits: This study may help researchers to understand the processes involved in complex social decisions.

Compensation for your participation: You will be awarded extra credit points as outlined by your course syllabus for PSYCH 1113. Whether or not you choose to participate in this experiment, there are other ways that you can earn extra credit. You can be involved in other experiments or you can do projects (e.g., reports). If you have questions about other ways to earn extra credit ask your PSYCH 1113 instructor.

I have been fully informed about the procedures listed here. I am aware of what I will be asked to do and of the risks and benefits in this study. I also understand the following statements:

This is done as part of an investigation entitled: An Examination of Dating Choices: Part I.

The purpose of the procedure is to understand the factors influencing dating decisions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty.

I may contact James L. Phillips at telephone number (405) 744-7334 should I wish further information about the research. I may also contact Lee Ann Prater, University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078: Telephone: (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_____ Time_____(a.m./p.m.)

Signed_____
(Signature of Subject)

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject before requesting him/her to sign it.

Signed_____
(Project Director or Authorized Representative)

APPENDIX B

IRB APPROVAL

IRB APPROVAL

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

Proposal Title: An examination at Dating Choices: Part II

Principal Investigator: J. Phillips/ S. Rhodes

Date: 10-25-91 IRB # AS-92-016

This application has been reviewed by the IRB and

Processed as: Exempt [ ] Expedite [ ] Full Board Review [X]

Renewal or Continuation [ ]

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s):

Approved [X] Deferred for Revision [ ]

Approved with Provision [ ] Disapproved [ ]

Approval status subject to review by full Institutional Review Board at next meeting, 2nd and 4th Thursday of each month.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reason for Deferral or Disapproval:

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

ID#_____ Age_____ Gender (M/F)_____

1. What is your classification in school?

_____Freshman
_____Sophomore
_____Other (specify)
_____Junior
_____Senior

2. What is your marital status?

_____Single
_____Married
_____Widowed
_____Divorced / Separated

3. What is your race?

_____White
_____Black
_____Hispanic
_____Oriental/Asian
_____Native American
_____Other (specify)

4. If you are SINGLE, please provide the following information about your parents:

Mother's exact occupation_____.
Her highest grade completed_____.
Father's exact occupation_____.
His highest grade completed_____.
Combined family income (if known)_____.

4. If you are MARRIED, WIDOWED, DIVORCED or a HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD, please provide the following information (if applicable):

Your exact occupation_____.
Spouse's exact occupation_____.
Spouse's highest grade completed_____.
Combined family income _____.

5. If you are SINGLE, DIVORCED, or SEPARATED please select from among the following the best description of your current dating status.

_____Not currently dating
_____Dating casually (not committed)
_____Dating someone steadily (committed relationship)
_____Engaged to be married

APPENDIX D

RISK STYLE SURVEY

Please read the following gambles and place an X beside the one that you would prefer in each pair.

1. Which would you prefer:

_____a) an 80% chance to win $3,200

_____b) $3,200 for sure

2. Which would you prefer:

_____a) a 20% chance to win $15,000

_____b) $3,000 for sure

3. Which would you prefer:

_____a) a 90% chance to win $2,000

_____b) $1800 for sure

4. Which would you prefer:

_____a) a 10% chance to win $16,000

_____b) $1,600 for sure

5. Which would you prefer:

_____a) 50% chance for $5,000

_____b) $2,500 for sure

APPENDIX E

DATING QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following scenarios. Each is written from both a male and female viewpoint. The rating scale used in these scenarios refers to the qualities looked for in a dating partner and corresponds to 1 (very few qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities). Decide which viewpoint sounds more natural and place an X beside it.

1. Which is more natural?

_____Person A has met a girl that he feels is a 9 on his rating scale and he is considering asking her out. He is unsure if she is interested in him, but he is very interested in her. Person A believes that there is about a 50% chance that she will accept his offer if he asks.

_____Person A has met a guy that she feels is a 9 on her rating scale and she is considering asking him out. She is unsure if he is interested in her, but she is very interested in him. Person A believes that there is about a 50% chance that he will accept her offer if she asks.

2. Which is more natural?

_____Person A has already purchased two tickets for a concert on Saturday night. He and his date have had a falling out and now he would like to find someone else to go with him. All of his friends already have dates to the concert and he does not want to have to go alone. He knows a girl, Kirstin, that he has seen around a lot and is certain that she is interested in dating him. He likes her and considers her to be a 5 on his rating scale. He also knows her roommate, Bev, and considers her to be a 9. However, Person A is not sure if Bev likes him, and he estimates that there is about a 20% chance of her accepting the date if he asks. He would really like to go out with Bev. However, if he asks Bev out, he would kill his chances of ever dating Kirstin.

_____Person A has already purchased two tickets for a concert on Saturday night. She and her date have had a falling out and now she would like to find someone else to go with her. All of her friends already have dates to the concert and she does not want to have to go alone. She knows a guy, Kevin, that she has seen around a lot and is certain that he is interested in dating her. She likes him and considers him to be a 5 on her rating scale. She also knows his roommate, Bill, and considers him to be a 9. However, Person A is not sure if Bill likes her, and she estimates that there is about a 20% chance of his accepting the date if she asks. She would really like to go out with Bill. However, if she asks Bill out, she would kill her chances of ever dating Kevin.

3. Which is more natural?

_____Person A is at a party and a girl named Jennifer approaches him. She appears to be interested in him and he considers her to be truly a 9 on his rating scale. Joy is also at the party and Person A knows that she is planning to ask him to go with her to an important campus function. Joy is a nice girl and he likes her. He considers her to be a 5 on his rating scale. However, he figures that there is about a 20% chance that Jennifer will ask him to go with her if he spends time talking to her. Person A also knows that if he spends his time with Jennifer, Joy is going to ask Lance. At this point, he can either encourage Jennifer and hope that she asks him, or turn his attention to Joy whom he is sure will ask him.

