

Spring 2004

An exploration into gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs

Julia M. Wood
Louisiana Tech University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.latech.edu/dissertations>

 Part of the [Psychoanalysis and Psychotherapy Commons](#), [Social Psychology Commons](#), and the [Women's Studies Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Wood, Julia M., "" (2004). *Dissertation*. 630.
<https://digitalcommons.latech.edu/dissertations/630>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at Louisiana Tech Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Louisiana Tech Digital Commons. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@latech.edu.

AN EXPLORATION INTO GENDER ROLE CONFLICT, ATTITUDES
TOWARD FEMALES, AND RELATIONSHIP BELIEFS

by

Julia M. Wood, B.A.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

May 2004

UMI Number: 3126271

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI[®]

UMI Microform 3126271

Copyright 2004 by ProQuest Information and Learning Company.

All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

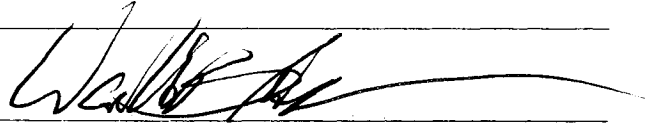
April 27, 2004

Date

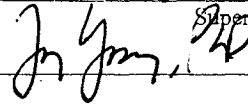
We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under our supervision
by Julia M. Wood

entitled An Exploration into Gender Role Conflict, Attitudes Toward
Females, and Relationship Beliefs

be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy



Supervisor of Dissertation Research

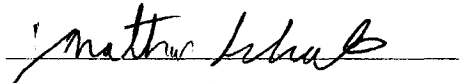



Head of Department

Psychology & Behavioral Sciences


Department

Recommendation concurred in:

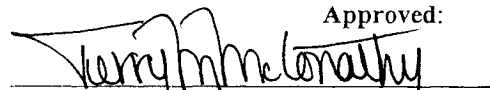



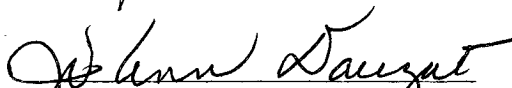
Advisory Committee

Approved:


Director of Graduate Studies

Approved:


Dean of the Graduate School


Dean of the College

GS Form 13
(5/03)

ABSTRACT

Gender role conflict and negative attitudes toward females have been areas of increasing concern since the early 1970s. Research has shown that both gender role conflict and negative attitudes toward females cause complications for the person with such perspectives. Relationships are an area that has been impacted by gender role conflict and attitudes toward females. Determining the impact that gender role conflict and attitudes toward females have upon each other and upon relationship beliefs will increase awareness of the seriousness of these complications allowing clinicians to focus therapeutic interventions on methods that will increase relationship quality.

Using the Gender Role Conflict Scale (O'Neil, Helmes, David, Gable, & Wrightsman, 1986), Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence & Helmreich, 1972), and Relationship Beliefs Inventory (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982), the relationship between gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs was investigated. Participants included 244 male undergraduate students enrolled in a mid-sized southern university. Results showed that there was a significant relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women, gender role conflict and relationship beliefs, and attitudes toward women and relationship beliefs. Additionally, it was found that attitudes toward women significantly moderated the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	viii
CHAPTER ONE	1
Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	5
Justification	10
Literature Review	12
Gender Role Conflict	13
History of Gender Role Conflict	13
Definition and Explanation of Gender Role Conflict	14
Past Research in Gender Role Conflict	21
Attitudes Toward Females	28
History of Attitudes Toward Females	28
Definition and Explanation of Attitudes Toward Females	30
Past Research in Attitudes Toward Females	32
Relationship Beliefs	35
History of Relationship Beliefs	35
Definition and Explanation of Relationship Beliefs	36
Past Research in Relationships Relevant to Relationship Beliefs	37
Past Research in Relationship Beliefs	41
Hypotheses	46
Hypothesis One	47
Hypothesis Two	48
Hypothesis Three	49
Hypothesis Four	49
CHAPTER TWO	51
Method	51
Participants	51
Instrumentation	53
Demographic Survey	53
Gender Role Conflict Scale	53
Attitudes Toward Women Scale	54
Relationship Beliefs Inventory	56

Procedure.....	57
Data Analysis.....	58
Hypothesis One Through Three.....	58
Hypothesis One.....	58
Hypothesis Two.....	59
Hypothesis Three.....	59
Hypothesis Four.....	59
Hypothesis Four.....	59
CHAPTER THREE.....	61
Results.....	61
Participants.....	61
Descriptives and Reliabilities.....	62
Correlations Between Variables.....	64
Results By Hypothesis.....	67
Hypothesis One.....	67
Hypothesis Two.....	68
Hypothesis Three.....	69
Hypothesis Four.....	72
CHAPTER FOUR.....	76
Discussion.....	76
General Overview.....	76
Conclusions.....	78
Hypothesis One.....	78
Hypothesis Two.....	79
Hypothesis Three.....	81
Hypothesis Four.....	82
General Implications.....	84
Limitations.....	87
Future Research Suggestions.....	89
REFERENCES.....	92
APPENDIX A: INSTITUTION REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FORM.....	106
APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY.....	108

APPROVAL FOR SCHOLARLY DISSEMINATION

The author grants to the Prescott Memorial Library of Louisiana Tech University the right to reproduce, by appropriate methods, upon request, any or all portions of this Dissertation. It is understood that "proper request" consists of the agreement, on the part of the requesting party, that said reproduction is for his personal use and that subsequent reproduction will not occur without written approval of the author of this Dissertation. Further, any portions of the Dissertation used in books, papers, and other works must be appropriately referenced to this Dissertation.

Finally, the author of this Dissertation reserves the right to publish freely, in the literature, at any time, any or all portions of this Dissertation.

Author

Julien M. Wood

Date

April 27, 2004

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Internal Consistency of the Variables. .	63
Table 2: Correlation Matrix of All Variables.	65
Table 3: Canonical Correlation Between Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women	68
Table 4: Canonical Correlation Between Gender Role Conflict and Relationship Beliefs	70
Table 5: Canonical Correlations Between Relationship Beliefs and Attitudes Toward Women	71
Table 6: Hierarchical Regression for Relationship Beliefs onto Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women and Their Interactions	73

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The time that it has taken to complete this accomplishment has been one filled with blessings and supportive people. I begin by thanking God for giving me the strength, as well as the ability, to accomplish something so big. Only He could have turned my life in this direction. Fifteen years ago the world saw a broken teenager with no hope of becoming more than a drain on society. My family, however, continued to push me to become the successful person they always knew I was capable of being. To my deceased father, thank you for always knowing I could be more and telling me every day. To my mother, you are the rock that kept my life steady and the smile that kept me from giving up. To my stepfather, thank you for the guidance and the discipline that you displayed that influence my life. To my grandparents, you were always on my side and you never let me forget how much you believe in me. To my sister, thank you for your honesty that has helped me to gain insight into my life. To you all, I cannot express my appreciation in words, and I can only pray that God will give me the ability to express my thanks through the professional I become.

To the man who found the broken teenager and picked me up to piece me back together, I send my love and honor. Fourteen years have passed and every one has been a constant battle toward this goal. When we married, you promised my family that I'd finish school... did they understand you meant this? You were my cheerleader, my support, and even my nagging parent, at times. You stayed on me to get my work done

and picked up the pieces when I felt like I was falling apart. I could have never accomplished this without you in my life. To my loving husband, I share this accomplishment with you.

I thank you all for the support, love, and belief in me that you shared throughout this process and my life. God bless you all.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Relationships have been a topic of interest since before accurate documentation of history (Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997). The Holy Bible, one of the oldest documented set of writings, discusses relationships: how males and females should interact, how males should behave in the presence of females, how females should behave in the presence of males, how males should treat females, etc. Different historical documentations make the argument for how males and females are expected to interact during specific eras (Durant, 1944; Holy Bible). It is noted that, in different eras, there have been different behavioral expectations for males and females. Each era seems to be a mild shift in behavioral expectations from the era before, with different problems arising between males and females (Durant, 1944). History reveals that, throughout these eras, males and females do not usually understand each other (Glick et al., 1997). This lack of understanding appears related to communication problems between the sexes, thus decreasing relationship satisfaction (Guernsey, 1977). Out of these changing social structures grew the new era of roles and attitudes by which males and females live (Durant, 1944). Similarly, these modern expectations led to modern complications, including gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1981a) and negative attitudes toward females

(Spence & Helmreich, 1972), which despite their discoveries in the last third of the 20th century are still plaguing society today (Kurpius & Lucart, 2000).

Adolescents and young adults often begin their search for a life partner just before and during their college years (Philbrick & Leon, 1991). However, as early as young childhood, people look for relationships with those who give them comfort (Hartup, 1996). As age increases, so does the amount of needs to be met by a relationship (Bakken & Romig, 1992; Crosnoe, 2000). By young adulthood, people have developed a set of beliefs about the ideal relationship (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992). Additionally, by the time one reaches adulthood, the search for a relationship is often intended to meet life needs specified by a person's relationship beliefs (Philbrick & Leon, 1991). As a result of maladaptive relationship beliefs, people sometimes settle for a partner who is less than what was originally expected, decreasing their chances at relationship satisfaction (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999). If relationship beliefs are maladaptive, individuals may have higher or lower expectations of their partners than is logical and rational (Flett, Hewitt, Shapiro, & Rayman, 2001). Consequently, when relationship needs are not appropriately met, a number of problems can occur, such as domestic violence (Babcock, Waltz, Jacobson, & Gottman, 1993; Chartier, Graff, & Arnold, 1986; Kaplan, O'Neil, & Owen, 1993; O'Neil, 1992; O'Neil, & Egan, 1992; O'Neil, & Harway, 1997), divorce (Karney & Frye, 2002; Lauer, Lauer, & Kerr, 1990), individual emotional problems (Blazina & Watkins, 1996; Good & Wood, 1995; Hammen & Brennan, 2002; Mulder, Joyce, Sullivan, & Oakley-Browne, 1996; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Van Delft & Birk, 1996; Zlotnick, Kohn, Keitner, & Della Grotta, 2000), and

complications outside of the home, such as occupational problems (Ashkanasy, 1994; Valentine, 1998; Van Delft & Birk, 1996).

Some of the factors that can lead to unmet relationship needs are more influential than others. A few factors that increase relationship complications are gender role conflict (Campbell & Snow, 1992), attitudes toward females (Glick et al., 1997), and relationship beliefs (Baucom & Epstein, 1990). Gender role conflict is defined as “a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others” (O’Neil, 1981b; p. 203). Gender role conflicted people have problems with aspects of themselves being associated with the opposite sex (O’Neil, 1981b). For males, this would be when some aspect of their image is seen as feminine or when threatened by a powerful female. Additionally, gender role conflicted males would have problems with a female being in a predominantly male position of status. It is easy to visualize how this might cause complications in a male’s life, as well as in the lives of those around him. Specifically, gender role conflict may cause problems in a male’s relationship with his significant other because of the expectations he places on the partner to fulfill a traditional role in a modern society and the way he interacts with and views others.

Researchers investigated how gender role conflict impacted males’ interpersonal behaviors (Mahalik, 1996), relationships (Arnold & Chartier, 1984; Chartier & Arnold, 1985; Cournoyer, 1994; Mintz & Mahalik, 1996; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Sileo, 1996), and sexual assault/harassment against females (Chartier, Graff, & Arnold, 1986; Eisler, Franchina, Moore, Honeycutt, & Rhatigan, 2000; O’Neil & Nadeau, 1999; Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994). Overall, the majority of these studies revealed that a male high

in gender role conflict was most likely also to have complications in the above-mentioned areas of his life. Together, these studies indicated that interpersonal relationships were impacted negatively when a male was high in gender role conflict.

In addition to gender role conflict, attitudes toward females impact the way males and females interact in relationships with each other (Cherlin, & Walters, 1981). “Attitudes toward women” is defined as the way males feel toward the roles and responsibilities of females. This includes expectations and limitations that people impose on females (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). There is a difference in the way males and females are treated in society (Kurpius & Lucart, 2000; Smith, Resick, & Kilpatrick, 1980). People typically recognize the physical differences between males and females. However, these physical differences are often used to justify certain types of attitudes toward females (Smith, Resick, & Kilpatrick, 1980). Femininity and masculinity are highly differentiated, and certain traits are associated with discrimination against females (Kurpius & Lucart, 2000; Spence & Helmreich, 1972).

Different areas of female roles have been investigated: self-actualization in females (Hjelle & Butterfield, 1974), work/economic/division of household labor issues (Powell & Yanico, 1991), and views about sexual permissibility (Smith et al., 1980). These studies indicated that female roles in society were significantly impacted by the views and attitudes that others held toward them. Additionally, when a female was faced with negative attitudes toward her roles, she was less likely to reach her full potential (Hjelle & Butterfield, 1974). It is not hard to imagine that these attitudes toward females would also impact the way a woman behaves in a relationship and the quality of her relationships.

Past research has focused on the impact of gender role conflict or attitudes toward females on different aspects of relationship quality. Mahalik (1996) and Arnold and Chartier (1984) discovered that relationship quality was negatively impacted by high levels of gender role conflict. Additionally, sexual harassment and/or assault were more common in relationships where the male was high in gender role conflict (O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999). Hjelle and Butterfield (1974) found that females were less likely to accomplish their full potential when they were surrounded by negative attitudes toward female roles in society. Despite the research on the individual topics, little research has been done on both gender role conflict and attitudes toward women (Wood, Robinson, & Buboltz, 2000), and no research has been done on how the two constructs interact to impact relationship beliefs. Since relationship beliefs seem to be impacted by both gender role conflict and attitudes toward females (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Smith et al., 1980), it is rational to believe that the two constructs combined will increase the impact they have on negative relationship beliefs.

Statement of the Problem

Although the effects of gender roles and gender role conflict have been studied for years, the relationship between gender roles and gender role conflict have not been explored fully in the context of relationships or relationship beliefs. With the rising problems associated with relationships (i.e., divorce, domestic violence), it is imperative to explore further the combination of these phenomena and how they may relate to relationships. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the way gender role conflict and attitudes toward females related to relationship beliefs. There have been studies investigating how gender role conflict related to relationships (Campbell & Snow, 1992),

how attitudes toward females affected relationships (Smith et al., 1980), and how gender role conflict affected attitudes toward females (Wood et al., 2000). Campbell and Snow (1992) studied the relationship between gender role conflict and relationships and explained that males high in gender role conflict had less satisfying romantic relationships. Smith et al. (1980) researched the relationship between males' attitudes toward females and relationships and discovered that males who had negative attitudes toward females were less likely to have high quality relationships. Wood et al. (2000) found that males high in gender role conflict were likely also to have negative attitudes toward females. Despite the extensive research in gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationships, there did not appear to be any research that combined these constructs and investigated how gender role conflict and attitudes toward females related to relationship beliefs.

Previous research in gender role conflict emphasized the importance of detecting gender role conflict in males to increase relationship quality in general (Berko, 1994; Cournoyer, 1994; Mahalik, 1996; Mintz & Mahalik, 1996; O'Neil, 1981a; O'Neil & Goode, 1997; Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Twenge, 1997). As gender role conflict affects the way males think and interact with society, it also could be associated with relationship beliefs (O'Neil, 1981b). As O'Neil (1981a) stated, gender role conflict affects the way a person expresses emotion, competes for power and control, feels about homosexuality, behaves sexually and affectionately, strives for success, and cares for his own health.

Mintz and Mahalik (1996) suggested that traditional gender roles (those most commonly associated with gender role conflict) led to traditional family roles while

nontraditional gender roles led to rolesharing family roles. While it is possible to have satisfying relationships in traditional family roles, it is becoming increasingly less likely to find females who are willing to live the role of a traditional family woman (Twenge, 1997). Cournoyer (1994) discovered that marital happiness was negatively correlated with restrictive emotions of gender role conflict. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) discovered that marital satisfaction was negatively correlated with conflict between work and family relations of gender role conflict. These studies suggested that males with gender role conflict had trouble finding relationships that were mutually satisfying.

Studies showed how gender role conflict was related to assault against females (O'Neil & Good, 1997; Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994). Males high in gender role conflict were more likely to be involved in violence toward females (O'Neil & Good, 1997). Hostility toward females was significantly related to restricted emotionality, success, power, and competition issues, and restrictive affectionate behavior between males (Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994). Rando and associates also found that restricted emotionality and restricted affectionate behavior between males were significantly related to male sexual aggression.

Some research showed that gender role conflict negatively impacted males' interpersonal behaviors (Berko, 1994; Mahalik, 1996; O'Neil & Good, 1997). Mahalik (1996) explained that specific subfactors of gender role conflict are related to negative interpersonal behaviors such as hostility, mistrust, and dominance, which are likely to negatively impact relationship beliefs. Shyness was also related to gender role conflict, which likely reduces the chances of finding a satisfying, need-meeting relationship (Berko, 1994). O'Neil and Good (1997) summarized findings of past research and

concluded that the impact high levels of gender role conflict have on personality is detrimental to behavior between conflicted males and their peers and significant others.

In addition to gender role conflict's impact on relationships in general, there was also evidence that it impacted attitudes toward females. O'Neil and Nadeau (1999) suggested that violence against females was a form of a defense mechanism to counteract the gender role conflict that a male was experiencing as a result of the breakdown of previously used defense mechanisms. They chronicled the violence in terms of psychological and physical abuse toward females. Chartier et al. (1986) determined that gender role conflict correlated positively with hostility toward females. Additionally, they explained that gender role conflict was related to lack of trust and anger toward females. Rando, Brittan, and Pannu (1994) discovered that hostility toward females and stereotypic views of females were related to gender role conflict. Eisler et al. (2000) suggested that violence against females was caused, in part, by the strict adherence to traditional masculinity. Each of these studies provided evidence that males high in gender role conflict were likely to be more prone to relationship complications (Chartier et al., 1986; Eisler et al., 2000; O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999; Rando, Brittan et al., 1994).

Historically, males have viewed females as physically and intellectually inferior and that they existed primarily to serve males' needs (Durant, 1944; Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997). The impact such attitudes has on relationships is significant (Twenge, 1997). It takes dedication and commitment to make relationships between the opposing sexes satisfying (Glick et al., 1997). Males' attitudes toward females' roles and responsibilities seem to be essential to the quality of relationships

(Glick et al., 1997). Males' level of gender role conflict can be related to conflicts with the outer world, especially interpersonal relationships (O'Neil, 1981a).