_____Person A is at a party and a guy named Jason approaches her. He appears to be interested in her and she considers him to be truly a 9 on her rating scale. John is also at the party and Person A knows that he is planning to ask her to go with him to an important campus function. John is a nice guy and she likes him. She considers him to be a 5 on her rating scale. However, she figures that there is about a 20% chance that Jason will ask her to go with him if she spends time talking to him. Person A also knows that if she spends her time with Jason, John is going to ask Linda. At this point, she can either encourage Jason and hope that he asks her, or turn her attention to John whom she is sure will ask her.

4. Which is more natural?

_____Person A really wants to go to a dance on Friday night. All of his friends already have dates. A girl named Jan calls and asks him to go with her. Jan is OK and he considers her to be a 5 on his rating scale. However, he talked to a girl named Christy at a party last week and he considers her to be a 9. She mentioned the dance to him, and he estimates that there is about a 50% chance that she will call and ask him to go with her. He can either accept Jan's offer or wait on Christy to call.

_____Person A really wants to go to a dance on Friday night. All of her friends already have dates. A guy named Joe calls and asks her to go with him. Joe is OK and she considers him to be a 5 on her rating scale. However, she talked to a guy named Chuck at a party last week and she considers him to be a 9. He mentioned the dance to her, and she estimates that there is about a 50% chance that he will call and ask her to go with him. She can either accept Joe's offer or wait on Chuck to call.

APPENDIX F

STEREOTYPICALLY FEMININE / POSITIVE FRAME

VERSION 1: FOR FEMALE SUBJECTS

VERSION 2: FOR MALE SUBJECTS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives.

1. You are at a party and a guy named Jason approaches you. He appears to be interested in you and you consider him to be truly a 9 on your rating scale. John is also at the party and you know that he is planning to ask you to go with him to an important campus function. John is a nice guy and you like him. You consider him to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you figure that there is about a 20% chance that Jason will ask you to go with him if you spend time talking to him. You also know that if you spend your time with Jason, John is going to ask Linda. At this point, you can either encourage Jason and hope that he asks you, or turn your attention to John whom you are sure will ask you. What would you do?

Spend time with:

JOHN (a 5 and a sure thing) — JASON (a 9 and 20% chance of asking)

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY JOHN	PROBABLY JOHN	PROBABLY JASON	DEFINITELY JASON

2. You really want to go to a dance on Friday night. All of your friends already have dates. A guy named Joe calls and asks you to go with him. Joe is OK and you consider him to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you talked to a guy named Chuck at a party last week and you consider him to be a 9. He mentioned the dance to you, and you estimate that there is about a 50% chance that he will call and ask you to go with him. You can either accept Joe's offer or wait on Chuck to call. Do you?

GO WITH JOE — WAIT ON CHUCK TO CALL

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY JOE	PROBABLY JOE	PROBABLY CHUCK	DEFINITELY CHUCK

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives

1. You are at a party and a girl named Jennifer approaches you. She appears to be interested in you and you consider her to be truly a 9 on your rating scale. Joy is also at the party and you know that she is planning to ask you to go with her to an important campus function. Joy is a nice girl and you like her. You consider her to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you figure that there is about a 20% chance that Jennifer will ask you to go with her if you spend time talking to her. You also know that if you spend your time with Jennifer, Joy is going to ask Lance. At this point, you can either encourage Jennifer and hope that she asks you, or turn your attention to Joy whom you are sure will ask you. What would you do?

Spend time with:

JENNIFER (a 5 and a sure thing)			JOY (a 9 and 20% chance of asking)
1	2	3	4
DEFINITELY JENNIFER	PROBABLY JENNIFER	PROBABLY JOY	DEFINITELY JOY

2. You really want to go to a dance on Friday night. All of your friends already have dates. A girl named Jan calls and asks you to go with her. Jan is OK and you consider her to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you talked to a girl named Christy at a party last week and you consider her to be a 9. She mentioned the dance to you, and you estimate that there is about a 50% chance that she will call and ask you to go with her. Do you?

GO WITH JAN			WAIT ON CHRISTY TO CALL
1	2	3	4
DEFINITELY JAN	PROBABLY JAN	PROBABLY CHRISTY	DEFINITELY CHRISTY

APPENDIX G

STEREOTYPICALLY FEMININE / NEGATIVE FRAME

VERSION 1: FOR FEMALE SUBJECTS

VERSION 2: FOR MALE SUBJECTS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives.

1. You are at a party and a guy named Jason approaches you. He appears to be interested in you and you consider him to be truly a 9 on your rating scale. John is also at the party and you know that he is planning to ask you to go with him to an important campus function. John is a nice guy and you like him. You consider him to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you figure that there is about an 80% chance that Jason will not ask you to go with him if you spend time talking to him. You also know that if you spend your time with Jason, John is going to ask Linda. At this point, you can either encourage Jason and hope that he asks you, or turn your attention to John whom you are sure will ask you. What would you do?

Spend time with:

JOHN (a 5 and a sure thing)			JASON (a 9 and 80% chance of not asking)
1	2	3	4
DEFINITELY JOHN	PROBABLY JOHN	PROBABLY JASON	DEFINITELY JASON

2. You really want to go to a dance on Friday night. All of your friends already have dates. A guy named Joe calls and asks you to go with him. Joe is OK and you consider him to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you talked to a guy named Chuck at a party last week and you consider him to be a 9. He mentioned the dance to you, and you estimate that there is about a 50% chance that he will not call and ask you to go with him. You can either accept Joe's offer or wait on Chuck to call. Do you?

GO WITH JOE			WAIT ON CHUCK TO CALL
1	2	3	4
DEFINITELY JOE	PROBABLY JOE	PROBABLY CHUCK	DEFINITELY CHUCK

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives

1. You are at a party and a girl named Jennifer approaches you. She appears to be interested in you and you consider her to be truly a 9 on your rating scale. Joy is also at the party and you know that she is planning to ask you to go with her to an important campus function. Joy is a nice girl and you like her. You consider her to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you figure that there is about an 80% chance that Jennifer will not ask you to go with her if you spend time talking to her. You also know that if you spend your time with Jennifer, Joy is going to ask Lance. At this point, you can either encourage Jennifer and hope that she asks you, or turn your attention to Joy whom you are sure will ask you. What would you do?

Spend time with:

JENNIFER (a 5 and a sure thing)		JOY (a 9 and 80% chance of not asking)	
1	2	3	4
DEFINITELY JENNIFER	PROBABLY JENNIFER	PROBABLY JOY	DEFINITELY JOY

2. You really want to go to a dance on Friday night. All of your friends already have dates. A girl named Jan calls and asks you to go with her. Jan is OK and you consider her to be a 5 on your rating scale. However, you talked to a girl named Christy at a party last week and you consider her to be a 9. She mentioned the dance to you, and you estimate that there is about a 50% chance that she will not call and ask you to go with her. Do you?

GO WITH JAN		WAIT ON CHRISTY TO CALL	
1	2	3	4
DEFINITELY JAN	PROBABLY JAN	PROBABLY CHRISTY	DEFINITELY CHRISTY

APPENDIX H

STEREOTYPICALLY MASCULINE / POSITIVE FRAME

VERSION 1: FOR MALE SUBJECTS

VERSION 2: FOR FEMALE SUBJECTS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives.

1. You have met a girl that you feel is a 9 on your rating scale and you are considering asking her out. You are unsure if she is interested in you, but you are very interested in her. You believe that there is about a 50% chance that she will accept your offer if you ask. Do you ask her out?

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY YES	PROBABLY YES	PROBABLY NO	DEFINITELY NO

2. You have already purchased two tickets for a concert on Saturday night. You and your date have had a falling out and now you would like to find someone else to go with you. All of your friends already have dates to the concert and you do not want to have to go alone. You know a girl, Kirstin, that you have seen around a lot and are certain that she is interested in dating you. You like her and consider her to be a 5 on your rating scale. You also know her roommate, Bev, and consider her to be a 9. However, you are not sure if Bev likes you, and you estimate that there is about a 20% chance of her accepting the date if you ask. You would really like to go out with her. However, if you ask Bev out, you would kill your chances of ever dating Kirstin. Would you ask out:

KIRSTIN (a 5 and a sure thing)	BEV (a 9 and a 20% chance of accepting)

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY BEV	DEFINITELY BEV

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives.

1. You have met a guy that you feel is a 9 on your rating scale and you are considering asking him out. You are unsure if he is interested in you, but you are very interested in him. You believe that there is about a 50% chance that he will accept your offer if you ask. Do you ask him out?

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY YES	PROBABLY YES	PROBABLY NO	DEFINITELY NO

2. You have already purchased two tickets for a concert on Saturday night. You and your date have had a falling out and now you would like to find someone else to go with you. All of your friends already have dates to the concert and you do not want to have to go alone. You know a guy, Kevin, that you have seen around a lot and are certain that he is interested in dating you. You like him and consider him to be a 5 on your rating scale. You also know his roommate, Bill, and consider him to be a 9. However, you are not sure if Bill likes you, and you estimate that there is about a 20% chance of his accepting the date if you ask. You would really like to go out with him. However, if you ask Bill out, you would kill your chances of ever dating Kevin. Would you ask out:

KEVIN (a 5 and a sure thing)	BILL (a 9 and a 20% chance of accepting)

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY BEV	DEFINITELY BEV

APPENDIX I

STEREOTYPICALLY MASCULINE / NEGATIVE FRAME

VERSION 1: FOR MALE SUBJECTS

VERSION 2: FOR FEMALE SUBJECTS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives.

1. You have met a girl that you feel is a 9 on your rating scale and you are considering asking her out. You are unsure if she is interested in you, but you are very interested in her. You believe that there is about a 50% chance that she will reject your offer if you ask. Do you ask her out?

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY YES	PROBABLY YES	PROBABLY NO	DEFINITELY NO

2. You have already purchased two tickets for a concert on Saturday night. You and your date have had a falling out and now you would like to find someone else to go with you. All of your friends already have dates to the concert and you do not want to have to go alone. You know a girl, Kirstin, that you have seen around a lot and are certain that she is interested in dating you. You like her and consider her to be a 5 on your rating scale. You also know her roommate, Bev, and consider her to be a 9. However, you are not sure if Bev likes you, and you estimate that there is about an 80% chance of her rejecting the date if you ask. You would really like to go out with her. However, if you ask Bev out, you would kill your chances of ever dating Kirstin. Would you ask out:

KIRSTIN (a 5 and a sure thing)	BEV (a 9 and 80% chance of rejecting)

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY BEV	DEFINITELY BEV

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about dating. Consider the qualities that you look for in a dating partner and imagine what it would be like if you rated your potential dates along a scale from 1 (very few of these qualities) to 10 (all of the qualities you look for). Please try to put yourself into the following situations and answer them in the way you truly would and not necessarily in the way you feel you should. If you are currently married or dating someone steadily, answer them the way you would have prior to your current relationship. Please circle one of the available options even if you can imagine other alternatives.

1. You have met a guy that you feel is a 9 on your rating scale and you are considering asking him out. You are unsure if he is interested in you, but you are very interested in him. You believe that there is about a 50% chance that he will reject your offer if you ask. Do you ask him out?