Attitudes toward females' roles and responsibilities in society have been a topic of debate since the early stages of the Women's Liberation Movement (O'Neil, 1981b). The expectations that are placed on a female by society can affect the way a male treats a female and vice versa (Wade & Brittan-Powell, 2001). Similarly, it is expected that how males and females treat each other will affect the satisfaction, style, and quality of their relationship (Glick et al., 1997). Research has shown that negative attitudes toward females lead to poor relationships (Wade & Brittan-Powell, 2001). Negative attitudes toward females are often a result of the conviction that a man has lost or may lose power and control over a situation that he believes he should have power and control over (O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999). Additionally, O'Neil and Harway (1997) suggested that misogynistic attitudes toward females are part of the gender role socialization process and may increase violence against females. Research has indicated that males high in gender role conflict tended to have negative feelings toward females that resulted in physical and/or emotional violence toward females (O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999).

Specifically, males with more conservative attitudes toward females' roles in society are also more accepting of rape and violence toward females (Wade, 2001). Thus, violence in relationships will occur more frequently when males have negative attitudes toward females (O'Neil & Harway, 1997). Research has shown that relationship satisfaction was lower in relationships that have conflict than in those that do not (Cramer, 2003). Since gender role conflict can be related to attitudes toward females (Wood et al., 2000) it is of value to know how the combination of gender role conflict

and attitudes toward females interact to affect relationship beliefs of male-female relationships.

Justification

There is truth in the statement, “those who ignore history are destined to repeat it.” Since the beginning of documented history, males and females have had relationship problems (Durant, 1944). Since males and females are required to share many aspects of this world, such as home, children, work place, and leisure activities (Paz Galupo & St. John, 2001), it is important to understand the differences between males and females that can complicate relationships (Price, 1999). Knowing what affects a relationship and how it is affected could assist in decreasing the negative impact of such aspects on the relationship. Research has been compiled to determine the influence of many different constructs on relationships (Fletcher et al., 1999). However, no research has occurred to determine how gender role conflict and attitudes toward females impact male-female relationships and relationship beliefs.

There are a number of different reasons why society benefits from understanding what influences relationships. Among these reasons are quality of life (Simon, 2002), reduction of domestic violence (Lisak & Ivan, 1995), and increased two-parent child-rearing (Lisak, 1994). Quality of life is affected by relationships in either a positive or negative manner. Prager (1995) reported on the positive psychological effects of being in a healthy, committed relationship. Specifically, a positive relationship seemed to reduce stress, increased self-esteem, and decreased overall psychological impairment. Additionally, Prager found that people who were not in relationships had an increased chance of developing both psychological and physical symptoms.

With the divorce rate rising (Prager, 1995), relationship satisfaction has become a valuable construct to research. The consequences of divorce are innumerable, including single-parent households, increase in insurance premiums, increased mental health needs, instability in society, and weaker morals being taught to children, thus increasing the chances of repetition of this dangerous cycle (Lisak, 1994). While the rate of domestic violence is dropping, it is still prevalent and more prominently against females than males with approximately 450,000 females sustaining severe injuries every year (Erwin & Vidales, 2001). More females and children die at the hands of loved ones than males each year (Newton, 2001). More marriages end by females hiding in domestic abuse shelters than society wants to know (Erwin & Vidales, 2001). Children are being raised by broken and distraught single mothers who have fought most of the child's life to survive domestic abuse (Newton, 2001). The number of children on welfare increases (Kaplan, 1997), and taxes go up (Hudson, 2003). Everyone in America is affected by poor domestic relationships (Lisak & Ivan, 1995). Therefore, it is important to find interventions that will increase positive family structures. This research is intended to respond to one of the many needs in finding the pieces to what causes poor relationships.

There has been a myriad of research discussing what leads to good relationships (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999), what contributes to bad relationships (Hammen & Brennan, 2002), and the types of therapy that can improve relationships (Derbyshire, 1996). Gender role conflict (O'Neil & Good, 1997) and attitudes toward females (Spence & Helmreich, 1972) have both, independently, been shown as contributors to complications in emotions and social functioning. However, it is of value to understand the extent to which these constructs affect relationship beliefs.

Additionally, having a knowledge base of information that specifies how client relationships are being affected will increase the possibility of therapeutic success.

Literature Review

Since the mid-20th century, both gender role conflict and attitudes toward females have been investigated with increasing frequency (O'Neil & Good, 1997; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Additionally, the general population's views about each have changed (Twenge, 1997). These changes primarily grew out of the shift in power and employment of females caused by the absence and subsequent return of males who fought in World War II (O'Neil, 1981b). Changes in domestic responsibilities, employment opportunities, child-rearing, and other realities of life caused an upheaval in the traditional roles of males and females and ultimately spawned the resurgence of the Feminist Movement (O'Neil, 1981a).

Relationships have been a source of interest for hundreds of years. Relationship beliefs, on the other hand, have become popular more recently (Fitzpatrick & Sollie, 1999). As relationship beliefs are expected to be a valuable part of the equation of relationships, understanding beliefs has become important over the past couple of decades (Flett et al., 2001). Specifically of interest is the impact that faulty beliefs have on the quality of a relationship (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992).

Research has been done on the independent topics of gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1981a), attitudes toward females (Spence & Helmreich, 1972), and relationship beliefs (Fletcher et al., 1999). These constructs have evidence supporting how valuable it is for society to understand their functions. Unfortunately, the research on each topic is just the beginning, and more answers are needed to questions that have not yet been asked.

Following is a review of the prominent research of the past on gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs. Each of the constructs is discussed individually. First, a historical review of the constructs and their values to society is discussed. Following is an in-depth operational definition of the constructs. Finally, there is a thorough review of the literature that is currently available on each construct.

Gender Role Conflict

History of Gender Role Conflict. It is of critical importance for counseling psychologists to know how gender role conflict can impact their clients and the significant others in their clients' lives. The reality that females did "men's" work during World War II and the outcry of the Feminist Movement for females to be treated and paid equally has led to a need to revamp society's ideal masculine image (O'Neil, 1981a). However, after Vietnam, questions were raised as to the value of the gender role strain construct because the belief that attitudes had changed enough to decrease its negative impact (Brooks, 1990). Unfortunately, not all attitudes had changed enough for that to have been the case. In some cases, the shift in the masculine image was accepted by males and encouraged growth and re-evaluation of gender roles. However, some males responded to this process with obstinacy, anger, and defensiveness that have sometimes led to violence and increased their need to evaluate male superiority (O'Neil, 1981a).

Claims of the Feminist Movement created turmoil in many males as a result of its critique of males as sexist and oppressive. The academic response to the Feminist Movement of the 1970s led to increased studies of the psychology of males. It gradually became obvious that males were also being oppressed by the rigid gender role of the traditional male (O'Neil, 1981a). O'Neil began developing the construct of gender role

conflict while researching sexism in females' lives. Inspired by the literature on the Men's Movement, O'Neil began his search for nonsexist masculinity. The Sex Role Strain Model was the conceptual framework on which O'Neil based his preliminary research. In 1979, O'Neil presented his first paper on the psychology of men. In 1981, O'Neil and his colleagues began the development of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (O'Neil & Good, 1997).

Gender differences and gender roles have been of interest in research for many reasons. One reason gender is such an interesting concept is because of the differences in life span between males and females (Walling, 2000). Walling attributed the difference in life longevity for males and females to the high risk-taking and low health care-seeking behaviors of males. Blazina and Watkins (1996) found that males had poorer psychological health than females. Good, Dell, and Mintz (1989) discovered that males were less likely to seek psychological treatment than were females, despite the significant complications that were resulting from their poor psychological well-being.

Definition and Explanation of Gender Role Conflict. Gender role conflict is defined as "a psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences on the person or others" (O'Neil & Good, 1997). When restricted gender roles lead to a restriction, devaluation, or violation of one's own or others' rights, gender role conflict is the result. As such a vast number of people can be impacted by gender role conflict, it is important that an in-depth understanding of the construct be pursued (O'Neil & Good, 1997).

For years, researchers have investigated gender role conflict (O'Neil & Good, 1997). This construct was defined and became a common term in the field of psychology

(O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). As stated previously, gender role conflict is defined as a state of mind that causes negative consequences to self or others as a result of the roles by which a specific gender is expected to live (O'Neil, 1981a). Certain terms need to be defined to better understand gender role conflict as it pertains to this study.

O'Neil (1981a) gave in-depth definitions of the important concepts in gender-related research. Gender roles are defined as expectations that society places on a man or woman based on gender. Gender role conflict occurs when the gender roles set by society differ with the role the individual desires (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). Gender role socialization is the process of acquiring and internalizing the attitudes and behaviors of femininity, masculinity, or both (O'Neil, 1981a). Some believe that the process of gender role socialization makes a person incomplete, causing males to be unemotional and females to be dependent (Obsatz, 1997). Gender role strain occurs when mental or physical tension results from gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1981a). Sexism is discrimination against a person based on biological sex, gender role, or sexual orientation. Sexism occurs more frequently in males who are gender role conflicted than in males who are not (O'Neil, 1982). The Masculine Mystique is defined as a value and belief system that is learned early in life and that delineates optimal masculinity according to societal norms (O'Neil, 1981a). The Fear of Femininity is a result of the Masculine Mystique and leads to feeling of superiority over females thus justifying the devaluation of females and restricting females' behaviors. This belief that feminine behaviors and attitudes are inferior leads to prejudice and discrimination against anyone who exhibits traits of femininity (O'Neil, 1981b).

How does a gender role conflicted person think and behave differently from other persons? O'Neil (1981b) described the theoretical patterns that occur when a person is gender role conflicted. These theoretical aspects of gender role conflict include restrictive emotionality; health care problems; homophobia; an obsession with achievement and success; restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior; and socialized control, power, and competition issues. Each of these areas impacts the gender role conflicted male's life at varying levels, making each gender role conflicted male different from the next. While these are not the only ways that gender role conflict impacts a person, they are the six ways that are seen most often in males with gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1982). Each aspect of gender role conflict is described in detail.

The first theoretical aspect of gender role conflict that can be experienced is restrictive emotionality. Restrictive emotionality is when a person has difficulty expressing his feelings and, as a result, denies others the rights of emotional expression (O'Neil, 1982). This complication in emotional expression often results in a lack of self-disclosure, which can lead to anger, aggression, and/or abuse patterns in relationships (O'Neil, 1981b). Fear of Femininity and the Masculine Mystique play a significant role in the gender role conflicted males' restrictive emotionality. For this reason, a male experiencing restrictive emotionality will likely avoid feminine-like emotions, help-seeking, interpersonal communication, and expression of fear. These inaccurate interactions can lead a male to have maladaptive relationship beliefs.

A second theoretical aspect of gender role conflict is health care problems. This aspect includes, but is not limited to, ignoring physical symptoms that are often warning signs of acute or chronic health complications. This denial occurs in gender role

conflicted males because of their concept that males are supposed to be invincible and machine-like, therefore forcing them to ignore their limitations (O'Neil, 1982).

Homophobia is a third theoretical aspect of gender role conflict and is defined as a belief system that discriminates against homosexuals as a result of negative myths and stereotypes (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). The rigidity of a gender role conflicted male is what leads to homophobia. Fear of Femininity is also a significant part of homophobia. Homophobia is most likely to lead to problems in males' relationships with male friends (O'Neil, 1982).

An obsession with achievement and success is another theoretical aspect that a gender role conflicted male may experience. Obsession with achievement and success is likely to occur with gender role conflict, possibly as a result of an underlying fear of femininity. This preoccupation with work and accomplishments is what drives the conflicted male's personal value and feelings of masculinity. If these successes and achievements are threatened in a gender role conflicted male's life, he is likely to develop poor interpersonal interactions (O'Neil, 1982).

Restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior is the fifth theoretical aspect of gender role conflict and is possibly caused by the rigidity of the Masculine Mystique with an inability to express the feminine side. Males experiencing this behavior will likely be limited in their expression of sexuality and affection toward others. The maladaptive beliefs that can arise from this aspect of gender role conflict include those related to sexual encounters and expression of affection (O'Neil, 1982).

The last theoretical aspect of gender role conflict that males may experience is socialized control, power, and competition. Each of these complications is likely to result

from the Fear of Femininity. Control is defined as a need to have situations and/or others systematically under one's command. Power is the exercise of authority or influence over others. Competition is a need to strive against others as a means of obtaining superiority or something of monetary value (O'Neil, 1982).

Gender role conflict theory was factor analyzed, and four specific factors were discovered (O'Neil et al., 1986). The four factors revealed were Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflicts Between Work and Leisure. The Success, Power, and Competition factor was defined a result of the conflict of socialized control, power, and competition. Restrictive Emotionality remained unchanged from its original conflict. Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men was a combination of health care problems, homophobia, and restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior. Finally, Conflicts Between Work and Leisure was a result of obsession with achievement and success (O'Neil et al., 1986).

Past research discussed the impacts of gender role conflict in terms of both the six theoretical aspects and the four factors. Nonetheless, the combination of these aspects/factors of gender role conflict may have different effects on behavior. Therefore, two people who are gender role conflicted are not expected to behave in the exact same manner. Some aspects of gender role conflict have more impact on relationship beliefs than do others (O'Neil, 1982). For example, competition, power, and control have a significant impact on relationships at home, at work, and in general society. A male high in this aspect of gender role conflict will likely have significant strain in his relationships as a result of his relationship beliefs (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). The strive for

power and control insinuates male superiority and decreases open communication, viewed as weak and a loss of power and control. As a result, interpersonal relationships tend to be shallow and tumultuous at best, and abusive or nonexistent at worst (O'Neil, 1981a). Interpersonal complications include limitations of intimacy, unhappiness in relationships, conflicts at work, and physical or sexual assault (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995).

Restricted emotionality, another aspect of gender role conflict, is also commonly seen in males with poor relationships (O'Neil, 1981b). Many males are taught early to deny their emotions and may even develop a fear of them (O'Neil, 1982). This restrictive emotionality can lead to an inability to recognize one's own and others' emotions, thus leading to conflict in interpersonal relations (O'Neil, 1981b). A restriction in self-disclosure, trust, and vulnerability will lead to an inability to develop the intimacy needed to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships (Sileo, 1996). The conflicts that arise from such restrictions can lead to domestic violence (Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994), marital problems (Cramer, 2002), and divorce (Mackey, Diemer, & O'Brien, 2000).

Conflicts between work and family relations, another aspect of gender role conflict, are discussed less in research pertaining to male-female relationships. However, this aspect also seems to have an impact on relationships (Good, Robertson et al., 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Low self-esteem, anxiety, and depression were all positively correlated with conflicts between work and family relations (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Each of these psychological variables was shown to impact relationship beliefs (Hammen & Brennan, 2002). Interpersonal insensitivity was correlated with high levels of conflict

between work and family, which can lead to poor romantic relationships (Good, Robertson et al., 1995).

Gender role conflict results in a restriction of a male's behavior or ability to express himself and often leads to rigidity in interactions with others. This inflexibility causes stress in the gender role conflicted person's life and those persons who come into contact with him (O'Neil, 1981b). Gender role conflict occurs on four overlapping levels: cognitive, affective, behavioral, and unconscious experiences. These four levels of gender role conflict influence outward expression of a male. Gender role conflict may result in a restriction of some opportunities and/or the potential of others (O'Neil, 1990).

Gender role conflict is suspected to impact a person cognitively, behaviorally, affectively, and unconsciously. These four levels of impact are different for each male, but all interact to develop the gender role conflicted male. At the cognitive level, stereotyped attitudes and beliefs about males and females may lead to negative thought patterns. Affective aspects of gender role conflict include negative feelings about masculine or feminine gender roles. Behavioral effects of gender role conflict occur in the actions, reactions, and interactions with oneself and others. The unconscious experiences of gender role conflict are the repressed conflicts that are unknown to consciousness but drive thoughts, feelings, and interactions (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995).

The six aspects of gender role conflict and four levels of impact influence relationships. Some of the aspects of gender role conflict affect relationships directly, as stated above, while others influence relationships indirectly. Research investigated different dependent variables with gender role conflict as the independent variable

(O'Neil & Good, 1997). The broad base of research on gender role conflict is briefed below.

Past Research in Gender Role Conflict. Below is a summary of the available research to date on gender role conflict. The studies are separated into four categories: psychological well-being, interpersonal interactions, therapy, and multiculturalism.

A person's psychological well-being can be negatively impacted by his gender role conflict. Blazina and Watkins (1996) researched the impact of gender role conflict on psychological well-being and found that males with high levels of gender role conflict had lower levels of psychological well-being and higher rates of substance abuse. Additionally, they explained that high levels of gender role conflict decreased the chances of a male seeking help for his psychological problems. The specific aspects of gender role conflict that were most predictive in this study of psychological imbalance were high levels of Success, Power, and Competition; and Restrictive Emotionality.

Several studies have examined the relationship between emotional and psychological status of males and gender role conflict. The Sheppard (1994) and Fischer and Good (1995) studies both discovered that high levels of gender role conflict reduced a man's ability to process his feelings. Shepard (1994) found males high in Restrictive Emotionality; Success, Power, and Competition Issues; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men were more likely to become depressed. Fischer and Good's (1995) research showed that an inability to discuss emotions was predicted by high levels of Success, Power, and Competition Issues; Restrictive Emotions; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations. Thompson (1995) studied the relationship between gender role conflict and guilt and

explained that high levels of gender role conflict were related to high levels of guilt. Mahalik, Locke, Theodore, Cournoyer, and Lloyd (2001) found that high levels of gender role conflict reduced a man's ability to experience social intimacy and decreased self-esteem. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) researched psychological well-being in males with gender role conflict. They discovered that high self-esteem and intimacy were negatively correlated with high levels of gender role conflict while anxiety and depression were positively correlated with high levels of gender role conflict. As for self-esteem, anxiety, and depression, the significant subscales were Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. In discussing intimacy, however, the significant factors were Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. They discovered that when males were high in these factors of gender role conflict, they were less likely to be able to experience true intimacy. Despite the findings of intimacy complications, they found that relationship satisfaction was not directly correlated to gender role conflict.

Good, Robertson et al. (1995), discovered that high levels of Restrictive Emotionality; Success, Power, and Competition Issues; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations predicted psychological disorders such as paranoia, psychoticism, interpersonal insensitivity, depression, and obsessive-compulsive disorder. Van Delft and Birk (1996) found that clients had higher levels of Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men than did the non-client sample.

Mahalik, Cournoyer, DeFranc, Cherry, and Napolitano (1998) researched the impact of gender role conflict on psychological defenses. They found that males with

high rigidity for being successful, powerful, and competitive and with low emotional and affectionate expression used immature and neurotic psychological defenses. Additionally, Mahalik, DeFranc, Cournoyer, and Cherry (1997) found that high levels of Success, Power, and Competition; and Restrictive Emotionality led directly to defense mechanisms that turn against others.

As a result of the expression of gender role conflicted males' experiences, there is an impact on interpersonal interactions (Campbell & Snow, 1992). Mahalik (1996) researched interpersonal behaviors and explained the specific interactions that accompanied gender role conflict. The interpersonal behaviors that were found include mistrust, detachment, and hostility. High levels of Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Success, Power, and Competition were related to high levels of hostility and mistrust, and low levels of attachment. However, high levels of Conflict Between Work and Family Relations were related to high levels of submissiveness and hostility. Sileo (1996) discovered that intimacy and closeness in relationships were negatively correlated with high levels of gender role conflict. Specifically, as Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men increased, intimacy and closeness decreased. In 1985, Chartier and Arnold found that high levels of gender role conflict and intimacy were negatively correlated. Arnold and Chartier (1984) explained that low gender role conflict combined with high ego identity was optimal for high levels of intimacy, whereas high gender role conflict and low ego identity yielded low levels of intimacy. Mintz and Mahalik (1996) discussed the impact that gender roles have on the type of marital relationship that a couple shares. Specifically, they found that high levels

of Success, Power, and Competition were more common in males who had traditional family roles than in males with rolesharing family roles.

Campbell and Snow (1992) examined the relationship between gender role conflict and marital satisfaction. They discovered that higher levels of gender role conflict predicted lower marital satisfaction. Research also focused on intimacy in males with gender role conflict, finding that gender role conflict interfered with the ability to develop intimacy (Fischer & Good, 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Fischer and Good (1995) found that Restrictive Emotionality predicted level of intimacy, with high levels of intimacy being predicted by low levels of Restrictive Emotionality. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) explained that Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations were correlated with intimacy. As the level of each gender role conflict factor increased, the level of intimacy went down. Additionally, a connection was made between gender role conflict and hostility toward females (Chartier, Graff, & Arnold, 1986) and sexual assault on females (Rando, Brittan, & Pannu, 1994; Rando, McBee, & Brittan, 1995). Chartier, Graff, and Arnold (1986) found that high levels of gender role conflict were predictive of hostility toward females. In 1994 and 1995, Rando and colleagues discovered that high levels of Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men were related to rape myth acceptance and hostility toward females. In 1994, Rando and colleagues found that sexually aggressive males were higher in Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men than were males who were not sexually aggressive. However, in 1995, Rando and

colleagues discovered that gender role conflict did not significantly differentiate between sexually aggressive and non-aggressive males.

O'Neil (1992) discussed the relationship between gender role conflict and males' violence toward females. Research has shown evidence that males high in gender role conflict are more prone to violence than males lower in gender role conflict. This violence is a form of abuse of power against females that males with gender role conflict tend to exhibit (O'Neil, Owen, Holmes, Dolgoplov, & Slastenin, 1994). Eisler, Franchina, Moore, Honeycutt, and Rhatigan (2000) found that high levels of gender role stress resulted in a higher expression of irritation, anger, and jealousy, as well as an increased likelihood of aggressive responding.

O'Neil and Nadeau (1999) gave some suggestions about why males with gender role conflict tend toward violence against females. Some of these reasons included learned defensiveness; fear of emasculation; threat to masculinity, power, or control; and a gamut of emotions including anger, guilt, self-hatred, and anxiety. O'Neil and Harway (1997) also attempted to explain males' violence toward females. They specifically described the macro-societal contributions to violence toward females as the historical pattern of glorifying males who display such behaviors; unequal power between males and females in institutions; and changes in societal expectations of males and females in the recent past.

Gender role socialization is an important factor in violence toward females, including learned misogynistic attitudes toward females and unidentified or unexpressed emotions (O'Neil & Harway, 1997). Interpersonal interactions also contribute to violence toward females, including differences in communication styles between males and

females, acceptance of psychological abuse, fear of the opposite sex, lack of understanding of socialization process, and domestic violence in family of origin (O'Neil & Harway, 1997).

In addition to the research focusing on male-female relationships, other research has correlated gender role conflict with aspects of male friendships. Horhoruw (1991) discovered that male-male relationships were, in fact, affected by gender role conflict. Sileo (1996) researched intimacy and closeness in male-male friendships and discovered that gender role conflict negatively correlated with a male's ability to develop intimacy and closeness to his male peers. Three specific variables were related: Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men.

Research has been done on general interpersonal behavior without specification to the relationships researched, and findings suggested that gender role conflict was a predictor of negative behaviors in all relationships (Mahalik, 1996). Specifically, Mahalik explained that Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Success, Power, and Competition led to hostility, lack of trust, and detachment in relationships. However, Conflict Between Work and Family Relations caused a myriad of emotions, such as submissiveness, hostility, and friendliness.

The topic of therapy with males who exhibit gender role conflict is an area of growing interest. Research has shown evidence for decreased help-seeking behavior in males high in gender role conflict (Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989). This lack of willingness for gender role conflicted males to seek help is especially dangerous since males with

gender role conflict have an increased risk of psychological distress (Good, Robertson, O'Neil, Fitzgerald, Stevens, DeBord, Bartels, & Braverman, 1995).

Once a male with gender role conflict finally enters therapy, it is important to use an effective treatment approach. Wisch, Mahalik, Hayes, and Nutt (1993) specified the value of understanding the presenting problem and the emotions involved when treating gender role conflicted males. Overall, they reported that a counselor should be aware of the impact that gender role conflict has on males' interpersonal, emotional, and work-related conflicts (O'Neil, 1981b). Mahalik (1999) specified the value of using interpersonal psychotherapy, a therapy that focuses on maladaptive interpersonal patterns, to treat males with gender role conflict. This form of therapy combines the need for control with the need for affection and balances these two concepts. As males high in gender role conflict usually need to be in control and neglect their need for affection, this form of therapy is ideal for males attempting to overcome the complications of gender role conflict.

Multiculturalism is a growing field of interest, thus producing a number of studies relevant to culture. Research has been done on how gender role conflict interacted with different American subcultures. Kim, O'Neil, and Owen (1996) found that Asian American males' acculturation was negatively impacted by gender role conflict. Specifically, they explained that males high in gender role conflict had significant difficulties acculturating in America. Wade (1996) researched the significance of racial identity on male gender role conflict, focusing specifically on African Americans. He discovered that African Americans in the externally defined racial identity stages were more likely to be experiencing gender role conflict than those in the internally defined

racial identity stages. In other words, males who based their racial identity on emotions had less complications with gender role conflict than males who based their racial identity on outward appearances. Fragoso (1996) researched gender role conflict in Mexican American males and how it related to machismo and acculturation. He concluded that Mexican American men high in gender role conflict had higher levels of machismo and lower rates of acculturation. Additionally, Mexican American and White American males differed on the impact of gender role conflict. In the Mexican American group, acculturation, gender role conflict, and machismo predicted stress level; as machismo increased, so did gender role conflict; and high levels of machismo and gender role conflict predicted stress and depression. O'Neil, Owen, Holmes, Dolgoplov, and Slastenin (1994) discovered that Russian American males were prone to gender role conflict.

This multicultural information can be of use to counselors in therapy with males from different cultures. By knowing the impact that gender role conflict has on males of different cultures, a counselor can increase success in therapy. For example, if a man is having problems with racial identity, it may be a result of something more in-depth, such as gender role conflict, which will also be impacting other aspects of his life (Wade, 1996).

Attitudes Toward Females

History of Attitudes Toward Females. Like the interest in gender role conflict, attitudes toward females studies developed out of the Women's Liberation Movement (O'Neil, 1981b; Twenge, 1997). Since the 1970s, females have progressed by breaking the "glass ceiling" and working their way into management positions, developing new

levels of independence, and earning higher education degrees (Twenge, 1997). Also since this time, there has been a trend toward more feminist and liberal attitudes (Loo & Thorpe, 1998). This is evidenced by the fact that older generations have more conservative attitudes toward females than younger generations (Twenge, 1997). This trend toward more liberal attitudes toward females is not just a liberalization of females; it is a complete change in social structure (Smith, Resick, & Kilpatrick, 1980).

A study done by Markham and Bonjean (1996) compared females' attitudes on employment in 1975 to those of females in 1992 and showed a progressive change toward more liberal views of females working. Unfortunately, males' attitudes toward females have become liberal more gradually than females' attitudes toward females, suggesting that females were more apt to have positive attitudes towards liberal roles for females than were males (Loo & Thorpe, 1998; Powell & Yanico, 1991; Smith, Resick, & Kilpatrick, 1980).

Some of the changes in attitudes toward females' roles have been rapid, whereas others have been prolonged (Twenge, 1997). Epstein and Bronzaft (1972) compared females' expectations of their future roles in 1965 and 1970. They explained that, in just five years, there was a significant shift from females expecting to be "housewives with children" to expecting to be "career females with children." Likewise, Parelius (1975) found that attitudes about marital roles and employment of females became more liberal from 1969 to 1973. Splitting household responsibilities between husband and wife more liberally seemed to become more popular from 1976 to 1979 (Herzog, Bachman, & Johnston, 1983). Political views changed significantly in just two years from 1976 to

1978; females and males became more open to the idea of a female president (Cherlin & Walters, 1981).

Definition and Explanation of Attitudes Toward Females. “Attitudes toward females” is obliquely defined as males’ views towards the roles and responsibilities of females (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). These attitudes are related to females’ positions in the household, at work, and sexually (Smith, Resick, & Kilpatrick, 1980). Males’ expectations of females are often contrary to the roles that a female is willing to hold (McHugh & Frieze, 1997). This opposition causes complications in the way males and females interact, especially if the male has highly traditional expectations of a female while the female has liberal expectations of her roles and responsibilities (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999).

Gender role conflict and attitudes toward females are different constructs but are in many ways related; thus they interact with one another (O’Neil, 1981b). Research has shown that persons with gender role conflict were also likely to have negative attitudes toward females (Wood et al., 2000). The results of much of the research cited in O’Neil and Good (1997) pertained to attitudes toward females. Specifically, they discussed the work that has been done with convicted sex offenders and results indicated that there was a higher proportion of gender role conflicted males in this group than in non-sex-offenders (Gullickson, 1993 as cited in O’Neil & Good, 1997). Jacobs (1995; as cited in O’Neil & Good, 1997) discovered that attitudes toward sexual harassment were related to gender role conflict. Success, Power, and Competition issues were higher in males who were more accepting of sexual harassment. Rando, Brittan, and Pannu (1994) reported that Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive

Affectionate Behavior Between Men were significantly related to rape myth acceptance, hostility toward females, feelings of inadequacy, feeling belittled by females, and stereotypic views of females. Each of these studies, while focused on gender role conflict, is also of value to the research of attitudes toward females because of the relationship that these two constructs have to each other (Wood et al., 2000).

Fear of femininity has a role in attitudes toward females like it does in gender role conflict. Fear of femininity has influenced many males to shy away from any behaviors or feelings that may make them appear feminine (O'Neil, 1981a). This shame of their feminine side leads to negative attitudes toward those behaviors that are associated with femininity (O'Neil, 1981a). Blazina and Watkins (2000) discovered that there were significant negative correlations between high levels of gender role conflict and positive attitudes toward feministic females' roles. With the similarities of gender role conflict and attitudes toward females explained, further review will explain how attitudes toward females are a construct of their own integrity.

An in-depth look into the construct of attitudes toward females is necessary. While gender role conflict is focused on the complications that males suffer (O'Neil, 1981a), attitudes toward women focuses on complications that females suffer (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Research has focused on society's beliefs about how females should behave in relation to males and specifically how those beliefs and behaviors are changing over time (Twenge, 1997). According to Spence and Helmreich (1972), attitudes toward females consist of several different aspects of focus, including Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Freedom and Independence; Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Drinking, Swearing, and Jokes; Sexual Behavior; and Marital Relationships and

Obligations. Research has revealed that specific aspects of attitudes toward females are important to relationship beliefs (Loo & Thorpe, 1998).

Within these aspects of attitudes toward females, there are two extremes frequently discussed; traditional/conservative and liberal/feminist (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). The terms, “traditional” and “conservative”, are used interchangeably and mean beliefs similar to those that males would have had in an era prior to the present one (Twenge, 1997). An extreme example of conservative views is believing that females should not be educated. A slightly less extreme example of conservatism is expecting a female not to work. The terms, “liberal” and “feminist”, are used to mean beliefs that are in line with those expected to be the views of the future (Twenge, 1997). An example of liberal beliefs is a female running for president of the United States. A less extreme example is a female making more money than her husband. These examples are based on the current era. However, as society changes, what is considered liberal and conservative will also change (Loo & Thorpe, 1998).

Past Research in Attitudes Toward Females. Some of the research on attitudes toward females revealed attributes that were likely to increase negative attitudes toward females. For example, it was discovered that males in the South were more conservative than males in other parts of the United States (Twenge, 1997) and Canada (Loo & Logan, 1977). Specifically, attitudes in the South were more conservative about politics and married females in the workforce (Rice & Coates, 1995). However, both Northern and Southern attitudes toward females have moved toward the more liberal side over the years (Slevin & Wingrove, 1983; Twenge, 1997).

Males in the Catholic religion tended to have more hostile and sexist attitudes toward females (Glick et al., 2002). Additionally, males in male-dominated positions of employment were more likely to have conservative views toward female roles (Robinson-Kurpius & Lucart, 2000). Valentine (1998) found evidence that males' negative attitudes toward the working woman were likely to be a result of low self-esteem. Age appeared to be a significant factor in predicting attitudes toward females, with older males having more conservative views than younger males (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Of course, this begged the question, was it age or living in different times that caused the difference in attitudes. Sugawara, Koval, and Cate (1990) discussed the similarities between siblings' attitudes toward females.

Education also factored into a move toward more liberal views of female roles, as Etaugh (1975) discussed the fact that college freshmen were most conservative while college graduate students were most liberal in their views toward females. Glick, Lameiras, and Castro (2002) showed evidence that education predicted hostility toward females. Males with less education were more likely to be hostile toward females than were males with higher levels of education. Low grade point average was also associated with conservative attitudes toward females (Etaugh, 1975).

Lunneborg (1974) performed a study where attitudes toward females were measured both before and after a female study course. Results showed that prior to the course, male attitudes toward females were more conservative than female attitudes. However, after the study, male and female attitudes were equal, with both sets of attitudes being more liberal than they were before the course. This research suggested

that with appropriate training, males could be educated to have more liberal views toward females.

Career choices may be correlated to attitudes toward females, also. Loo and Thorpe (1998) found that nursing students had more liberal attitudes toward females than management students. A British sample suggested that, as late as 1986, females still preferred traditional female careers over engineering and technical careers (Haworth, Povey, & Clift, 1986). These studies are good examples of how long it takes for the shift of society's views to make a difference in the individuals who are being impacted.

Females in management often have been a source of interest. Ashkanasy (1994) explained that managerial decisions tended to be gender biased in the favor of like-gender employees, having caused significant complications in the workplace. Odewhan and Ezell (1992) found that attitudes toward females in management positions were most influenced by the interactions with the specific female versus her gender, in general. Males have always had problems with females in the workforce, with working females being viewed as "a threat to males' sense of their masculinity" (Segal, 1990, p. 297). For this reason, when possible, females are kept in less powerful positions in the workforce (O'Neil & Egan, 1992).

Studies have explored the impact of attitudes toward females on racial identity and vice versa. In a study comparing Canadian Muslims to Canadian non-Muslims, Damji and Lee (1995) found that females in both subcultures were more liberal than their male counterparts but that females in the non-Muslim group were more liberal than females in the Muslim group. Chia, Moore, Lam, Chuang, and Cheng (1994) discovered that Chinese females favored more liberal attitudes toward females than they did in the

past and more than their male counterparts. Overall, males in racial minorities tended toward more traditional attitudes toward females than did white males (Levant & Majors, 1997). Some research studied how negative attitudes toward females impacted the way people behaved toward other races. Wood, Robinson, and Buboltz (2000) showed that males with negative attitudes toward females also tended to have negative attitudes toward African Americans.

Relationship Beliefs

History of Relationship Beliefs. Relationships have been a topic of curiosity since the beginning of documented history. The Holy Bible, the earliest known documentation, discusses relationships and their value to society. Many writers of the past, including world-renowned William Shakespeare (as cited in Durant, 1944), focused their attention on how relationships could increase happiness in a person or lead to tragedy in a society. Many historians have studied the impacts that changing societal expectations about relationships has had on the way people function (Durant, 1944). Despite the long-time interest in relationships, the systematic study of relationships is still relatively young (Hendrick, 1988). However, even in its youth, the study of relationships is both broad and deep. There is a vast expanse of research available on any aspect of relationships one might want to explore. On any given topic, one might be able to find hundreds of studies using equally as many different instruments of measurement. For this reason alone, the study of relationships is complicated. Additionally, within the spectrum called relationship research, one could study an infinite number of areas. For example, one might study relationship quality, marital satisfaction, relationship beliefs, relationships between intimate partners, or relationships between friends. Among these few topics,

there are innumerable studies using a huge amount of instruments. This, in combination with the previously mentioned complication, increases the complexity of researching relationships. For this reason, this study narrowly defined interest in relationship beliefs in reference to intimate romantic relationships between males and females.

Definition and Explanation of Relationship Beliefs. As a result of the complications mentioned above, it is important to operationally define relationship beliefs as this study intends to investigate it. As with relationships, relationship beliefs have been researched in many different facets; same-sex friendships (Markiewicz, Doyle, & Brendgen, 2001; Noack, Krettek, & Walper, 2001), opposite-sex friendships (Paz Galupo & St. John, 2001), marital relationships (Derbyshire, 1996; Kenny & Acetelli, 1994), heterosexual intimate relationships (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989; Cramer, 2002; Cramer, 2003; Fletcher et al., 1999; Mackey, Diemer, & O'Brien, 2000), homosexual intimate relationships (Mackey et al., 2000), and unspecified relationships (Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002), to name a few. This study was specifically interested in the romantic relationship beliefs between males and females.

In addition to the population of interest, the specific relationship belief construct must be defined. Studies have looked at several areas of relationship beliefs, normal (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992), ideal (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999), and maladaptive relationship beliefs (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982). The focus of this study was maladaptive relationship beliefs. Maladaptive relationship beliefs focus primarily on common fallacies that are often considered damaging to a relationship (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982).

Past Research in Relationships Relevant to Relationship Beliefs. It is hypothesized that most romantic relationships begin through friendship (Philbrick & Leon, 1991). Friendships and romantic relationships share the fact that the individuals involved are considered valuable resources to one another (Busboom, Collins, Givertz, & Levin, 2002). Foley and Fraser (1998) found that failed romantic relationships often were transformed into platonic friendships as a result of the value of the person as a resource. One predicting factor for post-romantic friendship was whether there was a pre-romantic relationship friendship (Metts, Cupach, & Bejlovec, 1989). Voss, Markiewicz, and Doyle (1999) researched males and females in marital relationships and friendships and compared the impact of relationships on self-esteem. It was explained that females gained similar qualities from both marriage and close friendship while males did not. Additionally, marital and friendship quality were both significantly related to self-esteem.