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY YES	PROBABLY YES	PROBABLY NO	DEFINITELY NO

2. You have already purchased two tickets for a concert on Saturday night. You and your date have had a falling out and now you would like to find someone else to go with you. All of your friends already have dates to the concert and you do not want to have to go alone. You know a guy, Kevin, that you have seen around a lot and are certain that he is interested in dating you. You like him and consider him to be a 5 on your rating scale. You also know his roommate, Bill, and consider him to be a 9. However, you are not sure if Bill likes you, and you estimate that there is about an 80% chance of his rejecting the date if you ask. You would really like to go out with him. However, if you ask Bill out, you would kill your chances of ever dating Kevin. Would you ask out:

KEVIN (a 5 and a sure thing)	BILL (a 9 and 80% chance of rejecting)

1----------2----------3----------4

DEFINITELY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY KIRSTIN	PROBABLY BEV	DEFINITELY BEV

APPENDIX J

SELF-MONITORING SCALE

The statements on the following pages concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, put an X in the space Marked T on your answer sheet. If a statement is FALSE or NOT USUALLY TRUE as applied to you, put an X in the space marked F.

	T	F
1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.	____	_*__
2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes and beliefs.	____	_*__
3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.	____	_*__
4. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.	____	_*__
5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.	_*__	____
6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.	_*__	____
7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.	_*__	____
8. I would probably make a good actor.	_*__	____
9. I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.	____	_*__
10. I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.	_*__	____
11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.	_*__	____
12. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.	____	_*__
13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	_*__	____
14. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	____	_*__

	T	F
15. Even if I am not enjoying myself I often pretend to be having a good time.	*	
16. I'm not always the person I pretend to be.	*	
17. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.		*
18. I have considered being an entertainer.	*	
19. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.	*	
20. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.		*
21. I have problems changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.		*
22. At a party i let others keep the jokes and stories going.		*
23. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.		*
24. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).	*	
25. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.	*	

* Indicates high self-monitoring.

APPENDIX K

CONSENT FORM - EXPERIMENT II

CONSENT FORM

I (print name)_____hereby authorize and direct James L. Phillips, Ph.D. and Susan K. Rhodes, or associates or assistants of their choosing, to perform the following procedure:

Questionnaires: As a participant in this experiment, you will be asked to make several judgments about nine members of the opposite sex of whom you will be shown photographs. These photos will be presented on a computer monitor and you will make your judgments on the computer keyboard. These decisions will be similar to those you make in everyday heterosexual dating situations. In addition, you will asked to select one photo from among the nine that you would most like to meet.

Duration of Participation: Approximately 60 minutes.

Confidentiality: Data from this experiment will be kept in a secure place. Only the experimenter will have access to it. Your name will not be used to identify your data but instead will be coded by an identification number. The identification number you were given in Part I of this study was kept in separate file from your responses. This number will be entered into the computer by the experimenter or her assistants in order to link your responses in both parts of the study. Your page in the file will then be destroyed following your participation. The results of this study may be presented at professional meetings or in publications. However, your anonymity will be preserved.

Risks: The risks in this study are minimal and do not exceed those ordinarily encountered in everyday life.

Benefits: This study may help researchers to understand the processes involved in complex social decisions.

Compensation for your participation: You will be awarded extra credit points as outlined by your course syllabus for PSYCH 1113. Whether or not you choose to participate in this experiment, there are other ways that you can earn extra credit. You can be involved in other experiments or you can do projects (e.g., reports). If you have questions about other ways to earn extra credit ask your PSYCH 1113 instructor.

I have been fully informed about the procedures listed here. I am aware of what I will be asked to do and of the risks and benefits in this study. I also understand the following statements:

This is done as part of an investigation entitled: An

Examination of Dating Choices: Part II.

The purpose of the procedure is to understand the factors influencing dating decisions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty.

I may contact James L. Phillips at telephone number (405) 744-7334 should I wish further information about the research. I may also contact Lee Ann Prater, University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078: Telephone: (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_____ Time_____(a.m./p.m.)

Signed_____
(Signature of Subject)

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject before requesting him/her to sign it.

Signed_____
(Project Director or Authorized Representative)

APPENDIX L

TABLES

Table 1

Summary Data for Physical Attractiveness Ratings of Photographs by Attractiveness Level and Gender of Target.

	Female		Male	
Attractiveness Level				
Low	M	N	M	N
Picture 1.	3.70	52	3.97	58
Picture 2.	3.46	14	4.78	36
Picture 3.	4.09	53	3.62	59
Moderate				
Picture 4.	5.50	32	4.82	59
Picture 5.	4.95	53	5.80	16
Picture 6.	5.56	52	5.03	59
High				
Picture 7.	7.26	52	6.65	58
Picture 8.	7.40	53	6.97	59
Picture 9.	7.36	52	7.17	59
Grand	5.67		5.45	

Table 2

Summary Data for Income Ratings of Photographs by Wealth Level.

Wealth Level	Income Estimates (N = 94)	
Low	M*	SD*
Home 1.	30.9	11.0
Home 2.	31.1	9.6
Home 3.	31.3	11.2
Grand	31.1	10.6
Moderate		
Home 4.	59.5	19.9
Home 5.	69.9	64.3
Home 6.	67.0	29.0
Grand	65.5	37.7
High		
Home 7.	89.7	38.8
Home 8.	95.1	50.8
Home 9.	94.7	58.1
Grand	93.2	49.2

* Scores are in thousands.

Table 3

Summary Table for the Analysis of Variance of Dating Risk Scores.