Relationship quality is important for many reasons. One reason is that, when partners understand each other and their problems, they are able to function more efficiently than when they do not (Saffrey, Bartholomew, Scharfe, Henderson, & Koopman, 2003). Understanding the trends of relationships can also increase quality of relationships and assist counselors in couples therapy. Karney and Frye (2002) explained that couples who perceived improvement in their relationship over the recent past felt more hope for the future than did those who did not perceive improvements in their relationship.

Understanding relationship beliefs is one aspect that can be used to increase relationship quality (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992). Relationship beliefs are formed throughout life because of different life experiences (Haferkamp, 1999). For example, in

one study, victims of sexual abuse had significant problems forming relationships as a result of shame and self-blame (Feiring, Rosenthal, & Taska, 2000). The beliefs that abused women formed about relationships often became maladaptive (Eisler et al., 2000). In addition to abuse, other problems in family of origin can cause maladaptive relationship beliefs (Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002). Persons who came from high-anxiety families of origin had substantially lower levels of relationship quality than did those coming from low- to moderate-anxiety families of origin (Robinson, Garthoeffner, & Henry, 1995). This lower level of relationship quality was a result of the beliefs that a person from these families developed (Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002).

Needless to say, persons living in the confines of domestic violence are not likely to develop ideal relationship beliefs (Eisler et al., 2000). Many of these people grew up in families that displayed similar behaviors, thus contributing to their pattern of beliefs about what was acceptable in a relationship (Robinson et al., 1995). While perfection in a relationship is not a healthy goal, many people in unhealthy and violent relationships have low ideals and/or faulty beliefs about what a relationship should feel like (Flett et al., 2001).

By the time adolescents reach college, both males and females are typically searching for the ideal relationship and are willing to make sacrifices to accomplish this goal (Philbrick & Leon, 1991). Part of the beliefs about this ideal relationship includes mutual respect and regard; sincere caring and friendship; and a sense of fate. Relationship quality seems to increase when the partners share similar beliefs about what is valuable in a relationship (Moller & Van Zyl, 1991).

Males and females differ on the values they have about relationships. Bakken and Romig (1992) found that as early as middle adolescence, males preferred autonomy in relationships while females preferred closeness. Fowers (1991) discovered that males found religion to be a contributing factor to marital satisfaction while females found egalitarian roles more important. Additionally, females tended to use more immature defense mechanisms in intimate relationships than males while males tended to use more immature defenses in work relationships than females (Bullitt & Farber, 2002).

In one study, five major factors were influential in finding an ideal partner for a romantic relationship (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999). The first factor was partner warmth and trustworthiness, a factor that measures how easy a person was to be with and the level of trust that he/she deserved. The second factor, vitality and attractiveness, dealt with the physical appearance and physical activity of the prospective partner. The third factor, status and resources, included aspects such as social status and financial value. The last two factors pertained to the relationship itself, and were intimacy and loyalty/passion. Intimacy referred to both emotional and sexual comforts in the relationship. Loyalty/passion referred to faithfulness and romance, in general. These five factors were found to be the most important aspects in choosing a romantic partner.

Some of the research on relationships has focused on the factors that impact healthy versus unhealthy relationships. For example, research has shown that couples who used humor, agreed on financial matters, and enjoyed spending time together had more marital satisfaction than those who did not (Lauer, Lauer, & Kerr, 1990). Additionally, equal split of power within the marriage increased marital satisfaction significantly (Gray-Little, 1982). Corrales (1975) discovered that one person having

control in a relationship decreased marital satisfaction. However, generally, what made marriages most successful was the couple being in love and enjoying being together (Lauer et al., 1990).

Cramer (2003) researched the impact that a number of aspects had on romantic relationships. These values included conflict, demand for approval, self-esteem, unconditional regard, empathy, and congruence. Since these constructs are often deemed valuable in marital counseling, it is important to know if they are truly impacting romantic relationships. Results indicated that empathy was the most valuable aspect to address in therapy, with social support, congruence, and unconditional regard outweighing the impact of negative conflict.

Certain beliefs about the individual change the way a relationship unfolds. Woudenberg (1977) made the connection between male beliefs about sexual behavior of females and their attitudes toward females, in general. He explained that more conservative views of one was directly related to conservative beliefs toward the other. This suggested that, if a man had certain beliefs about how society should function, then he had similar beliefs about how females should behave intimately, and vice versa.

In addition to beliefs, lifestyles of family of origin can impact a relationship. Adult children of alcoholics seemed to function differently in relationships than did adult children of non-alcoholics (Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002). Beesley and Stoltenberg discovered that adult children of alcoholics reported a higher need for control and less relationship satisfaction than did adult children of non-alcoholics. Woititz (1989) explained that the inconsistency and chaos in alcoholic families led to such maladaptive beliefs in relationships. Additionally, adult children of alcoholics exhibited behaviors

such as denial, compulsivity, and rationalization (Friel, 1988). Sheridan and Green (1993) found that these attributes that were common in adult children of alcoholics had a negative impact on the formation of intimate relationships.

Not only do individual beliefs impact relationships, but cultural beliefs also affect the way a relationship is perceived. Some studies have observed the impact that race had on relationships. African American couples tended to have more marital satisfaction when the relationship power was more husband-dominant (Gray-Little, 1982). Bean, Curtis, and Marcum (1977) explored marital satisfaction in Mexican-American couples and explained that egalitarian decision-making power made for the most marital satisfaction in this group. Comparison was made between blue-collar and white-collar families in Austria, and the results showed that blue-collar and white-collar wives preferred egalitarian decision-making (Szinovacz, 1978).

All of the research mentioned thus far increased knowledge about quality and satisfaction in a relationship. However, much of the impact on a relationship is the beliefs that the two individuals have about that relationship (Stackert & Bursik, 2003). As the focus of this study is relationship beliefs, a brief review of the current research on beliefs is presented.

Past Research in Relationship Beliefs. In the early stages of a relationship, individuals tend to attract people with whom they share physical and emotional similarities (Kenny & Acitelli, 1994). Unfortunately, this is not always the case, and sometimes it occurs that the individuals do not realize their extreme differences before it is too late (Fletcher et al., 1999). As Thibaut and Kelley (1959) proposed in their interdependence theory, there is a compromise between expectations or beliefs about a

relationship and actual rewards. This compromise is where many relationships turn unhealthy. When the relationship compromises the individuality and humanity of one of the partners, it is considered unhealthy, despite the perception of the individuals (Saffrey et al., 2003). This is often the case in relationships consisting of domestic violence. In these cases, the individuals will argue that they are happy and suited to their situation, but, in reality, they are sharing an irrational lifestyle that is harmful to both individuals (Rando, Brittan et al., 1994). This often occurs as the relationship progresses and the individuals become more similar in their perceptions of their situation (Kenny & Acitelli, 1994).

Like individual traits, beliefs about relationships are likely to function in a similar manner. When two people first meet, similarity in beliefs is likely to play a role in whether they will be attracted to one another (Kenny & Acitelli, 1994). Like individual traits, the individuals' beliefs should also become more similar as time in the relationship increases. However, similarity in beliefs is not always the case in new or old relationships and can cause severe relationship deficits if left unaddressed (Stackert & Bursik, 2003).

Some factors appear important in the formation of relationship beliefs (Frazier & Esterly, 1990). Frazier and Esterly studied the impact that gender, personality, and relationship experiences had on relationship beliefs. They found that gender and personality moderated relationship beliefs but they were less predictive of beliefs than relationship experience. Gender role, more than gender itself, appeared to be significantly related to the development of dysfunctional relationship beliefs (Kurdek & Schmitt, 1986). Kurdek and Schmitt discovered that androgynous persons were less likely to believe that disagreement is destructive or that partners cannot change than feminine and

undifferentiated persons. Furthermore, they explained that two androgynous individuals in a relationship were more likely to find relationship satisfaction than were any other combination of individual gender roles. This likely resulted from a combination of healthier relationship beliefs and general life beliefs in androgynous persons.

Family of origin can play a significant role in the formation of relationship beliefs (Sullivan & Schwebel, 1996). Sullivan and Schwebel found that birth-order and gender were related to relationship beliefs. First-born children tended to have the most irrational beliefs, followed by middle children then last borns. Additionally, they explained that males tended to have more irrational beliefs than did females, despite their order of birth. Stackert and Bursik (2003) researched irrational relationship beliefs and attachment styles. They discovered that irrational relationship beliefs were seen more often in individuals with anxious-ambivalent or avoidant attachment styles than in those with secure attachment styles. Additionally, they found that, if people adhered to their irrational relationship beliefs, they had a lower level of relationship satisfaction than did those who relinquished those irrational beliefs.

Divorce of parents also seems to play a role in relationship belief formation (Mahl, 2001). Mahl explained that adult children of parents who divorced and successfully remarried were likely to develop rational relationship beliefs whereas those who experienced trauma and poor conditions post-divorce tended to develop maladaptive relationship beliefs. Gabardi and Rosen (1992), on the other hand, found that growing up in a household high in marital conflict was a significant predictor of negative beliefs about marriage and relationships in general. Also, if conflict persisted after divorce, the children were even more likely to develop negative beliefs about relationships.

Mullin (2000) researched the impact that depression has on relationship beliefs. He explained that two maladaptive beliefs were effected by depression: disagreement is destructive, and mind reading is expected. Specifically, the disagreement is destructive, and the mind reading is expected variables were endorsed more by moderately depressed individuals than by non-depressed and severely depressed persons. Baltimore (1995) also studied psychological variables and relationship beliefs. He found that hardiness, coping style, and stress were significantly correlated with relationship beliefs. Specifically, as hardiness and positive coping styles increased, dysfunctional relationship beliefs decreased, and as stress increased, dysfunctional relationship beliefs increased.

Flett et al. (2001) studied the impact that perfectionism had on relationship beliefs and relationship adjustment. The results indicated that persons higher in perfectionism had more rigid relationship beliefs than those lower in perfectionism. More specifically, self-oriented and other-oriented perfectionism were more likely to affect relationship beliefs than social perfectionism. Overall, the rigid relationship beliefs were shown to have a negative impact on one's ability to adjust to a new relationship, thus making it more complicated to have a satisfying relationship. Additionally, Murray, Holmes, and Griffin (2001) found that perception of self and partner were significant to beliefs about love and strength in a relationship. Specifically, they explained that, as self-doubt increased and value of partner decreased, the beliefs about love and strength became more tainted.

Bushman (1999) studied maladaptive relationship beliefs and problem-solving techniques. First, he found that males and females differ on the maladaptive beliefs that they incorporated into problem-solving strategies. When determining problem-solving

techniques, females were more likely to believe that males should be able to read minds, while males were more likely to believe that disagreement is destructive and people cannot change. Metts et al. (1989) also studied relationship beliefs as they pertain to problem-solving. They discovered that the beliefs that disagreement is destructive and partners cannot change were related to response patterns of exit and neglect when faced with conflict.

Haferkamp (1999) researched the relationship between dysfunctional relationship beliefs and relationship conflict as a measure of satisfaction. She discovered that two specific relationship beliefs were negatively correlated with relationship satisfaction: the beliefs that disagreement is destructive and partners cannot change. Females were more likely to endorse that disagreement is destructive than were males. Moller and Van Zyl (1991) agreed that dysfunctional relationship beliefs were negatively correlated with relationship adjustment. Specifically, they explained that marital adjustment was hindered when persons believed that disagreement is destructive and sexual perfectionism is required.

Holtzworth-Munroe, Meehan, Heron, Rehman, and Stuart (2000) studied the impact of domestic violence on relationship beliefs. They explained that violence in relationships, alone, did not relate to maladaptive relationship beliefs. However, distress in a relationship, which can be caused by domestic violence, was significantly positively correlated to maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Sharp and Ganong (2000) understood the implications of maladaptive relationship beliefs and chose to research the question of changing unrealistic beliefs by teaching a course on appropriate relationship expectations. Interestingly, they found by simply

studying relationship beliefs that unrealistic beliefs were reduced. Both the comparison group and the experimental group had a significant decrease in unrealistic relationship beliefs after a period of time. However, they explained that females had fewer irrational beliefs about relationships than did males.

Using cognitive behavioral techniques, Doherty (1997) studied the impact of therapy on premarital relationship beliefs. This study looked at relationship beliefs before and after a marriage preparation program. He discovered that there was a significant reduction in three maladaptive relationship beliefs after attending the premarital training. The three beliefs reduced were disagreement is destructive, mind reading is expected, and partners cannot change. While he found that their maladaptive beliefs were reduced, no significant difference was found in the way the couples interacted. Gender, race, and age of couples did not have a significant impact on the results discovered.

Hypotheses

Gender role conflict has four constructs: Success, Power, and Competition (SPC), Restrictive Emotionality (RE); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (RABBM); and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (CBWF). Additionally, gender role conflict has an overall measure of Gender Role Conflict (GRC). Attitudes toward women has six constructs: Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual roles (VEI); Freedom and Independence (FI); Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette (DCE); Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes (DSJ); Sexual Behavior (SB); and Marital Relationships and Obligations (MRO). Additionally, attitudes toward women has an overall measure of Attitudes Toward Women (ATW). The Relationship Belief Scale has five factors:

Disagreement is Destructive (D), Mindreading is Expected (M), Partners Cannot Change (C), Sexual Perfectionism (S), and The Sexes are Different (MF).

The focus of this study was the relationship of gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs. The hypotheses follow:

Hypothesis One

Gender role conflict and attitudes toward female roles and responsibilities were both fueled by the Women's Liberation Movement of the 1970s (O'Neil, 1981b; Twenge, 1997). Gender role conflict affects the way a male views the world, in general (O'Neil, 1981a). Specifically, it impacts the way a male feels about femininity (O'Neil, 1981b). A gender role conflicted male not only feels uncomfortable with his own feminine qualities, but he also feels uncomfortable with females having what he believes to be masculine qualities (Rando et al., 1994).

Past research has shown empirical evidence of the relationship between gender role conflict and violence against females (Chartier et al., 1986; O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999), sexual harassment of females (O'Neil & Good, 1997), stereotypic views of females (Rando, Brittan et al., 1994), and general misogynistic attitudes toward females (O'Neil & Harway, 1997; Wood et al., 2000). It has also been shown that males high in gender role conflict are less likely to have positive attitudes toward female roles (Blazina & Watkins, 2000).

This hypothesis was designed to show empirical support of the Wood et al. (2000) findings that gender role conflict and attitudes toward females were related. Additionally, this study showed which subscales of each construct are related to each other. Hypothesis One is male gender role conflict is positively related to attitudes toward women.

Hypothesis Two

Relationship beliefs are impacted by numerous life experiences (Frazier & Esterly, 1990; Mahl, 2001). Gender has been shown to impact how people believe about the fundamentals of a relationship (Frazier & Esterly, 1990; Kurdek & Schmitt, 1986). Relationship beliefs are significantly related to psychological variables (Flett et al., 2001; Frazier & Esterly, 1990; Hammen & Brennan, 2002; Mullin, 2000; Murray et al., 2001; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Stackert & Bursik, 2003). Family of origin is related to the development of relationship beliefs (Gabardi & Rosen, 1992; Mahl, 2001; Sullivan & Schwebel, 1996).

Past research has explored and evinced relationships between gender role conflict and maladaptive interpersonal behaviors (Berko, 1994; Mahalik, 1996; O'Neil & Good, 1997), relationship dissatisfaction (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Cramer, 2002; Mintz & Mahalik, 1996), lack of intimacy (Chartier & Arnold, 1985; O'Neil, 1982; Sileo, 1996), and divorce (Mackey et al., 2000). Each of these aspects appears relevant to relationships. However, no research has been done to connect gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs.

This hypothesis is specifically focused on the relationship between gender role conflict and maladaptive relationship beliefs. More specifically, this study determines the relationship between specific subfactors of gender role conflict and the subfactors of maladaptive relationship beliefs. Hypothesis Two is that male gender role conflict is positively related with maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Hypothesis Three

Relationship beliefs include beliefs about how partners are suspected to interact and roles of each partner (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982). Similarly, attitudes toward females are based on expectations about how females should behave and their roles and responsibilities (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Thus, it is suspected that these two constructs are, in some way, related to each other.

Past research has focused on the relationships between relationship beliefs and females' sexual behavior (Woudenberg, 1977). Also, a relationship between negative attitudes toward females and a male's sense of power in his intimate relationships has been found (O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999). Poor relationship quality has been related to negative attitudes toward females, also (Glick et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1980). However, no research has been done studying the relationship between attitudes toward females and maladaptive relationship beliefs.

This hypothesis focuses on the relationship between attitudes toward females and maladaptive relationship beliefs. The relationship between specific subfactors of attitudes toward females and maladaptive relationship beliefs will be determined. Hypothesis Three is that males' negative attitudes toward women are positively related to maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Hypothesis Four

Once the above relationships have been evinced, it will be important to know the way attitudes toward females and gender role conflict together will relate to relationship beliefs. Gender role conflict and attitudes toward females share some similarities (Wood et al., 2000). Since attitudes toward females roles seem to be an important aspect of

gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1981b), it is suspected that the two constructs combined will increase the relationship with maladaptive relationship beliefs. Hypothesis Four is that males' attitudes toward women will moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

CHAPTER 2

Method

The purpose of the present study was to discover the relationship among gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs. Statistical analyses were used to determine the correlations among gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs. The study used the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) to measure gender role conflict, the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence & Helmreich, 1972) to measure attitudes toward females, and the Relationship Belief Inventory (RBI; Eidelson & Epstein, 1982) to measure maladaptive relationship beliefs.

Participants

The participants were recruited to volunteer from undergraduate psychology courses at a mid-sized southern university. A total of 244 males were given the survey packets to be completed and returned. A random sample within these courses was drawn with intentions of getting a representative sample with differing ages, ethnicities, and educational levels. Of the 244 participants, 197 (80.7%) were European American, 35 (14.3%) were African American, two (0.8%) were Hispanic American, two (0.8%) were Asian American, one (0.4%) was Native American, six (2.5%) specified Other as their ethnicity, and one (0.4%) did not respond. Ages ranged from 18 to 47. Of the 244

participants, 230 (94.3%) were in the age range of 18 to 25, four (1.6%) were 26 to 35, three (1.2%) were 36 to 47, and seven (2.9%) did not respond. Educational level varied with 132 (54.1%) freshmen, 41 (16.8%) sophomores, 37 (15.2%) juniors, and 34 (13.9%) seniors.

Additional demographic information was deemed important for this particular study, including sexual orientation, relationship status, length of longest relationship, religious orientation, and parents' relationship status. Sexual orientation was primarily heterosexual (240; 98.4%) with only one (0.4%) person reporting himself as gay and three (1.2%) reporting themselves as bisexual. Relationship status varied with 152 (62.3%) of the participants being single, 82 (33.6%) currently being in a relationship but unmarried, one (0.4%) living with someone, eight (3.3%) married individuals, and one (0.4%) not responding. Length of longest relationship ranged from less than a month to 288 months (24 years). Nine (3.8%) participants had never sustained a relationship for more than a month, 29 (11.9%) had longest relationships of one to five months, 47 (19.3%) had six to 11 months, 37 (15.2%) had 12 to 16 months, 20 (8.2%) had 18 to 21 months, 40 (16.4%) had 24 to 26 months, eight (3.3%) had 30 months, 24 (9.8%) had 35 to 36 months, eight (3.3%) had 42 months, eight (3.3%) had 48 months, five (2%) had 60 months (five years) or more invested in a relationship, and nine (3.5%) did not respond. Religious orientation included 104 (42.6%) Baptist, 47 (19.3%) unspecified Christians, 38 (15.6%) Catholic, 27 (11%) Other, 11 (4.5%) Atheist, and 17 (7%) did not respond. Among the 244 participants, 166 (68%) had parents who were still married, 61 (25%) had parents who were divorced, seven (2.9%) had parents who were separated, six (2.5%) had one or more parents who were deceased, and four (1.6%) did not respond.

Participation was completely voluntary with extra credit allowed for completion of the packet. Females, and males who chose not to participate, were offered a comparable extra credit assignment as an alternative. The packet and the extra credit alternative each took approximately 30 to 45 minutes to complete. Amount of extra credit to be awarded was left up to the instructor of record. Approval from the university's institution review board was obtained prior to beginning collection of data (see Appendix A). A consent form explaining the nature of the study was signed by all participants prior to receiving a packet. All information was held confidential and only viewed by the researcher. Data were used to gather group information and no data were analyzed individually.

Instrumentation

Demographic Survey

The demographic survey consisted of questions requesting standard demographic information and some additional information deemed important to this study (see Appendix B). Age, race, and college level were among the standard information. Sexual orientation, relationship status, length of longest relationship, religious orientation, and parent's relationship status were items that were suspected to be important to this study.

Gender Role Conflict Scale

The four levels and six patterns of gender role conflict were defined and a need for a tool to measure them developed. Out of this need grew the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). The GRCS (O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) is a 37-item scale with Likert-type responses ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." This instrument was designed to measure

males' gender role conflict as it pertains to four factors (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). A factor analysis revealed four significant subscales. Success, Power, and Competition (SPC; 13 items) measures a male's need to be in control of his surroundings, superior to others, and successful in his career. Restrictive Emotionality (RE; 10 items) is a measure of an inability to express his emotions. Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (RABBM; 8 items) measures a discomfort being emotionally close to other males. Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (CBWF; 6 items) is a measure of a male's feelings of being torn between his work and his personal life. Subfactor scores were obtained by totaling the responses to each subscale. Higher scores were indicative of higher levels of gender role conflict.

Internal consistency was found to range from .75 to .85 in past research (O'Neil et al., 1986). Four-week test-retest reliabilities were determined to range from .72 to .86 for each subscale (O'Neil et al., 1986). Concurrent validity has been determined using the categories of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence & Helmreich, 1978) as a comparison (Good et al., 1995).

Attitudes Toward Women Scale

A need for an assessment tool of attitudes towards females' rights and roles in society became obvious in the late 1960s and early 1970s. This need was answered by Spence and Helmreich in 1972 with the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS). The AWS is a 55-item scale that measures attitudes toward females' roles. Likert-type responses range from (1) Agree Strongly to (4) Strongly Disagree. Scores differentiate between traditional and liberal attitudes toward females' rights and roles. The scale is broken into 6 categories; (1) Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual roles (VEI; 17

items), (2) Freedom and Independence (FI; 4 items), (3) Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette (DCE; 7 items), (4) Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes (DSJ; 3 items), (5) Sexual Behavior (SB; 7 items), and (6) Marital Relationships and Obligations (MRO; 17 items). The most stable constructs are those on vocation/education and social-sexual behavior (Lunneborg, 1974). Scores range from 0 to 165 with lower scores representing more conservative attitudes toward females' roles.

The six subscales are Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Freedom and Independence; Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Drinking, Swearing, and Jokes; Sexual Behavior; and Marital Relationships and Obligations. Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles is a subscale focused on the attitudes a person has about a woman's career and educational pursuits. This subscale consists of concepts such as whether a woman should be a housewife versus a career woman, the household expectations of a woman, equality in pay, and educational opportunities. The second subscale, Freedom and Independence, focuses on a female's need for protection, freedom to act and decision-making, and economical/societal freedoms. Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette is the subscale focusing on the formalities of dating such as expenses of a date, initiative of the date, manners during a date, and marriage proposal. The fourth subscale, Drinking, Swearing, and Jokes, focuses on appropriateness for a woman to participate in telling dirty jokes, profanity, and intoxication. The final subscale, Sexual Behavior, is focused on fidelity in a marriage, sexual satisfaction, and premarital sex. These six subscales collaborate to make the overall construct of attitudes toward females.

Validity and reliability were measured and were found to be sufficient by the original study (Spence & Helmreich, 1972) and by Lunneborg (1974) two years later.

Test-retest reliability over a nine-month period was found to be excellent (Etaugh, 1975). Split-half reliability was found to be .92 (Stein & Weston, 1976). Some concern has been noted as to the current ability of the AWS to differentiate modern attitudes toward female roles (Twenge, 1997). Additionally, the AWS may be biased toward the liberal side of attitudes, suggesting that conservative views may be underrepresented by this scale (Loo & Thorpe, 1998). There is reportedly a ceiling effect, causing more liberal views not to be well discriminated. However, while it is argued that this liability should be taken into consideration when using this scale, to create a new scale was beyond the scope of this study. Additionally, an overabundance of scales attempting to measure the same construct can cause invalid and unreliable measures, therefore causing the development of a new scale to be of questionable value (McHugh & Frieze, 1997). As this scale has been validated and found reliable over the years and is the most widely used scale of its type, it is best for this research.

Relationship Beliefs Inventory

The Relationship Beliefs Inventory (RBI; Eidelson & Epstein, 1982) was designed to fill a void in measurements to determine the beliefs that occurred in faulty relationships (Baucom & Epstein, 1990). The purpose of the RBI is to measure the maladaptive beliefs that people tend to hold about relationships (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982). The RBI is a 40-item instrument that is responded to on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from (0) "I strongly believe that the statement is false" to (5) "I strongly believe the statement is true." To score the RBI, some of the items are reverse scored; then a total is summed for each of the subscales. Higher scores indicate higher levels of maladaptive relationship beliefs (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

A factor analysis revealed five subfactors (Baucom & Epstein, 1990). Each of the five subfactors consists of eight items. The first subscale is Disagreement is Destructive (D) and measures the belief that, if partners argue then their relationship will be destroyed. The second subscale is Mindreading is Expected (M) and measures the belief that partners should be able to read each others' minds. Partners Cannot Change (C) is the third subscale, and it measures the belief that partners are incapable of changing. The fourth subscale is Sexual Perfectionism (S) and measures the beliefs related to the idea that sexual intercourse should be perfect to have a healthy sexual relationship. The final subscale is the Sexes are Different (MF) and measures the belief that males and females are different in the way they behave and interact (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

The original study of the RBI revealed reliability coefficients between .72 and .81 (Eidelson & Epstein, 1981). In 1982, Eidelson & Epstein found convergent validity for all subscales of the RBI, except the Sexes are Different, using the Irrational Beliefs Test for comparison. They also found the RBI to have construct validity, using the Marital Adjustment Scale as a comparison.

Procedure

Participants read and signed a consent form that explained the purpose of the study. This form also explained that participation was voluntary and that all information will remain confidential and only be disseminated as group data. The survey packet was then given to the participants to be taken home, completed, and returned. All packets included the same questionnaires, but the order of the surveys was varied to control for order effects.

Data Analysis

Collected data were analyzed to determine the relationship between gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs. Specifically, data were analyzed to determine four relationships: (1) gender role conflict and attitudes toward females, (2) gender role conflict and relationship beliefs, (3) attitudes toward females and relationship beliefs, (4) and the moderating effects of attitudes toward females on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

Canonical correlations and hierarchical regressions were used to analyze the data. Canonical correlation is a statistical technique used to assess the relationship between two variables when the two variables each consist of two or more variables (Hays, 1994). Hierarchical regression is a statistical method used to examine the effects of predictor variables on the criterion variable, as well as to assess the interaction effects of predictor variables on the criterion variable (Hays, 1994). An alpha level of .05 was used in all analyses to determine significance.

Hypotheses One through Three

Hypotheses One through Three were tested using canonical correlations.

Hypothesis One. Relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward females was assessed using the Gender Role Conflict Scale and Attitudes Toward Women Scale. The four subscale scores that were obtained for gender role conflict included Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations of the GRCS. The six subscale scores that were obtained for attitudes toward females included Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Freedom and Independence;

Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes; Sexual Behavior; and Marital Relationships and Obligations of the AWS. Gender role conflict was used as the first set of variables (quasi-independent variable) and attitudes toward females was used as the second set of variables (dependent variable).

Hypothesis Two. Relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs was assessed using the Gender Role Conflict Scale and Relationship Belief Inventory. The same four subscale scores used in hypothesis one were obtained for gender role conflict in this hypothesis. The five subscale scores that were obtained for relationship beliefs include Disagreement is Destructive; Mindreading is Expected; Partners Cannot Change; Sexual Perfectionism; and Sexes are Different of the RBI. Gender role conflict was used as the first set of variables and relationship beliefs were used as the second set of variables.

Hypothesis Three. Relationship between attitudes toward females and relationship beliefs was assessed using the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Relationship Beliefs Inventory. The subscale scores that were obtained for attitudes toward females were the same as those in hypothesis one. The subscale scores that were obtained for relationship beliefs were the same as those for hypothesis two. Attitudes toward females were used as the first set of variables and relationship beliefs were used as the second set of variables.

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis Four was tested using hierarchical regression.

Hypothesis Four. The moderating effect of attitudes toward females on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs inventory was assessed

using the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Gender Role Conflict Scale, and Relationship Belief Inventory. First, effects of gender role conflict were blocked against the components of relationship beliefs. Next, attitudes toward females were blocked against the components of relationship beliefs. Last, the interactions between gender role conflict and attitudes toward females were entered. Interactions that added significant incremental variance were indicative of the moderating effects of attitudes toward females on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. Prior to regression analysis, intercorrelations of attitudes toward females and gender role conflict were examined to ensure no problems with multicollinearity.

CHAPTER 3

Results

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the current study. First, sample characteristics are presented. Reliability estimates for the scales used in the current study are then examined. Next, means, standard deviations, and correlations between the variables are provided. Finally, the results of the research are presented by hypothesis.

Participants

The participants in this study were 244 male volunteers enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses at a mid-sized southern university. Eighty percent of the participants were European American, 14% were African American, and the final 6 % were Hispanic American, Asian American, Native American, “Other,” or did not respond. Ages ranged from 18 to 47 with 94% being in the 18 to 25 year old range. Educational level varied with 54% being freshmen, 17% being sophomores, 15% being juniors, and 14% being seniors. Ninety-eight percent of the participants had a sexual orientation of heterosexual. Relationship status varied with 62% of the participants being single, 34% being in a dating relationship, and 4 % being married or cohabitating. Only 7 % of the participants had never sustained a relationship for more than a month or did not respond, while 31% had been in a relationship for one month to just under a year,

23% had been in a relationship for one year to just under two years, 30% had been in a relationship for two to three years, and 9 % had been in a relationship for three and a half years or more. Religious orientation included 43% Baptist, 19% unspecified Christian, 16% Catholic, 11% Other, 4 % Atheist, and 7 % did not respond. Parental relationships of the participants were 68% still married, 25% were divorced, 3 % were separated, 3 % were deceased, and 1 % did not respond.

Descriptives and Reliabilities

Table One contains the reliability coefficients, means, and standard deviations of the Gender Role Conflict Scale, Attitudes Toward Women Scale, and Relationship Belief Inventory subscales. This study's means and standard deviations of the Gender Role Conflict Scale subscales were similar to those obtained by Good and Mintz (1990). The means and standard deviations of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale revealed a slightly more liberal data set in the current study than those in the 1991 to 1995 group of studies discussed by Twenge (1997). This was expected given the trend toward more liberal attitudes from 1970 to 1995. The means and standard deviations of the Relationship Beliefs Inventory subscales revealed a slightly less rational sample than those obtained by Haferkamp (1999). This slight difference could be explained by the fact that Haferkamp's sample included both males and females. None of the differences were significant to suggest an abnormal sample of participants. Internal consistencies on the Gender Role Conflict Scale were calculated, and the resulting reliability coefficients were between .73 and .88, all of which were within acceptable ranges. Reliability coefficients for the Attitudes Toward Women Scale in this study ranged from .19 to .83. The Freedom and

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Internal Consistency of the Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Gender Role Conflict (Total)	144.15	28.40	.91
Success, Power, and Competition	54.06	11.25	.88
Restrictive Emotionality	35.00	10.36	.73
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	30.61	8.84	.88
Conflict Between Work and Family	23.11	5.74	.78
Attitudes Toward Women (Total)	90.62	16.12	.83
Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual	32.46	7.84	.83
Freedom and Independence	7.86	1.83	.19
Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette	7.97	3.51	.27
Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes	4.26	2.18	.64
Sexual Behavior	6.88	3.16	.48
Marital Relationships and Obligations	30.00	5.94	.66
Relationship Beliefs (Total)	89.33	15.98	.81
Disagreement is Destructive	15.67	5.42	.73
Mindreading is Expected	18.16	4.94	.66
Partners Cannot Change	15.94	4.23	.53
Sexual Perfectionism	19.38	5.14	.61
Sexes are Different	21.12	5.27	.62

Independence subscale ($r = .19$) and Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette subscale ($r = .27$) were of questionable reliability and were considered such during all stages of analysis. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory subscales' reliability coefficients ranged from .53 to .73, which were all within acceptable ranges.

Correlations Between Variables

Table 2 shows the intercorrelations between all variables in this study.

Correlations among the subscales were moderate to minimal in most instances. Seventy-6 % of the intercorrelations fell below .30, and 33% were outside of the significant range. The highest intercorrelation was between Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles and Marital Relationships and Obligations ($r = .71; p < .001$). The next highest intercorrelation was Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($r = .58; p < .001$). Below is a summary of the remaining intercorrelations that were significant at the .001 level.

Gender Role Conflict Scale's Success, Power, and Competition was significantly correlated with the following: Restrictive Emotionality ($r = .40; p < .001$); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($r = .48; p < .001$); Conflicts Between Work and Family ($r = .35; p < .001$); Attitudes Toward Women Scale's Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles ($r = -.23; p < .001$); Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes ($r = -.28; p < .001$); Marital Relationships and Obligations ($r = -.27; p < .001$); Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .31; p < .001$); and Sexes are Different ($r = .25; p < .001$). Restrictive Emotionality was significantly correlated with the following: Conflict Between Work and Family Relations ($r = .31; p < .001$); Attitudes Toward Women Scale's Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles ($r = -.29; p < .001$); Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes ($r = -.24; p < .001$); Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .30; p < .001$); and Partners Cannot Change ($r = .27; p < .001$). Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men was significantly correlated with the following: Conflict Between Work and Family ($r = .29; p < .001$); Attitudes Toward

Table 2

Correlation Matrix of All Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Age	1.00	-.17*	.04	.05	.08	.15*	.06	-.08	.07	-.03	.04	.01	-.10	-.04	-.01	-.15*
2 SPC	1.00	1.00	.40*	.48*	.35*	-.23*	-.07	-.11	-.28*	-.09	-.27*	.31*	.20*	.18*	.18*	.25*
3 RE	1.00	1.00	1.00	.58*	.31*	-.29*	-.13	-.11	-.24*	.02	-.15*	.30*	.10	.27*	.08	.18*
4 RABBM	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.29*	-.33*	-.09	-.10	-.32	.02	-.26*	.30*	.17*	.26*	.09	.14*
5 CBW	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.02	.06	-.04	-.15*	-.01	-.02	.13	.15*	.10	.16*	.05
6 VEI	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.50*	.03	.55*	-.09	.71*	-.46*	-.28*	-.38*	-.03	-.30*
7 FI	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.11	-.14*	.41*	-.26*	-.22*	-.17*	.06	.04
8 DCE	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.23*	.32*	.13	-.04	-.01	-.03	-.17*	-.02
9 DSJ	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.13	.45*	-.38*	-.25*	-.38*	-.14*	-.32*
10 SB	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.11	.04	.02	.19*	-.02	-.10
11 MRO	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
12 D																
13 M																
14 C																
15 S																
16 MF																

Note: SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBW = Conflict Between Work and Family; VEI = Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual; FI = Freedom and Independence; DCE = Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; DSJ = Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes; SB = Sexual Behavior; MRO = Marital Relationships and Obligations; D = Disagreement is Destructive; M = Mindreading is Expected; C = Partners Cannot Change; S = Sexual Perfectionism; MF = Sexes are Different; * $p < .05$ two-tailed.

Women Scale's Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles ($r = -.33; p < .001$); Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes ($r = -.32; p < .001$); Marital Relationships and Obligations ($r = -.26; p < .001$); Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = .30; p < .001$); and Partners Cannot Change ($r = .26; p < .001$).

Attitudes Toward Women Scales' Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles was significantly correlated with Freedom and Independence ($r = .50; p < .001$); Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes ($r = .55; p < .001$); Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = -.46; p < .001$); Mindreading is Expected ($r = -.28; p < .001$); Partners Cannot Change ($r = -.38; p < .001$); and Sexes are Different ($r = -.30; p < .001$). Freedom and Independence was significantly correlated with the following: Marital Relationships and Obligations ($r = .41; p < .001$); Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = -.26; p < .001$); and Mindreading is Expected ($r = -.22; p < .001$). Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette was significantly correlated with Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes ($r = .23; p < .001$); and Sexual Behavior ($r = .32; p < .001$). Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Joked was significantly correlated with Marital Relationships and Obligations ($r = .45; p < .001$); Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = -.38; p < .001$); Mindreading is Expected ($r = -.25; p < .001$); Partners Cannot Change ($r = -.38; p < .001$); and Sexes are Different ($r = -.32; p < .001$). Marital Relationships and Obligations was significantly correlated with the following: Relationship Belief Inventory's Disagreement is Destructive ($r = -.39; p < .001$); Mindreading is Expected ($r = -.30; p < .001$); Partners Cannot Change ($r = -.26; p < .001$); and Sexes are Different ($r = -.35; p < .001$).

Results By Hypothesis

In this section, the results of the four hypotheses are presented. The first hypothesis suggested that gender role conflict would be related to attitudes toward women. Hypothesis Two examined the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. Hypothesis Three predicted that attitudes toward women would be related to relationship beliefs. Finally, the fourth hypothesis predicted that attitudes toward women would moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis stated that male gender role conflict would be related to attitudes toward women. A canonical correlation analysis was done to determine the multivariate relationships between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women (see Table 3). One side of the canonical correlation was Gender Role Conflict, consisting of Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflict Between Work and Family. The other variate was Attitudes Toward Women, consisting of Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Freedom and Independence; Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes; Sexual Behavior; and Marital Relationships and Obligations.