Source	SS	df	MS	F.
Gender	1.65	1	1.65	1.32
Role	4.57	1	4.57	3.67*
Frame	0.64	1	0.64	0.51
Gender*Role	4.35	1	4.35	3.49*
Gender*Frame	0.45	1	0.45	0.36
Role*Frame	0.11	1	0.11	0.09
Gender*Role*Frame	0.11	1	0.11	0.09
Residual	296.53	238	1.25	
Total	308.301	245	1.258	

*$p < .10$ (one-tailed test)

Table 4

Summary Table for the Univariate Analysis of Variance of Desire to Date Ratings.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Subjects				
Gender	19.93	1	19.93	2.29
Cost	34.96	1	34.96	4.01*
Gender*Cost	18.23	1	18.23	2.09
Error	1010.47	116	8.71	
Wealth Within Subjects				
Wealth	22.22	1.97	11.11	3.28*
Gender*Wealth	3.39	1.97	1.69	0.50
Cost*Wealth	8.22	1.97	4.11	1.22
Gender*Cost*Wealth	0.40	1.97	0.20	0.06
Error	784.84	228.35	3.38	
PA Within Subjects				
PA	2268.68	1.95	1134.43	306.30+
Gender*PA	170.43	1.95	85.21	23.01+
Cost*PA	3.87	1.95	1.94	0.52
Gender*Cost*PA	8.57	1.95	4.29	1.16
Error	859.25	225.88	3.70	

Table 4 (Continued)

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Wealth*PA Within Subjects				
Wealth*PA	12.57	3.68	3.14	1.01
Gender*Wealth*PA	17.88	3.68	4.47	1.44
Cost*Wealth*PA	2.03	3.68	0.51	0.16
Gender*Cost*Wealth*PA	9.75	3.68	2.44	0.78
Error	1145.32	427.32	3.11	

* $p < .05$

+ $p < .001$

Note. Within subjects degrees of freedom reflect Greenhouse-Geiser adjustments.

Table 5

Summary Table for the Univariate Analysis of Variance of the Monetary Expenditure Ratings.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Subjects				
Gender	23055.65	1	23055.65	4.06*
Cost	22413.33	1	22413.33	3.95*
Gender*Cost	160.24	1	160.24	0.03
Error	658367.37	116	5675.58	
Wealth Within Subjects				
Wealth	367.02	1.91	181.51	0.84
Gender*Wealth	353.81	1.91	176.90	0.81
Cost*Wealth	329.49	1.91	164.74	0.75
Gender*Cost*Wealth	304.94	1.91	152.47	0.70
Error	50748.52	221.55	218.74	
PA Within Subjects				
PA	73811.12	1.40	36905.56	85.18+
Gender*PA	10066.95	1.40	5033.47	11.62+
Cost*PA	1058.55	1.40	529.27	1.22
Gender*Cost*PA	1243.25	1.40	621.62	1.43
Error	100515.25	162.06	433.26	

Table 5 (Continued)

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Wealth*PA Within Subjects				
Wealth*PA	1046.09	3.37	261.52	1.33
Gender*Wealth*PA	1324.83	3.37	331.21	1.68
Cost*Wealth*PA	572.43	3.37	143.11	0.73
Gender*Cost*Wealth*PA	692.01	3.37	173.00	0.88
Error	91258.86	391.46	196.68	

* $p < .05$

+ $p < .001$

Note. Within subjects degrees of freedom reflect Greenhouse-Geiser adjustments.

Table 6

Summary Table for the Univariate Analysis of Variance of the Probability of Acceptance Ratings.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Subjects				
Gender	2769.60	1	2769.60	1.33
Frame	4270.14	1	4270.14	2.06
Gender*Frame	509.09	1	509.09	0.25
Error	240955.73	116	2077.20	
Wealth Within Subjects				
Wealth	1624.28	1.92	812.14	5.76^
Gender*Wealth	270.68	1.92	135.34	0.96
Frame*Wealth	63.93	1.92	31.96	0.23
Gender*Frame*Wealth	285.99	1.92	143.00	1.01
Error	32725.62	222.69	141.06	
PA Within Subjects				
PA	23075.25	1.43	11537.63	38.72+
Gender*PA	2379.02	1.43	1189.51	3.99+
Frame*PA	547.29	1.43	273.64	0.92
Gender*Frame*PA	169.79	1.43	84.90	0.28
Error	69132.82	165.39	297.99	

Table 6 (Continued)

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Wealth*PA Within Subjects				
Wealth*PA	114.51	3.33	28.63	0.19
Gender*Wealth*PA	147.63	3.33	36.91	0.24
Frame*Wealth*PA	391.50	3.33	97.87	0.64
Gender*Frame*Wealth*PA	667.76	3.33	166.94	1.08
Error	71470.94	386.18	154.03	

^ $p < .01$

\+ $p < .001$

Note. Within subjects degrees of freedom reflect Greenhouse-Geiser adjustments.

Table 7

Summary Table for the Univariate Analysis of Variance of the Compatibility Ratings.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Subjects				
Gender	12.18	1	12.18	1.12
Frame	35.82	1	35.82	3.29~
Gender*Frame	0.00	1	0.00	0.99
Error	1261.97	116	10.88	
Wealth Within Subjects				
Wealth	1.98	1.85	0.99	0.38
Gender*Wealth	1.74	1.85	0.87	0.34
Frame*Wealth	0.25	1.85	0.12	0.05
Gender*Frame*Wealth	0.40	1.85	0.20	0.08
Error	598.24	215.18	2.58	
PA Within Subjects				
PA	971.84	1.84	485.92	147.15+
Gender*PA	72.61	1.84	36.30	10.99+
Frame*PA	117.73	1.84	58.87	17.83+
Gender*Frame*PA	23.66	1.84	11.83	3.58*
Error	766.13	212.91	3.30	

Table 7 (Continued)

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Wealth*PA Within Subjects				
Wealth*PA	2.50	3.62	0.62	0.24
Gender*Wealth*PA	26.79	3.62	6.70	2.62*
Frame*Wealth*PA	13.78	3.62	3.44	1.35
Gender*Frame*Wealth*PA	16.88	3.62	4.22	1.65
Error	1184.22	419.75	2.55	

* $p < .05$

+ $p < .001$

˜ $p < .10$

Note. Within subjects degrees of freedom reflect Greenhouse-Geiser adjustments.