One significant canonical correlation emerged, and the canonical loadings were retained for interpretation. The significant canonical correlation was .51 and accounted for 26 % of the total variance [Wilk's $\lambda = .66$; $\chi^2(24) = 50.63$; $p < .001$]. For one side, Gender Role Conflict had significant loadings: Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (-.96); Restrictive Emotionality (-.75); and Success, Power, and

Table 3

Canonical Correlation Between Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women

Variable	Loadings	Standardized Coefficient
Gender Role Conflict		
Success, Power, and Competition	-.57*	-.19
Restrictive Emotionality	-.75*	-.32
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	-.96*	-.72
Conflict Between Work and Family	-.20	.19
Attitudes Toward Women		
Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual	.84*	.64
Freedom and Independence	.23	-.28
Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette	.33	.20
Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes	.78*	.40
Sexual Behavior	-.13	-.26
Marital Relationships and Obligations	.64*	.18

Note. * $p < .05$.

Competition (-.57). The following loadings for Attitudes Toward Women were significant: Marital Relationships and Obligations (.64); Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles (.84); and Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes (.78). This suggested that, as emotional and affectionate restrictions and need for success, power, and competition decreased, men looked more liberally at women's vocational, educational, intellectual, social, and marital rights.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two stated that male gender role conflict would be related to maladaptive relationship beliefs. A canonical correlation analysis was performed to

establish the multivariate relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs (see Table 4). One side of the canonical correlation was Gender Role Conflict, consisting of Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; and Conflict Between Work and Family. The other side of the equation was Relationship Beliefs Inventory, including Disagreement is Destructive; Mindreading is Expected; Partners Cannot Change; Sexual Perfectionism; and Sexes are Different.

One canonical correlation was significant at .42, and accounted for 18% of the total variance [Wilk's $\lambda = .71$; $\chi^2(20) = 46.11$; $p < .001$]. For one side, Gender Role Conflict had significant loadings: Success, Power, and Competition (-.97); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (-.73); Restrictive Emotionality (-.60); and Conflict Between Work and Family (-.55). The following loadings for Relationship Belief Inventory were significant: Disagreement is Destructive (-.88); Sexes are Different (-.65); and Partners Cannot Change (-.56). In other words, individuals who needed success, power, and competition; had restrictive emotions and affection toward men; and experienced conflict between work and family had irrational beliefs about relationships. Specifically, they believed that disagreement is destructive, males and females are different, and partners cannot change.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis stated that males' negative attitudes toward women would be related to maladaptive relationship beliefs. The final canonical correlation was performed to determine the multivariate relationship between attitudes toward women and relationship beliefs (see Table 5). One side of the canonical correlation was Attitudes

Table 4

Canonical Correlation between Gender Role Conflict and Relationship Beliefs

Variable	Loadings	Standardized Coefficient
Gender Role Conflict		
Success, Power, and Competition	-.97*	-.77
Restrictive Emotionality	-.60*	.01
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men	-.73*	-.28
Conflict Between Work and Family	-.55*	-.11
Relationship Beliefs		
Disagreement is Destructive	-.88*	-.71
Mindreading is Expected	-.35	.04
Partners Cannot Change	-.56*	-.17
Sexual Perfectionism	-.27	-.12
Sexes are Different	-.65*	-.41

Note. * $p < .05$.

Toward Women, consisting of Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Freedom and Independence; Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes; Sexual Behavior; and Marital Relationships and Obligations. The other side of the equation was Relationship Beliefs Inventory, including Disagreement is Destructive; Mindreading is Expected; Partners Cannot Change; Sexual Perfectionism; and Sexes are Different.

Two significant canonical correlations emerged for this set of variables. The first significant canonical correlation was .65 and accounted for 42 % of the total variance [Wilk's $\lambda = .41$; $\chi^2(30) = 108.41$; $p < .000$]. For one side, Attitudes Toward Women had significant loadings: Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes (.84); Vocational,

Table 5

Canonical Correlations Between Relationship Beliefs and Attitudes Toward Women

Variable	Loadings	Standardized Coefficient
Canonical Correlation 1		
Relationship Beliefs		
Disagreement is Destructive	-.83*	-.23
Mindreading is Expected	-.63*	-.40
Partners Cannot Change	-.81*	-.53
Sexual Perfectionism	-.07	-.07
Sexes are Different	-.53*	-.26
Attitudes Toward Women		
Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual	.83*	.18
Freedom and Independence	.50*	.13
Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette	-.02	-.11
Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes	.84*	.30
Sexual Behavior	-.14	-.19
Marital Relationships and Obligations	.76*	.28
Canonical Correlation 2		
Relationship Beliefs		
Disagreement is Destructive	.07	.42
Mindreading is Expected	-.02	.03
Partners Cannot Change	-.34	-.80
Sexual Perfectionism	-.53*	-.69
Sexes are Different	.52*	.63
Attitudes Toward Women		
Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual	-.19	-.22
Freedom and Independence	-.14	.15
Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette	.56*	.66
Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes	.23	.54
Sexual Behavior	-.42*	-.62
Marital Relationships and Obligations	-.40*	-.56

Note. * $p < .05$

Educational, and Intellectual Roles (.83); Marital Relationships and Obligations (.76); and Freedom and Independence (.50). The other significant loadings were in Relationship Beliefs Inventory: Disagreement is Destructive (-.83); Partners Cannot Change (-.81); Mindreading is Expected (-.63); and Sexes are Different (-.53). Essentially this relationship determined that a man with excessively conservative views about women's

social, vocational, educational, intellectual, and marital rights; and freedom and independence had irrational relationship beliefs. The specific relationship beliefs were disagreement is destructive, partners cannot change, mindreading is expected, and males and females are different.

The second significant canonical correlation was .46 and accounted for 21 % of the total variance [Wilk's $\lambda = .72$; $\chi^2(20) = 40.50$; $p < .004$]. For one side, Attitudes Toward Women had significant loadings: Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette (.56); Sexual Behavior (-.42); and Marital Relationships and Obligations (-.40). The other significant loadings were in Relationship Beliefs Inventory: Sexual Perfectionism (-.53) and Sexes are Different (.52). This relationship expressed that a man with excessively conservative views about dating and courtship etiquette had irrational beliefs about a need for sexual perfectionism in a relationship but more rational beliefs about the differences between the sexes. However, a different situation seemed to occur when a man had liberal views about sexual behavior and marital obligations. As views toward sexual behavior and marital obligations became more liberal, beliefs about sexual perfectionism became more rational and beliefs about the differences between sexes became less rational.

Hypothesis Four

The final hypothesis stated that attitudes toward women would moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. A hierarchical regression was used to assess this moderating relationship. The dependent variable was the Relationship Beliefs Inventory total. Gender role conflict variables were entered first; then attitudes toward women variables were added, and finally interactions between

Table 6

Hierarchical Regression for Relationship Beliefs onto Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women and Their Interactions.

Variable β	R ²	ΔR^2
Block 1 (Gender Role Conflict)	.23	.19
Success, Power, and Competition		.25*
Block 2 (add Attitudes Toward Women)	.44	.38
Conflict Between Work and Family		.20*
Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes		-.31*
Block 3 (add Interactions)	.67	.50
Restrictive Emotionality		1.51*
Freedom and Independence		2.06*
Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette		1.40*
Success, Power, & Competition X Dating, Courtship, & Etiquette		-1.76*
Restrictive Emotionality X Freedom & Independence		-3.12*
Restrictive Affectionate Behavior X Marital Relationships & Obligations		-2.52*

Note. Table presents only significant variables; * $p < .05$.

gender role conflict variables and attitudes toward women variables were added. Table 6 shows the significant results of the hierarchical regression.

The results of the first block (gender role conflict variables) showed that 23% [$R = .47$; $F(4, 98) = 7.10$; $p < .000$] of the variance of relationship beliefs was accounted for by gender role conflict alone. Specifically, Success, Power, and Competition (.25) was the factor responsible for the predictive relationship. This suggested that striving for success, power, and competition predicted irrational relationship beliefs. The second block of variables, attitudes toward women, indicated that 21% [$R = .66$; $F(10, 92) = 7.23$; $p < .000$] more variance was explained by adding attitudes toward women.

Specifically, Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (.20) and Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes (-.31) were the factors responsible for the predictive relationship. In other words, conflict between work and family and conservative attitudes toward women's drinking, swearing, and dirty joke-telling was predictive of irrational relationship beliefs. The final block of variables showed that an additional 23% [$R = .82$; $F(34, 68) = 4.051$; $p < .000$] of the variance was accounted for by the interactions between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women. The specific factors that were responsible for the predictive relationship were Restrictive Emotionality (1.51); Freedom and Independence (2.06); Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette (1.40); the interaction between Success, Power, and Competition and Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette (-1.76); the interaction between Restrictive Emotionality and Freedom and Independence (-3.12); and the interaction between Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Marital Relationships and Obligations (-2.52). This suggested that emotional restriction; conservative attitudes toward women's rights to freedom and independence; dating etiquette; and the interactions between need for success, power, and competition and conservative attitudes toward women's rights to dating etiquette; emotional restriction and conservative attitudes toward women's rights to freedom and independence; and affectionate restrictions and conservative attitudes toward women's marital rights predicted irrational relationship beliefs.

Overall, 67% of the total variance was accounted for by gender role conflict, attitudes toward women, and the interactions between the two inventories. Therefore, the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs was, in fact, moderated by attitudes toward women. Essentially, when a male exhibited gender role conflict, he

had maladaptive relationship beliefs. However, when the same male also had conservative attitudes toward women, his relationship beliefs were even more maladaptive.

Generally, this section presented the results of four hypotheses. All four hypotheses were supported by the research. Essentially, gender role conflict was related to attitudes toward women and relationship beliefs. Attitudes toward women were related to relationship beliefs. Finally, the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs was moderated by attitudes toward women.

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

The focus of the current study was to determine the relationships, if any, among gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs. The hypotheses were narrowed to four: (1) the relationships between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women; (2) gender role conflict and relationship beliefs; (3) attitudes toward women and relationship beliefs; and finally, (4) the level at which attitudes toward women moderated the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs.

The discussion of the current study begins with a general overview of the results. The four formal hypotheses are then introduced and discussed individually. A general discussion of the results follows, highlighting the significant findings and implications. Next, the limitations of the study are appraised. Finally, suggestions for future research are explored.

General Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationships among gender role conflict, attitudes toward women, and relationship beliefs. It was first hypothesized that each variable would have a significant relationship to each other. Then, it was hypothesized that attitudes toward women would moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. Each of these hypotheses was accurate.

There was a relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women; gender role conflict and relationship beliefs; and attitudes toward females and relationship beliefs. Additionally, the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs was moderated by attitudes toward women.

It was discovered that, as a male's gender role conflict increased, his attitudes toward women became more conservative and his relationship beliefs became more irrational. Likewise, as males' attitudes toward females became more conservative, relationship beliefs became more irrational. When considering the moderating effects of attitudes toward females, it was found that the interactions between conservative attitudes toward women and high levels of gender role conflict increased irrational relationship beliefs beyond the impact of either gender role conflict or attitudes toward women alone. The results made clear that irrational relationship beliefs increased when a male had conservative attitudes toward females and/or high levels of gender role conflict.

The current study affirmed the results of past research (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997; Mintz & Mahalik, 1996; O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999; Twenge, 1997). A significant relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward females was evinced by Wood et al. (2000). O'Neil and Nadeau (1999) discovered that gender role conflict was related to aggressive attitudes toward women. Campbell and Snow (1992) showed that relationship complications were related to high levels of gender role conflict. Mintz and Mahalik's (1996) data highlighted evidence of the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship issues. Twenge (1997) discussed the impact of males' negative attitudes toward females on relationships. Glick

et al. (1997) showed that conservative attitudes toward females were related to problems in relationships.

Conclusions

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis was tested to determine if there was a relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women. Results indicated that there was a significant relationship between these two variables. An examination of the results showed three significant Gender Role Conflict variables: Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; Restrictive Emotionality; and Success, Power, and Competition. The three variables of Attitudes Toward Women that were significant include Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes; and Marital Relationships and Obligations. The results indicated that as a man became less emotionally and affectionately restricted and had a lower need for success, power, and competition, he became more liberal in his view toward women's vocational, educational, intellectual, social, and marital rights. Conversely, as predicted, as a man became more gender role conflicted in the areas of restricted affections toward men, restricted emotions, and increased need for success, power, and competition, he became more conservative in his attitudes toward women's rights to equal education, vocation, drinking, swearing, dirty joke telling, and marital obligations.

Similar results were discovered by past studies (Blazina & Watkins, 2000; O'Neil & Harway, 1997; Rando et al., 1994; Wood et al., 2000). O'Neil and Harway (1997) found a relationship between misogynistic attitudes toward females and gender role conflict. Wood et al. (2000) explained the correlation between gender role conflict and

attitudes toward females. Blazina and Watkins (2000) studied gender role conflict and feministic roles and found that, as gender role conflict increased, attitudes toward feministic roles decreased. Jacobs (1995; as cited in O'Neil & Harway, 1997) and Rando et al. (1994) were interested in the relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward females and the treatment of females. Specifically, men who found an excessive need for success, power, and competition tended to be accepting of sexual harassment of females (Jacobs, 1995). Rando et al. (1994) found that males high in Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men viewed females stereotypically, expressed hostility toward females, and accepted the rape myth.

Similar to the previously mentioned studies, the current research demonstrated that Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men were the significant variants in the relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women. Past research has made little mention about the contributing factors of attitudes toward women in the relationship with gender role conflict. However, two of the variants that past research found most valid include Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; and Marital Relationships and Obligations (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). These were among the three significant variables in the current research. Overall, the current study was supportive of past research on the relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women.

Hypothesis Two

Gender role conflict and relationship beliefs were hypothesized to share a relationship. The second hypothesis was supported by the current study. Specifically, the

variables of Gender Role Conflict that defined this relationship were Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; Restrictive Emotionality; and Conflict Between Work and Family. The variables of Relationship Belief that were significant were Disagreement is Destructive; Sexes are Different; and Partners Cannot Change. The relationships between these variables suggested that, if a gender role conflicted man developed a greater need for success and power, had more restricted emotions and affection, and had higher amounts of conflict between work and family, he then had more irrational beliefs. The irrational beliefs that he exhibited included those about disagreement in a relationship, the ability for a partner to change, and the differences between the sexes. Conversely, relationship beliefs were more rational when a man had less gender role conflict.

Past research has shown similar results (Fischer & Good, 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Sileo, 1996). Sileo (1996) explained that as Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men increased, intimacy and closeness in a relationship decreased. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) and Fischer and Good (1995) found the same variables to be significant in the relationship between gender role conflict and relationships.

The current study affirmed the past research and discovered an additional relationship. Namely, Conflict Between Work and Family was significantly related to relationships, in addition to the other three variables. This new contribution to the research base suggested that work-related issues are becoming a greater force in relationship complications. Previous research and the present study established a significant relationship between gender role conflict and relationships.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis investigated the relationship between attitudes toward women and relationship beliefs. Two sets of results were discovered to be significant in this hypothesis. In the first canonical correlation, the four specific Attitudes Toward Women variables that contributed to this relationship were Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes; Vocational, Educational, and Intellectual Roles; Marital Relationships and Obligations; and Freedom and Independence. The four Relationship Beliefs' variables that were significant in this relationship are Disagreement is Destructive; Partners Cannot Change; Mindreading is Expected; and Sexes are Different. These results suggest that, as a man became more conservative in his beliefs about a woman's rights (to drink, swear, and tell dirty jokes; vocational and educational roles; marital obligations; and freedom), he became more irrational in his relationship beliefs. These irrational relationship beliefs were about disagreement, changing, mindreading, and differences in the sexes. The opposite was also true. As a man became more liberal in his views about women's rights, he became more rational in his relationship beliefs.

The second canonical correlation found that the three significant variables of Attitudes Toward Women were Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Sexual Behavior; and Marital Relationships and Obligations. The two variables of Relationship Beliefs were Sexual Perfectionism and Sexes are Different. As dating and courtship etiquette became more conservative, beliefs about sexual perfectionism became more irrational and beliefs about the sexes being different became more rational. Additionally, as attitudes about sexual behavior and marital obligations became more conservative, beliefs about sexual

perfectionism became more rational and beliefs about the sexes being different became more irrational.

There was little past research to compare these results to directly since past research has focused primarily on relationships instead of relationship beliefs. However, the overall results of the past research demonstrated findings similar to the current study (Gray-Little, 1982; Glick et al., 1997; O'Neal & Nadeau, 1999; Woudenberg, 1977). Gray-Little (1982) studied the impact of equality between the sexes on relationships and found that, when relationships were egalitarian, they were also more likely to be satisfactory. O'Neil and Nadeau (1999) explained that power differential was vital in relationships. Woudenberg (1977) discovered that attitudes toward females impacted male views about sexual behavior and relationship beliefs. Poor relationship quality has been related to attitudes toward females (Glick et al., 1997). Overall, the results of this study were congruent with past research. The information about the specific variables effected, however, was novel.

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis Four addressed the moderating effect of attitudes toward women on the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. The hypothesis was that attitudes toward women would moderate the relationship between gender role conflict and relationship beliefs. As expected, this study revealed that a man with both conservative attitudes toward women and gender role conflict had increased irrational relationship beliefs.

To determine the moderating effects of attitudes toward women, the variables of each construct were blocked into three sets. The dependent variable in all blocks was

Relationship Beliefs. In all sets, the relationship was determined to be significant. In the first set, the four variables of Gender Role Conflict were entered into the equation. In this set, the only factor contributing to the relationship was Success, Power, and Competition. This demonstrated that relationship beliefs became more irrational when a man had a need for success, power, and competition. Only 23% of the variance in the relationship was accounted for by Gender Role Conflict alone.

The second set of variables consisted of those contained in Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women. The accountability was increased by 21% of the variance of the relationship when Attitudes Toward Women's variables were added. In this set, there were two contributing factors. The variable of the Gender Role Conflict Scale was Conflict Between Work and Family and the variable from the Attitudes Toward Women Scale was Drinking, Swearing, and Dirty Jokes.

The final set of variables entered included the individual interactions between each of the Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women variables. The results of this set demonstrated that the interactions between Gender Role Conflict and Attitudes Toward Women accounted for an additional 23% of the variance. Therefore, Attitudes Toward Women did moderate the relationship between Gender Role Conflict and Relationship Beliefs. The three specific variables that significantly predicted this relationship were Gender Role Conflict's Restrictive Emotionality; Attitudes Toward Women's Freedom and Independence; and Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette. The three interactions that predicted this relationship were: Success, Power, and Competition and Dating, Courtship, and Etiquette; Restrictive Emotionality and Freedom and

Independence; and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Marital Relationships and Obligations.

General Implications

The views toward women's rights, as described by Spence and Helmreich (1972), were intended to be on a continuum with conservative being on one end and liberal views being on the other end. Likewise, O'Neil and colleagues (1986) did not devise the Gender Role Conflict Scale with the intentions of stating that men experiencing any such concerns were necessarily conflicted. It is vital to understand that all of the qualities found in gender role conflicted men are not bad. However, when taken to an extreme they can cause harm in their lives as well as the lives around them. To have some conservative views toward women's rights is also not bad but taking these conservative views to a point of restricting the rights of others is harmful to their lives and those around them.

The current findings indicated that men who were highly gender role conflicted were also highly conservative in their views toward the rights of women, and, as the two complications increased, so did the irrationality of the man's relationship beliefs. While it would be unlikely to find a man with one complication and not the other, this research showed that the combination of the two increased the irrational relationship beliefs that the man held.

These results were comparable to those in previous research (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Smith et al., 1980; Wood et al., 1999). Wood et al. (2000) revealed a relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women. Specifically, it was found that as gender role conflict increased, men's attitudes toward women's rights and responsibilities became more conservative. Hypothesis One supported the research done

by Wood and colleagues (1999). Campbell and Snow's (1981) research dealt with gender role conflict and relationships. Their findings were that, as gender role conflict increased, relationship satisfaction decreased. These findings were similar to those found in the second hypothesis. The third hypothesis supported the findings by Smith and colleagues (1980). Smith and colleagues explained specifically that, as negative attitudes toward women increased, the quality of relationships decreased. That the past research was supported by the current study necessitated the fourth hypothesis. The findings of the fourth hypothesis further demonstrated the importance of the compounding factors of these two complications that males may experience.

The implications these results have for therapy with married couples, engaged couples, and men seeking relationships are far-reaching. Relationship quality has been shown to be directly related to relationship beliefs (Fletcher et al., 1999). Therefore, knowing what impacts relationship beliefs is of value for therapists working with marital and premarital therapies. This research showed two of the potentially crucial aspects of what develops relationship beliefs, gender role conflict and attitudes toward women. Relationships impact every facet of human life. The implications of these findings, when applied, could be used to help reduce domestic violence, divorce, and individual emotional complications.

It is hoped that the results of this research will be used in therapeutic situations to increase relationship quality therefore reducing divorce rates, domestic violence, and single-parent households. It is recommended that these results be used in a manner that will inform clients (both male and female) of the consequences of their conflicts, attitudes, and beliefs. In premarital therapy, this information could be used to guide the

clients to better understand self and fiancé. By assisting a client in recognizing that he has certain aspects of his being that are gender role conflicted and certain views about women's rights and responsibilities that are excessively conservative, he may work toward overcoming these complications before they destroy his relationship.

Additionally, if the conflicted male cannot overcome these complications in his life, his fiancé will be better informed so that her decision to pursue the marriage will be based on a more complete understanding of her partner. It is not expected that females faced with a conflicted loved one will leave him for that reason alone. It is hoped that their decisions will be more informed and therefore more beneficial for each party.

Marriage counseling is an under used area of psychology that, if used in combination with the results of this study, could decrease divorce rates (Lisak & Ivan, 1995). As divorce often leads to single-parent households, it is not just damaging to the divorcees but also for the children involved (Lisak, 1994). Once a couple enters therapy, it is important to have tools to help the therapist to guide them in understanding the power of gender role conflict and its consequences. It is recognized that gender role conflict is only one area that may be impacting a relationship but it is an important one. Being informed is often all that is necessary to make a better decision. If these attitudes and conflicts are present in a relationship, the psychologist can help a willing male to work through them, increasing the chances of staying married. Self-awareness can impact the way a male behaves in his relationship. Being aware of the source of certain attitudes and complications can possibly increase understanding and patience of the female in a relationship. If these independent inventories become more commonly used in

preliminary therapy sessions, awareness of these attitudes, conflicts, and beliefs can increase success in therapy.

Limitations

The current study was sound but had limitations. Awareness of these limitations can increase the appropriate use of the results. The significant limitation of this study resulted from the sample. A second limitation was related to the instrumentation. The following explains and explores the implications of these limitations.

The sample population consisted of college males in a southern university. The first limitation was the use of college males. The impact of education will be a limitation of any sample drawn from a college. College-educated individuals are only a small proportion of this country and an even smaller proportion of the world. For this reason, applying this information without further testing to persons with significantly lower levels of education would be inappropriate. It should not be assumed that attitudes and conflicts of educated males are representative of those held by persons with lower levels of education.

This sample is representative of a southern population and is therefore not generalizable to populations in the north. While there was a significant sample of European American males and African American males, no other ethnic group was significantly represented. It is unsure if other ethnic groups would have similar responses to these inventories, and therefore the results should not be generalized to populations outside of White and African Americans.

Another limitation of this sample was age and those experience deficits that come with youth. The sample was primarily 18 to 25 years old. Most of the males had never

been married and had rarely held a long-standing relationship. During collection of data, on numerous occasions, comments were made that the individual did not feel like he could answer accurately since he “is still a virgin” or “never had a real relationship.” This limitation needs to be considered when working with mature, married couples rather than premarital couples or young individuals looking for self-awareness.

Since the data were collected in the depths of the “Bible Belt,” religion was taken into consideration when assessing the sample. While there is no documented reason to suspect a difference, it should be noted that the majority of this sample was Christian with the majority of those being of the Baptist denomination. Very few atheists were represented and even fewer non-Christian religions were sampled. It is certainly possible that the views of other faiths would impact the attitudes, conflicts, and beliefs that a person experiences.

Another limitation of the sample was the fact that there was an insignificant number of gay or bisexual individuals represented in this study. Therefore, this research cannot be generalized to relationships between gay or bisexual males. With the rising attention in the media to homosexual marriage, a study of these constructs could be of value.

Any study using self-report methods is limited by the trust in the accuracy of the responses by the participants. All response sets that were not completed were thrown out. However, it was impossible to determine definitively if someone was responding randomly. Additionally, there was no sure way to verify sincerity in responses. In an effort to reduce inaccuracy, surveys that were randomly and incompletely responded to were thrown out.

The next set of limitations was related to the inventories used. The Gender Role Conflict Scale is a widely used, validated, and reliable instrument. The Relationship Beliefs Inventory is a strong scale but is less known and used than the other two instruments. However, the Relationship Beliefs Inventory has been found both valid and reliable in the studies that have used it. Additionally, it is new and therefore relevant to the issues of current society. On the other hand, the Attitudes Toward Women Scale is an older inventory that is becoming obsolete (Loo & Thorpe, 1998; McHugh & Frieze, 1997). The questions are becoming outdated, as evidenced by obsolete terms such as “darning socks.” The complication that this caused was that the scale was less likely to differentiate between extreme and moderate conservatism. It may suggest males are more liberal than they truly are simply because the types of conservative behaviors have changed and modern problems are not represented by the questions. Despite this complication, it was outside of the scope of this study to develop a new instrument. Additionally, the past research using this instrument is significant and has found this scale both valid and reliable for decades. The warning that should be heeded as a result of this limitation is that the levels of liberation and conservatism are questionable but the extremes are nonetheless valid.

These limitations did not devalue the results of this study but should be considered when using this information with clients or in therapy. The following section addresses some of these limitations by suggesting future research in certain areas.

Future Research Suggestions

One suggestion for future research is to focus on female gender role conflict, attitudes toward men, and female relationship beliefs. Throughout the process of this

research, comments were made about how men were being made out as the “bad guy” or the cause of all relationship problems. It is important to understand that it was not the intention to make the man in a relationship into a villain. This research was intended solely to look at one of many areas that can cause relationship complications. However, these comments brought an important concept to mind, the conflicts, attitudes, and beliefs that a female may bring to a relationship.

Society would benefit from a more diverse study of this information. If these conflicts and attitudes so impact the relationship beliefs of young men, it is probable that they would impact the relationships of more mature married males. Gathering a sample representative of married males or males in long-term relationships would be interesting for comparative purposes. A sample from the north, a sample with more diverse religious representation, and/or a sample with more ethnic diversity would widen the overall validity of these complications if future samples find similar results as those found in this study. As results are discovered that support this research, the information will hopefully become more widely known and applied in therapeutic situations.

Other types of research that could widen knowledge to other areas of society are in the gender role experiences of lesbians, gays, and bisexuals. There is a deficit in research about homosexual relationships. However, this is an area of growing interest as more gay couples seek to make a life-long commitment to each other. The desire and recent rights of gay adoptions have changed, thus increasing the need for healthy relationships in these types of families to ensure the health of the children as well as the happiness of the couple.

Another area of research that needs to be explored is related to hate crimes. Hate crimes are a product of negative attitudes. One research idea is to study the impact of gender role conflict and attitudes toward women on attitudes toward lesbians, gays, and bisexuals. Another study could be on the impacts gender role conflict and attitudes toward women have on different racial attitudes.

Future research could also focus on what factors contribute to gender role conflict and attitudes toward women. It is possible that finding the underlying contributors to these complications may increase the therapeutic impacts of self-awareness. Further contributors to the beliefs someone has about relationships could be useful information found in future research.

REFERENCES

- Arnold, W. J., & Chartier, B. M. (1984). Identity, fear of femininity, and intimacy in males. Paper presented at the 45th annual convention of the Canadian Psychological Association, Ottawa.
- Ashkanasy, N. M. (1994). Automatic categorization and causal attribution: The effect of gender bias in supervisor responses to subordinate performance. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 46*, 177-182.
- Babcock, J., Waltz, J., Jacobson, N., & Gottman, J. (1993). Power and violence: The relation between communication patterns, power discrepancies, and domestic violence. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 61*, 40-50.
- Bakken, L., & Romig, C. (1992). Interpersonal needs in middle adolescents: Companionship, leadership, and intimacy. *Journal of Adolescence, 15*(3), 301-317.
- Baltimore, M. L. (1995). Expectations and beliefs in close relationships: An analysis of appraised stress, coping style, and hardiness. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences, 55*(12-A), 3745.
- Baucom, D. H., & Epstein, N. (1990). *Cognitive-behavioral marital therapy*. Philadelphia, PA, US: Brunner/Mazel, Inc.
- Bean, F., Curtis, R., & Marcum, J. (1977). Familism and marital satisfaction among Mexican Americans: The effects of family size, wife's labor force participation, and conjugal power. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 39*, 759-767.
- Beesley, D., & Stoltenberg, C. D. (2002). Control, attachment style, and relationship satisfaction among adult children of alcoholics. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 24*(4), 281-299.
- Berko, E. H. (1994). Shyness, gender role orientation, physical self-esteem, and gender role conflict. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Albany, State University of New York). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 55/90*, 4100.
- Berscheid, E., Snyder, M., & Omoto, A. M. (1989). The Relationship Closeness Inventory: Assessing the closeness of interpersonal relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*(5), 792-807.

- Blazina, C., & Watkins, C. E. (1996). Masculine gender role conflict: Effects on college men's psychological well-being, chemical substance usage, and attitudes toward help-seeking. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 43*, 461-465.
- Blazina, C., & Watkins, C. E. (2000). Separation/Individuation, parental attachment, and male gender role conflict: Attitudes toward the feminine and the fragile masculine self. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity, 1*(2), 126-132.
- Brooks, G. R. (1990). Post-Vietnam gender role strain: A needed concept? *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 21*, 18-25.
- Bullitt, C., & Farber, B. A. (2002). Sex differences in the relationship between interpersonal problems and defensive style. *Psychological Reports, 91*(3), 767-769.
- Busboom, A. L., Collins, D. M., Givertz, M. D., & Levin, L. A. (2002). Can we still be friends? Resources and barriers to friendship quality after romantic relationship dissolution. *Personal Relationships, 9*, 215-223.
- Campbell, J. L., & Snow, B. M. (1992). Gender role conflict and family environment as predictors of men's marital satisfaction. *Journal of Family Psychology, 6*, 84-87.
- Chartier, B. M., & Arnold, W. J. (1985). Male socialization and the development of identity and intimacy in young college men. Paper presented at the 46th annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Halifax, Nova Scotia.
- Chartier, B. M., Graff, L. A., & Arnold, W. J. (1986). Male socialization and hostility toward women. Paper presented at the 47th annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Toronto.
- Cherlin, A., & Walters, P. B. (1981). Trends in United States men's and women's sex-role attitudes: 1972 to 1978. *American Sociological Review, 46*, 453-460.
- Chia, R. C., Moore, J. L., Lam, K. N., Chuang, C. J., & Cheng, B. S. (1994). Cultural differences in gender role attitudes between Chinese and American students. *Sex Roles, 31*, 23-30.
- Corrales, R. G. (1975). Power and satisfaction in early marriage. In R. E. Cromwell and D. H. Olson (Eds.) *Power in families*. New York: Wiley.
- Cournoyer, R. J. (1994). A development study of gender role conflict in men and its changing relationship to psychological well-being. (Doctoral dissertation, Boston College). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 54*(12), 6476.
- Cramer, D. (2002). Relationship satisfaction and conflict over minor and major issues in romantic relationships. *The Journal of Psychology, 136*(1), 75-82.

- Cramer, D. (2003). Facilitativeness, conflict, demand for approval, self-esteem, and satisfaction with romantic relationships. *Journal of Psychology, 137*(1), 85-99.
- Crosnoe, R. (2000). Friendships in childhood and adolescence: The life course and new directions. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 63*(4), 377-379.
- Damji, T., & Lee, C. M. (1995). Gender role identity and perceptions of Ismaili Muslim men and women. *Journal of Social Psychology, 135*, 215-223.
- Derbyshire, D. L. (1996). *The impact of differential levels of marital partners' psychological reactance on marital satisfaction*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kent State University.
- Doherty, D. H. (1997). Assessment of irrational marital beliefs and conflict resolution styles among premarital couples. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 58*(3-B), 1592.
- Durant, W. (1944). *The story of civilization: Caesar & Christ*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Eidelson, R. J., & Epstein, N. (1982). Cognition and relationship maladjustment: Development of a measure of dysfunctional relationship beliefs. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 50*, 715-720.
- Eisler, R. M., Franchina, J. J., Moore, T. M., Honeycutt, H. G., & Rhatigan, D. L. (2000). Masculine gender role stress and intimate abuse effects of gender relevance of conflict situations on men's attributions and affective responses. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity, 1*(1), 30-36.
- Epstein, G. F., & Bronzaft, A. L. (1972). Female freshmen view their roles as women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 34*, 671-672.
- Erwin, P. E., & Vidales, G. (2001). *Domestic violence, people of color, and the criminal justice system: A case for prevention*. Retrieved October 26, 2003 from www.endabuse.org
- Etaugh, C. (1975). Stability of college students' attitudes toward women during one school year. *Psychological Reports, 36*, 125-126.
- Feiring, C., Rosenthal, S., & Taska, L. (2000). Stigmatization and the development of friendship and romantic relationships in adolescent victims of sexual abuse. *Child Maltreatment, 5*(4), 311-323.

- Fischer, A. R., & Good, G. E. (1995). Masculine gender roles, recognition of emotions, and interpersonal intimacy. *Empirical studies advancing the psychology of men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, New York, New York.
- Fitzpatrick, J., & Sollie, D. L. (1999). Unrealistic gendered and relationship-specific beliefs: Contributions to investments and commitment in dating relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 16*(6), 852-868.
- Fletcher, G. J. O., Simpson, J. A., Thomas, G., & Giles, L. (1999). Ideals in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*(1), 72-89.
- Fletcher, G. J. O., & Kininmonth, L. A. (1992). Measuring relationship beliefs: An individual differences scale. *Journal of Research in Personality, 26*, 371-397.
- Flett, G. L., Hewitt, P. L., Shapiro, B., & Rayman, J. (2001). Perfectionism, beliefs, and adjustment in dating relationships. *Current Psychology, 20*(4), 289-312.
- Foley, L., & Fraser, J. (1998). A research note on post-dating relationships: The social embeddedness of redefining romantic couplings. *Sociological Perspectives, 41*, 209-219.
- Fowers, B. (1991). His and her marriage: A multivariate study of gender and marital satisfaction. *Sex Roles, 24*, 209-221.
- Fragoso, J. M. (1996). Mexican machismo, gender role conflict, acculturation, and mental health. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs), *Men's gender role conflict research advancing the new psychology of men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Frazier, P. A., & Esterly, E. (1990). Correlates of relationship beliefs: Gender, relationship experience, and relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Personal and Social Relationships, 7*(3), 331-352.
- Freil, J. C. (1988). *Adult children: The secrets of dysfunctional families*. Pompano Beach, FL: Health Communications.
- Gabardi, L., & Rosen, L. A. (1992). Intimate relationships: College students from divorced and intact families. *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage, 18*(3-4), 25-56.
- Glick, P., Diebold, J., Bailey-Werner, B., & Zhu, L. (1997). The two faces of Adam: Ambivalent sexism and polarized attitudes toward women. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*(12), 1323-1335.

- Glick, P., Lameiras, M., & Castro, Y. R. (2002). Education and Catholic religiosity as predictors of hostile and benevolent sexism toward women and men. *Sex Roles, 433-442*.
- Good, G. E., Dell, D. M., & Mintz, L. B. (1989). Male role and gender role conflict: Relations to help seeking in men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 36*, 295-300.
- Good, G. E., & Mintz, L. B. (1990). Gender role conflict and depression in college men: Evidence for compounded risk. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 69*, 17-21.
- Good, G. E., Robertson, J. M., O'Neil, J. M., Fitzgerald, L. F., Stevens, M., DeBord, K., Bartels, K. M., & Braverman, D. G. (1995). Male gender role conflict: Psychometric issues and relations to psychological distress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42*, 3-10.
- Good, G. E., & Wood, P. K. (1995). Male gender role conflict, depression, and help seeking: Do college men face double jeopardy? *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74*, 70-75.
- Gray-Little, B. (1982). Marital quality and power processes among black couples. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 44*, 633-646.
- Guerney, B. G., Jr. (1977). *Relationship Enhancement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Haferkamp, C. J. (1999). Beliefs about relationships in relation to television viewing, soap opera viewing, and self-monitoring. *Current Psychology, 18*(2), 193-205.
- Hammen, C., & Brennan, P. A. (2002). Interpersonal dysfunction in depressed women: Impairments independent of depressive symptoms. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 72*, 145-156.
- Hartup, W. W. (1996). The company they keep: Friendships and their developmental significance. *Child Development, 67*(1), 1-14.
- Haworth, G., Povey, R., & Clift, S. (1986). The attitudes towards women scale (AWS-B): A comparison of women in engineering and traditional occupations with male engineers. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 25*, 329-334.
- Hays, W. L. (1994). *Statistics (3rd ed.)*. New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Hendrick, S. S. (1988). A generic measure of relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 50*, 93-98.