Table 8

Mean Income Ratings of the Chosen Photo by Gender and Social Class.

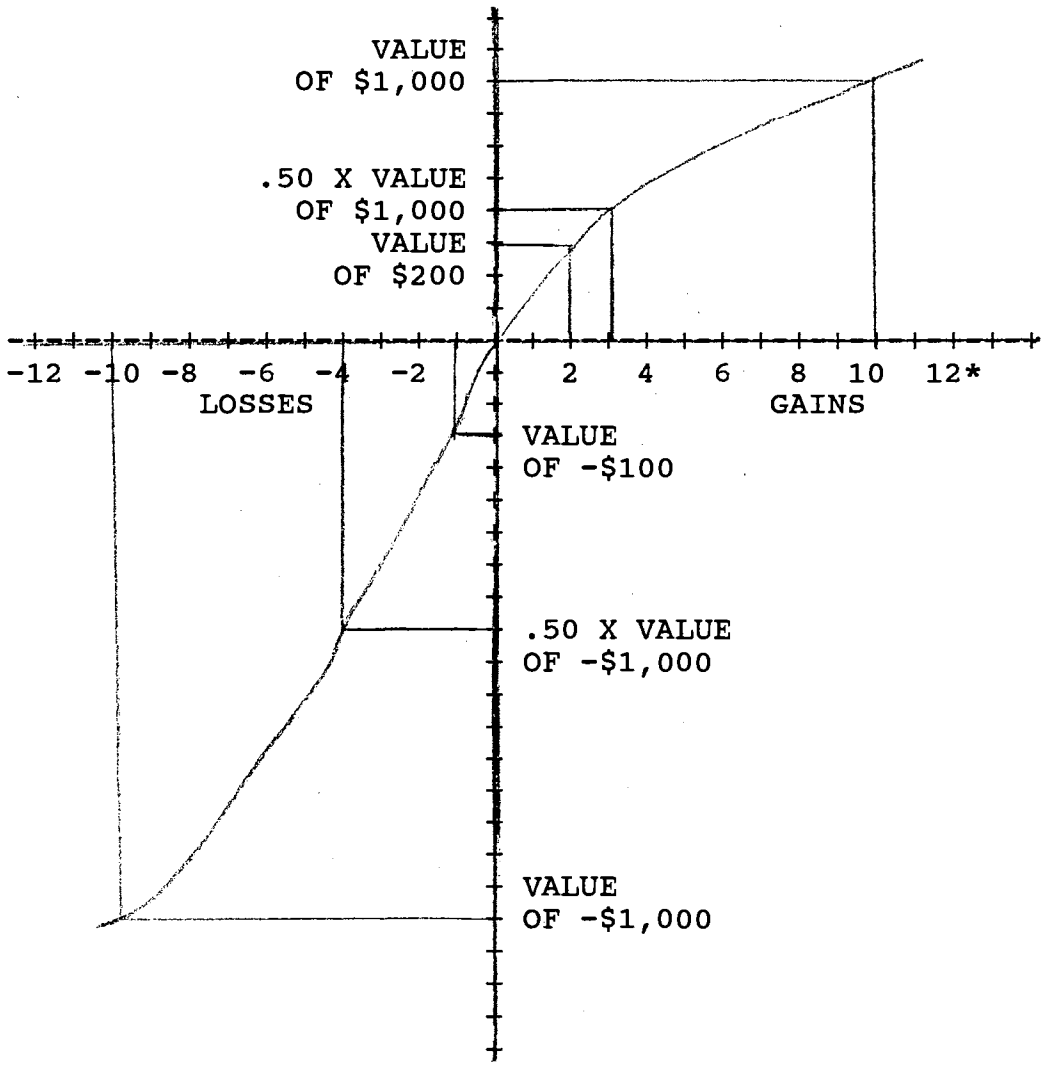
Social Class Level		Gender	
		Females	Males
Class I	M	55.98	57.61
	n	(17)	(14)
Class II	M	68.25	73.19
	n	(18)	(20)
Class III	M	72.47	60.22
	n	(16)	(14)
Class IV	M	62.34	57.89
	n	(5)	(11)
Class V	M	63.00	89.70
	n	(2)	(1)
Grand Mean		65.13	64.00
		(58)	(60)

APPENDIX M

FIGURES

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Prospect theory's value function. (Kahneman & Tversky, 1982, p. 166).



* Scores are in hundreds of dollars.

Figure Caption

Figure 2. Desire to date as a function of subject gender and target physical attractiveness.