- Heppner, P.P. (1991). On gender role conflict in men-Future directions and implications for counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42*(1), 20-23.
- Herzog, A. R., Bachman, J. G., & Johnston, L. D. (1983). Paid work, child care, and housework: A national survey of high school seniors' preferences for sharing responsibilities between husband and wife. *Sex Roles, 9*, 109-134.
- Hjelle, L. A., & Butterfield, R. (1974). Self-actualization and women's attitudes toward their role in contemporary society. *The Journal of Psychology, 87*, 225-230.
- Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Meehan, J. C., Heron, K., Rehman, U., & Stuart, G. L. (2000). Testing the Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) Batterer Typology. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 68*(6), 1000-1020.
- Horhoruw, M. (1991). Correlation between gender role conflict and male friendship behavior. Unpublished thesis. Jakarta, India.
- Hudson, K. (2003). *Domestic Violence*. Retrieved October 26, 2003 from www.academiclibrary.com
- Kaplan, A. (1997). Domestic violence and welfare reform. *Welfare Information Network, 1*(8), 1-10.
- Kaplan, R., O'Neil, J. M., & Owen, S. (1993). Sexist, normative, and progressive masculinity and sexual assault: Empirical research. In J. M. O'Neil (Chair) *Research on men's sexual assault and constructive gender role interventions*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Karney, B. R., & Frye, N. E. (2002). "But we've been getting better lately": Comparing prospective and retrospective views of relationship development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*(2), 222-239.
- Kenny, D. A., & Acetelli, L. K. (1994). Measuring similarity in couples. *Journal of Family Psychology, 8*(4), 417-431.
- Kim, E. J., O'Neil, J. M., & Owen, S. V. (1996). Asian-American men's acculturation and gender role conflict. *Psychological Reports, 79*, 95-104.
- Kurdek, L. A., & Schmitt, J. P. (1986). Interaction of sex-role self-concept with relationship quality and relationship beliefs in married, heterosexual cohabiting, gay, and lesbian couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(2), 365-370.

- Kurpius, S. E. R., & Lucart, A. L. (2000). Military and civilian undergraduates: Attitudes toward women, masculinity, and authoritarianism. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 255-265.
- Lauer, R., Lauer, J., & Kerr, S. (1990). The long-term marriage: Perceptions of stability and satisfaction. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 31, 189-195.
- Levant, R. F., & Majors, R. G. (1997). An investigation into variations in the construction of the male gender role among young African American and European American women and men. *Journal of Gender, Culture, and Health*, 2, 33-43.
- Lisak, D. (1994). Subjective assessment of relationships with parents by sexually aggressive and non-aggressive men. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 9, 399-411.
- Lisak, D., & Ivan, C. (1995). Deficits in intimacy and empathy in sexually aggressive men. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 10(3), 296-308.
- Loo, R., & Logan, P. (1977). Investigation of the attitudes toward women scale in western Canada. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 9, 201-204.
- Loo, R., & Thorpe, K. (1998). Attitudes toward women's roles in society: A replication after 20 years. *Sex Roles*, 39(11/12), 903-912.
- Lunneborg, P. W. (1974). Validity of Attitudes Toward Women Scale. *Psychological Reports*, 34, 1281-1282.
- Mackey, R. A., Diemer, M. A., & O'Brien, B. A. (2000). Psychological intimacy in the lasting relationships of heterosexual and same-gender couples. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 201-226.
- Mahalik, J. R. (1996). Gender role conflict in men as a predictor of behavior on the interpersonal circle. In J. M. O'Neil & G. E. Good (Chairs) *Men's gender role conflict research: New directions in counseling men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Mahalik, J. R. (1999). Interpersonal psychotherapy with men who experience gender role conflict. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 30(1), 5-13.
- Mahalik, J. R., Cournoyer, R. J., DeFranc, W., Cherry, M., & Napolitano, J. M. (1998). Men's gender role conflict and use of psychological defenses. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 45(3), 247-256.

- Mahalik, J. R., DeFranc, W., Cournoyer, R. J., & Cherry, M. (1997). Gender role conflict: Predictors of men's utilization of psychological defenses. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs) *Gender role conflict research: Implications for the new psychology of men*. Symposium presented at the American Psychological Association, Chicago, Illinois.
- Mahalik, J. R., Locke, B. D., Theodore, H., Cournoyer, R. J., & Lloyd, B. F. (2001). A cross-national and cross-sectional comparison of men's gender role conflict and its relationship to social intimacy and self-esteem. *Sex Roles*, 1-15.
- Mahl, D. (2001). The influence of parental divorce on the romantic relationship beliefs of young adults. *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage*, 34(3-4), 89-119.
- Markham, W. T., & Bonjean, C. M. (1996). Employment status and the attitudes and behavior of higher status women volunteers, 1975 and 1992: A case study. *Sex Roles*, 34(9-10), 695-717.
- Markiewicz, D., Doyle, A. B., & Brendgen, M. (2001). The quality of adolescents' friendships: Association with mothers' interpersonal relationships, attachments to parents and friends, and prosocial behaviors. *Journal of Adolescence*, 24, 429-445.
- McHugh, M. C., & Frieze, I. H. (1997). The measurement of gender-role attitudes: A review and commentary. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 21, 1-16.
- Metts, S., Cupach, W. R., & Bejlovec, R. A. (1989). "I love you too much to ever start liking you": Redefining romantic relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 6, 259-274.
- Mintz, R. D., & Mahalik, J. R. (1996). Gender role orientation and conflict as predictors of family roles for men. *Sex Roles*, 34(11/12), 805-822.
- Moller, A. T., & Van Zyl, P. D. (1991). Relationship beliefs, interpersonal perception, and marital adjustment. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 47(1), 28-34.
- Morin, S. F., & Garfinkle, E. M. (1978). Male homophobia. *Journal of Social Issues*, 34, 29-47.
- Mulder, R. T., Joyce, P. R., Sullivan, P. F., & Oakley-Browne, M. A. (1996). Intimate bonds in depression. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 40, 175-178.
- Mullin, W. J. (2000). The impact of depression on marital beliefs and marital communication. *Dissertation Abstract International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences*, 60(12-A), 4606.

- Murray, S. L., Holmes, J. G., & Griffin, D. W. (2001). The mismeasure of love: How self-doubt contaminates relationship beliefs. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(4), 423-436.
- Newton, C. J. (2001). *Domestic violence: An overview*. Retrieved October 26, 2003 from www.therapistfinder.net
- Noack, P., Krettek, C., & Walper, S. (2001). Peer relations of adolescents from nuclear and separated families. *Journal of Adolescence*, 24, 535-548.
- Obsatz, M. (1997). Gender role socialization makes people incomplete. *The Mac Weekly*, 88(21), 1-3.
- Odewahn, C. A., & Ezell, H. F. (1992). Attitudes toward women managers in human service agencies: Are they changing? *Administration in Social Work*, 16, 45-60.
- O'Neil, J. M. (1981a). Male sex role conflicts, sexism, and masculinity: Psychological implications for men, women, and the counseling psychologist. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 9(2), 61-80.
- O'Neil, J. M. (1981b). Patterns of gender role conflict and strain: Sexism and Fear of Femininity in men's lives. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, ?, 203-210.
- O'Neil, J. M. (1982). Gender role conflict and strain in men's lives: Implications for psychiatrists, psychologists, and other human-service providers. In K. Solomon & N. B. Levy (Eds.) *Men in transition: Theory and therapy*. New York: Plenum Press.
- O'Neil, J. M. (1990). Assessing men's gender role conflict. In D. Moore & F. Leafgren (Eds.) *Problem solving strategies and interventions for men in conflict*. Alexandria, VA: American Association for Counseling and Development.
- O'Neil, J. M. (August, 1992). Gender role conflict research: New directions to understand men's violence. In R. Levant (Chair) *Toward a new psychology of men*. Symposium conducted at the 100th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association.
- O'Neil, J. M., & Egan, J. (1992). Abuses of power against women: Sexism, gender role conflict, and psychological violence. In E. Cook (Ed.) *Women, relationships, and power: Implications for counseling*. Alexandria, Va.: ACA Press.
- O'Neil, J. M., Good, G. E., & Holmes, S. (1995). Fifteen years of theory and research on men's gender role conflict: New paradigms for empirical research. In R. Levant & W. Pollock (Eds.) *The new psychology of men*. New York: Basic Books.

- O'Neil, J. M., & Good, G. E. (1997). Men's gender role conflict: Personal reflections and overview of recent research (1994-1997). *SPSMM Bulletin*, 3(2), 10-15.
- O'Neil, J. M., & Harway, M. (1997). A multivariate model explaining men's violence toward women: Predisposing and triggering hypotheses. *Violence Against Women: An International and Interdisciplinary Journal*, 3(2), 182-203.
- O'Neil, J. M., Helmes, B. J., Gable, R. K., David, L., & Wrightsman, L. S. (1986). Gender-role conflict scale: College men's fear of femininity. *Sex Roles*, 14(5/6), 335-350.
- O'Neil, J. M., & Nadeau, R. A. (1999). Men's gender role conflict, defense mechanisms, and self-protective defensive strategies: Explaining men's violence against women from a gender role socialization perspective. In M. Harway & J. M. O'Neil (Eds.) *What causes men's violence against women?* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- O'Neil, J. M., Owen, S. V., Holmes, S. E., Dolgoplov, N., & Slastenin, V. (1994). Russian-American men's psychological violence toward women: Cross cultural differences. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs) *Research on men's sexual and psychological assault of women: Programming consideration*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, CA.
- Parelius, A. P. (1975). Emerging sex-role attitudes, expectations, and strains among college women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 40, 146-153.
- Paz Galupo, M. P., & St. John, S. (2001). Benefits of cross-sexual orientation friendships among adolescent females. *Journal of Adolescence*, 24, 83-93.
- Philbrick, J. L., & Leon, J. J. (1991). Change in college students' love-styles. *Psychological Reports*, 69(3), 912-915.
- Powell, S. R., & Yanico, B. J. (1991). A multimethod attitude study about women's roles and issues. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 15, 97-101.
- Prager, K. J. (1995). *The psychology of intimacy*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Price, J. (1999). *Navigating differences: Friendships between gay and straight men*. New York: Harrington Press.
- Rando, R. A., Brittan, C. S., & Pannu, R. K. (1994). Gender role conflict and college men's sexually aggressive attitudes and behavior. In J. M. O'Neil & G. E. Good (Chairs) *Research on men's sexual and psychological assault of women: Programming considerations*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, CA.

- Rando, R. A., McBee, S. M., & Brittan, C. S. (1995). Gender role conflict and college men's sexually aggressive attitudes and behavior-II. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs) *Empirical studies advancing the psychology of men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, New York, New York.
- Rice, T. W., & Coates, D. L. (1995). Gender role attitudes in the Southern United States. *Gender and Society, 9*, 744-756.
- Robinson, L. C., Garthoeffner, J. L., & Henry, C. S. (1995). Family structure and interpersonal relationship quality in young adults. *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage, 23*(3-4), 23-44.
- Robinson-Kurpius, S. E., & Lucart, A. L. (2000). Military and civilian undergraduates: Attitudes toward women, masculinity, and authoritarianism. *Sex Roles, ?*, 255-265.
- Saffrey, C., Bartholomew, K., Scharfe, E., Henderson, A. J. Z., and Koopman, R. (2003). Self- and partner-perceptions of interpersonal problems and relationship functioning. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 20*(1), 117-140.
- Segal, L. (1990). *Slow motion: Changing masculinities, changing men*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Sharp, E. A., & Ganong, L. H. (2000). Raising awareness about marital expectations: Are unrealistic beliefs changed by integrative teaching? *Family Relations, 49*(1), 71-77.
- Sharpe, M. J., & Heppner, P. P. (1991). Gender role, gender role conflict, and psychological well-being in men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38*, 323-330.
- Sheppard, D. S. (1994). Male gender role conflict and expression of depression. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association, New York, New York.
- Sheridan, M. J., & Green, R. G. (1993). Family dynamics and individual characteristics of adult children of alcoholics: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Social Service Research, 17*(1-2), 73-97.
- Sileo, F. J. (1996). Gender role conflict: Intimacy and closeness in male-male friendships. In J. M. O'Neil & G. E. Good (Chairs) *Men's gender role conflict research: New directions in counseling men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Simon, R. W. (2002). Revisiting the relationships among gender, marital status, and mental health. *The American Journal of Sociology, 107*(4), 1065-1099.

- Slevin, K. F., & Wingrove, C. R. (1983). Similarities and differences among three generations of women in attitudes toward the female role in contemporary society. *JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 10(4).
- Smith, A. D., Resick, P. A., & Kilpatrick, D. G. (1980). Relationships among gender, sex-role attitudes, sexual attitudes, thoughts, and behaviors. *Psychological Reports*, 46, 359-367.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. (1972). The Attitudes Toward Women Scale: An objective instrument to measure attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in contemporary society. Abstracted in the *JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 2, 66.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. (1978). *Masculinity and femininity: Their psychological dimensions, correlates, and antecedents*. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press.
- Stackert, R. A., & Bursik, K. (2003). Why am I unsatisfied? Adult attachment style, gendered irrational relationship beliefs, and young adult romantic relationship satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34(8), 1419-1430.
- Stark, L. P. (1991). Traditional gender role beliefs and individual outcomes: An exploratory analysis. *Sex Roles*, 24, 639-650.
- Sugawara, A. I., Koval, J. E., & Cate, R. M. (1990). Sibling constellation and attitudes toward women among college students. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 151(4), 541-550.
- Sullivan, B. F., & Schwebel, A. I. (1996). Birth-order position, gender, and irrational relationship beliefs. *Journal of Adlerian Theory, Research, and Practice*, 51(1), 54-65.
- Szinovacz, M. (1978). Another look at normative resource theory: Contributions from Austrian data – A research note. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 40, 413-420.
- Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. New York: Wiley.
- Thompson, P. (1995). Men's sexual abuse: Object relations, gender role conflict and guilt. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs) *Empirical studies advancing the psychology of men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Twenge, J. M. (1997). Attitudes toward women, 1970-1995: A meta-analysis. *Psychology of Men Quarterly*, 21, 35-51.

- Valentine, S. (1998). Self-esteem and men's negative stereotypes of women who work. *Psychological Reports, 83*(3), 920-923.
- Van Delft, C., & Birk, J. M. (1996). Military men's gender role conflict, occupational satisfaction, and psychological distress. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs) *Men's gender-role conflict research: Empirical studies advancing the psychology of men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Voss, K., Markiewicz, D., & Doyle, A. B. (1999). Friendship, marriage, and self-esteem. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 16*(1), 103-123.
- Wade, J. C. (1996). African American men's gender role conflict: The significance of racial identity. *Sex Roles, 34*, 458-464.
- Wade, J. C. (2001). Professional men's attitudes toward race and gender equity. *Journal of Men's Studies, 10*(1), 73-89.
- Wade, J. C., & Brittan-Powell, C. (2001). Men's attitudes toward race and gender equity: The importance of masculinity, ideology, gender-related traits, and reference group identity dependence. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity, 2*(1), 42-50.
- Walling, A. D. (2000). Are male gender roles unhealthy? *American Family Physician, 62*(9), 2132.
- Weaver, T. L., & Clum, G. A. (1995). Psychological distress associated with interpersonal violence: A meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology Review, 15*(2), 115-141.
- Wisch, A. F., & Mahalik, J. M. (1996). Male counselor gender role conflict and clinical judgment. In J. M. O'Neil and G. E. Good (Chairs) *Men's gender role conflict research: New directions in counseling men*. Symposium conducted at the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Wisch, A. F., Mahalik, J. R., Hayes, J. A., & Nutt, E. A. (1993). Counseling men: Gender role conflict, problem type, and emotional content. Paper presented at the 101st meeting of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Wisch, A. F., Mahalik, J. R., Hayes, J. A., & Nutt, E. A. (1995). The impact of gender role conflict and counseling technique on psychological help seeking in men. *Sex Roles, 33*, 77-89.
- Woititz, J. G. (1989). *The self-sabotage syndrome: Adult children in the workplace*. Deerfield Beach, FL: Health Communications.

- Wood, J. M., Robinson, D. T., & Buboltz, W. C., Jr. (2000). Relationship between gender-role conflict and attitudes toward women and African Americans. Presented at *American Psychological Society 12th Annual Convention*, Miami, Florida.
- Woudenberg, R. A. (1977). The relationship of sexual attitudes, attitudes about women, and racial attitudes in white males. *Sex Roles*, 3(2), 101-110.
- Zlotnick, C., Kohn, R., Keitner, G., & Della Grotta, S. A. (2000). The relationship between quality of interpersonal relationships and major depressive disorders: Findings from the National Comorbidity Survey. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 59(3), 205-216.

APPENDIX A
INSTITUTION REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FORM

STUDY/PROJECT INFORMATION FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE

TITLE: An exploration into gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs.

PROJECT DIRECTOR(S): Julia M. Wood
Walter C. Buboltz, Jr.

EMAIL: soundq99@hotmail.com
buboltz@latech.edu

PHONE: 318-299-9637
318-257-4039

DEPARTMENT: Psychology

PURPOSE OF STUDY/PROJECT: To determine the relationship between gender role conflict, attitudes toward females, and relationship beliefs.

SUBJECTS: Louisiana Tech University undergraduate psychology students.

PROCEDURE: Approximately 300 students from undergraduate psychology courses will voluntarily complete a packet of self-report questionnaires, including a gender role conflict scale, masculine strain inventory, attitudes toward females questionnaire, relationship beliefs inventory, and demographic survey. Data will be analyzed using canonical correlations and hierarchical regression to determine the significant relationships between these variables.

INSTRUMENTS AND MEASURES TO INSURE PROTECTION OF CONFIDENTIALITY, ANONYMITY: The 37-item Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) will be used to assess level of gender role conflict. The Masculine Strain Inventory (MSI) is a 22-item measure used to assess masculine strain. The Attitude Toward Women Scale (AWS) consists of 55 items intended to measure negative attitudes toward the rights and roles of females. The Relationship Belief Inventory (RBI) is a 40-item instrument used to assess beliefs about male-female romantic relationships. Additionally, a demographic questionnaire will be administered to collect individual information about the respondent. All collected information will be held confidential and only viewed by the researchers.

RISKS/ALTERNATIVE TREATMENTS: There are no risks associated with participation in this study. It requires completion of a survey composed of the above-mentioned instruments. There are no alternative treatments. Participation is voluntary.

BENEFITS/COMPENSATION: There are no benefits/compensations offered.

SAFEGUARDS OF PHYSICAL AND EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING: This study offers no treatment or physical contact. All information collected from the survey will be held in strict confidence. No one will be allowed access to the survey other than the researchers.

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