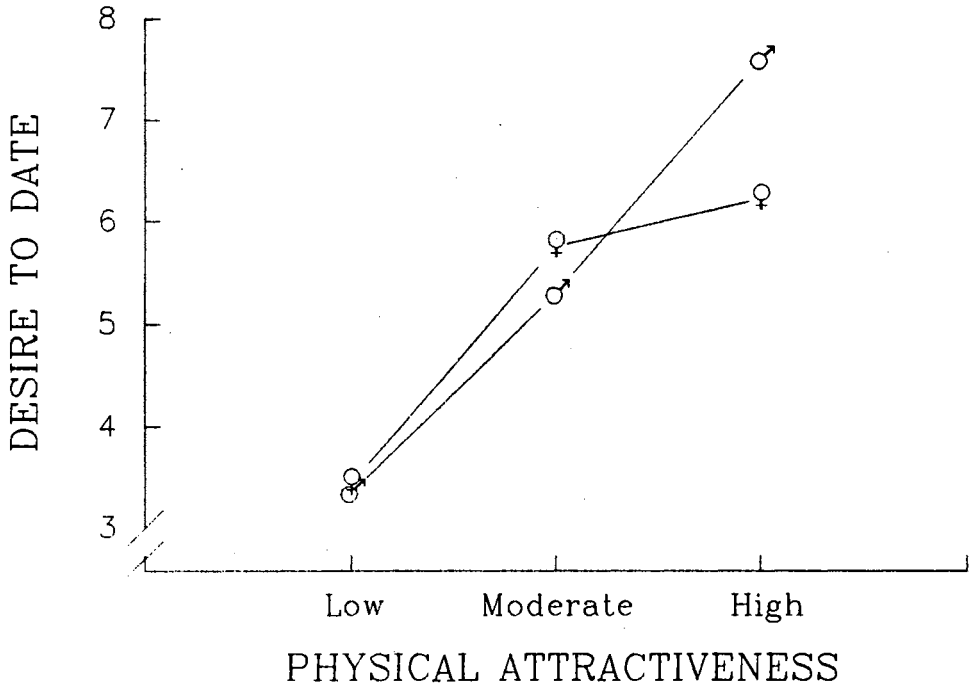

DESIRE TO DATE
8
7
6
5
4
3
Low
Moderate
High
PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

Figure Caption

Figure 3. Amount to spend as a function of subject gender and target physical attractiveness.

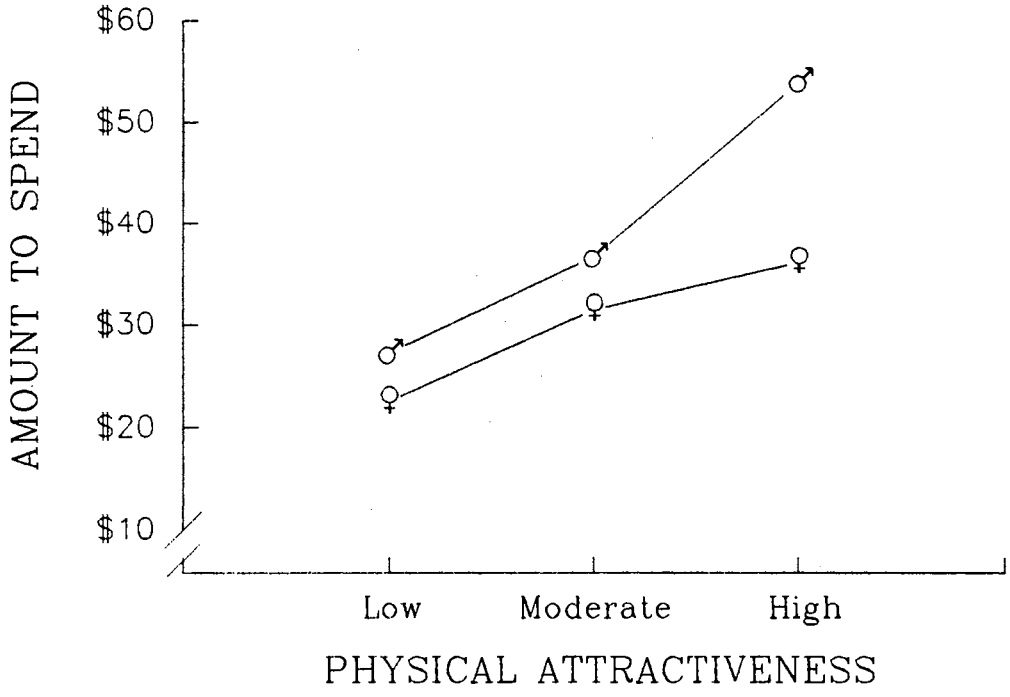

AMOUNT TO SPEND
$60
$50
$40
$30
$20
$10
Low
Moderate
High
PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

Figure Caption

Figure 4. Probability of acceptance as a function of subject gender and target physical attractiveness.

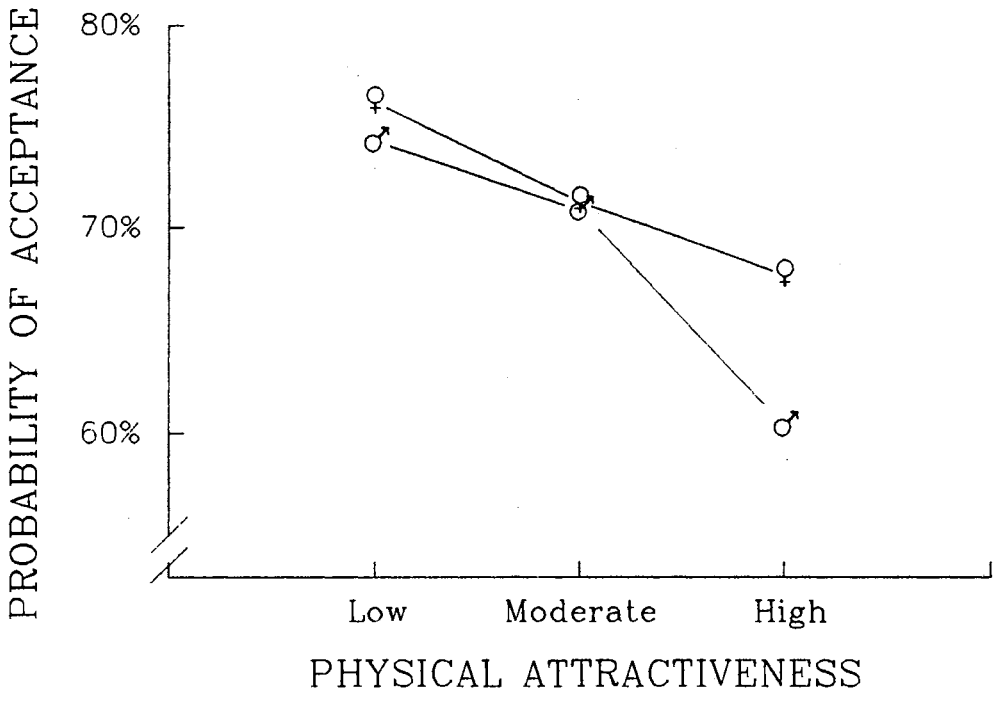
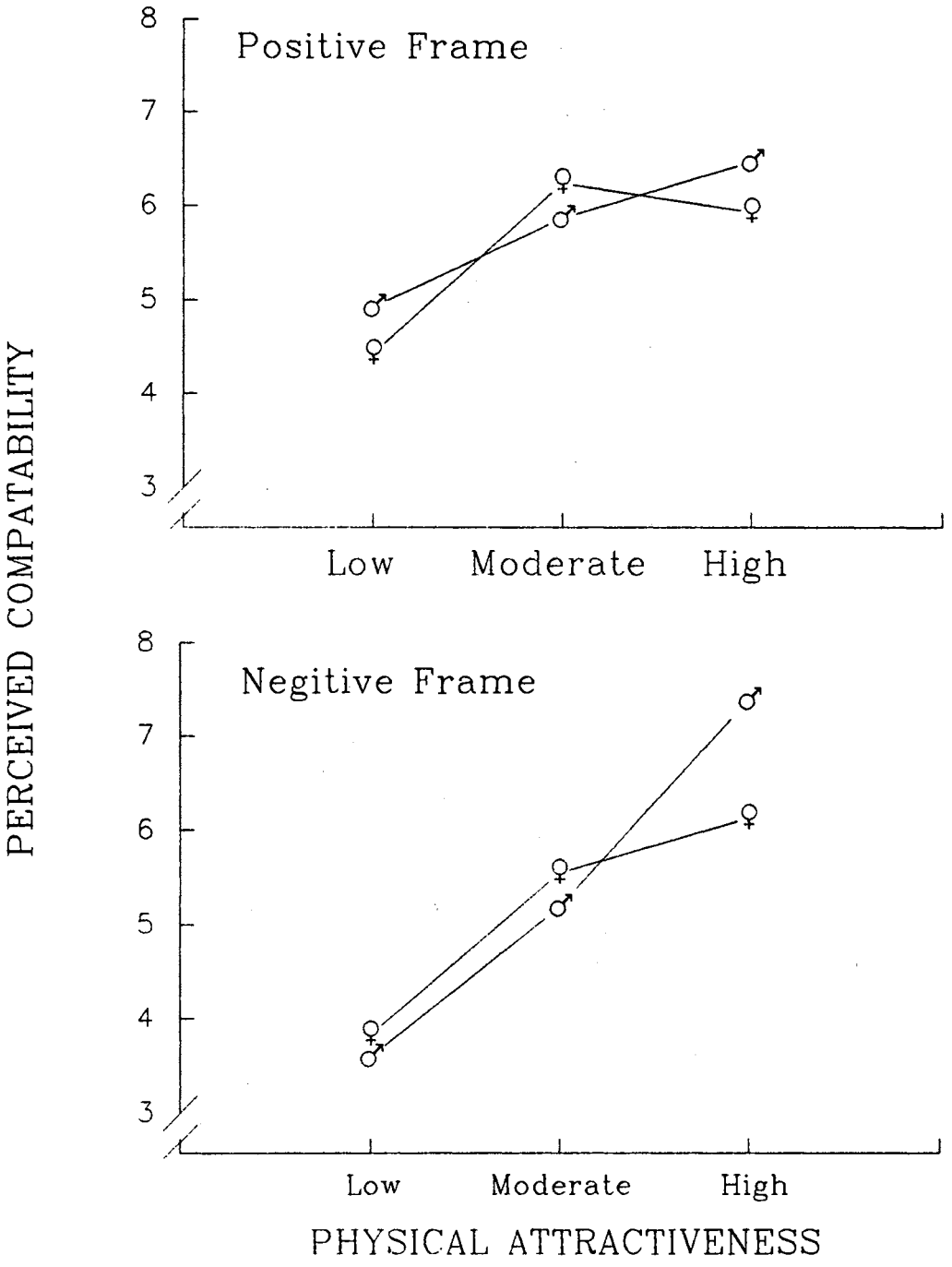

PROBABILITY OF ACCEPTANCE
80%
70%
60%
Low
Moderate
High
PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

Figure Caption

Figure 5. Perceived compatibility for each framing condition as a function of subject gender and target physical attractiveness.


Positive Frame
Negitive Frame
8
7
6
5
4
3
Low
Moderate
High
PERCEIVED COMPATABILITY
PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

VITA

Susan K. Rhodes

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PROSPECT THEORY APPLIED TO DATING CHOICES INVOLVING VARIATIONS IN SOCIAL STATUS AND PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS

Major Field: Psychology: Clinical

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Watonga, Oklahoma, February 9, 1958, the daughter of Walter and Ada Barnes.

Education: Graduated from Watonga High School in May, 1976; received Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology from the University of Oklahoma in May, 1983; received Master of Arts degree in Experimental Psychology from Central State University at Edmond, Oklahoma in May, 1988; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Clinical Psychology at Oklahoma State University in December, 1993.

Professional Experience: Teaching Assistant, Department of Psychology, Central State University, August, 1987, to May, 1988.
Teaching Assistant, Department of Psychology, Oklahoma State University, August, 1989 to May, 1990 and August, 1991 to May, 1992.
Psychological Associate, Psychological Services Center, Stillwater, Oklahoma, August, 1989 to August, 1990 and August, 1991 to May, 1992.
Psychotherapist, Edwin Fair Community Mental Health Center, Ponca City, Oklahoma, July, 1990 to June, 1991.
Intern, Medical University of South Carolina, Charleston, South Carolina, September, 1992 to August, 1993.