

DATING ATTITUDES OF COLLEGE STUDENTS:

AN INTERREGIONAL STUDY

by

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PREFACE

An evaluation of current cross-sexual dating attitudes was completed during the 1982-83 school year by which current attitudes (following a 16-year period of social upheaval) were compared with dating attitudes during the 1965-66 school year. Comparisons of attitudes were established through the evaluations of data provided by large general education classes in public and private universities in the central and west coast regions of the United States.

A theory was developed and projected by which dating attitudes established within 4 stages of relationships (random dating, steady dating, engagement, and marriage) were considered within the context of Goffman's dramaturgy of symbolic interaction. It was established that college students of the 80s, much like those of the 60s, proceed through stages of dating toward marriage, but quite differently, current participants view their relationships as increasingly more satisfying within each increasing stage of dating involvement.

I wish to express appreciation to a host of individuals and universities for their cooperation in the completion of this project. Included are the following: My graduate committee for guidance and encouragement throughout the process of this project's development and completion; Dr. Terry Johnson, President of Oklahoma Christian College, through whom contacts within the various universities were established;

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The current project concerning (dating attitudes of the college population is a conceptual replication of a dating theory presented by McDaniel (1967). McDaniel saw females of the middle sixties moving through four dating stages as they contemplated marriage. Rather than the joy and satisfaction frequently assumed to typify this period of life, McDaniel found the female increasingly dissatisfied as she played the role of "receptive female" which typified movement toward marriage. It was only within marriage itself, where society and her family wished her to reside, that the American female could discard what Goffman (1959) called a "mask of dramaturgy" and be herself.

Does society produce dissatisfaction in the lives of unmarried adolescents by providing role models for dishonesty? Might this practice continue today? Has much of the societal upheaval of the past 20 years been an ominous cloud foreshadowing the demise of the American family? Or has upheaval been a disguised blessing resulting in the capacity of the young to present their real selves early in relationships and as a result actually improve the quality of eventual marriages? Has negativism or something positive emerged from the strange mix of liberation, war, hippyism, and contraception which have been said to have permeated relationships in this country during the last quarter of the 20th century?

To consider trends in dating satisfaction as college students move from singleness into the married state is the purpose of the current study. It appears to have been overlooked by the research community that dating, even on the college campus of the eighties, is participated in by practically all students and has been slighted by research. Since dating is a type of beginning from which most later cross-sex relationships evolve, and because dating is more representative of the activities within the total college population than are current research topics, it may merit greater consideration. Further, it appears reasonable that a study of dating might increase the understanding with which the research community approaches cross-sex studies of all types, including both premarital and post marital relationships.

Dating Patterns of the Eighties

A number of forces appear to be simultaneously at work in creating the climate for modern dating. Heer and Grossbard-Shechtman (1981) presented a series of events impacting each on the other. They suggested the revolution in contraceptive technology and the shift toward a higher ratio of marriageable females to males as spawning the women's liberation movement. Among the many factors influenced by this movement, according to their research, was dating, particularly on the college campus, as a high percent of young women have chosen education with the goal of self sufficiency.

Transiency, caused by occupational opportunities in the second half of the 20th century, was offered by Lee and Stone (1980) as another factor influencing current dating styles. A family, made nuclear by separation from the extended family, lends itself naturally to autonomous mate selection based on romantic love. Even so, Cherlin (1980) found

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young women postponing marriage in favor of careers. The tendency for young women to be exclusively housewives was on a sharp decline, according to his study, and college attendance for a continuing greater percent of American females was his predicted natural result.

Within the university setting where the percentages of men and women were similar, Knox and Wilson (1981) found typical college students meeting through friends, going to ball games or parties and eating together before returning to his place or to hers. The main topic of their conversations centered on their own relationship. [Parents played a greater role in the female's mate selection process than in that of her male counterpart, and men were ready for kissing, petting, and intercourse earlier than were their dating partners.]

King, Balswick, and Robinson (1977) predicted an end to the double standard in sexual activity, attributing their predictions to a youth counter-culture lifestyle plus the development of the contemporary women's movement. Based on their findings at Temple University, Bell and Coughy (1978) found premarital sex a consistently increasing part of the college dating scene over a 30-year period, and they therefore predicted its continuing increase into the eighties.

Risman, Hill, Rubin, and Peplau (1981) saw living together becoming almost a part of the dating picture. Cohabitants were as likely to break up or marry as were other dating couples. Differences were reported, however, in a cohabiting couple's satisfaction, intimacy, problems, expectations, transitions to marriage, and power which tipped in favor of the male. These researchers concluded that cohabitation posed no threat to the institution of marriage, but rather, produced general temporary stress to its participants (Risman et al., 1981).

Robinson and Jedlicka (1982) found premarital sexual activity

practiced at an all time high among college dating couples. A strange phenomenon was beginning to show in their sample, however. They found the degree of censoring of premarital sexual behavior by college students themselves to be increasing, particularly for members of the opposite sex. They were interested in this censoring, because it first appeared in the third replication of their 1965 study replicated in 1970, 1975, and 1980. An association of premarital sex with immorality was projected as a sign of changing attitudes among American adolescents, which imposed more rigorous standards on others than on self.

Dating Changes Over Time

Kephart (1981) presented modern dating as a new system for obtaining the identical end result obtained through other mate selection processes. That is, so far as Kephart was able to establish, monogamy has been practiced throughout the ages. It is the process of selection, rather than the end result, that has changed. Different emphases have occurred at different times and in different places. For example, in certain societies, and in given socioeconomic structures, consanguinity, more than romantic love, has been the consideration. The bride's or groom's monetary value has been another avenue through which mate selection has been approached. Intellect and physique to be passed on to posterity has been another (Lee & Stone, 1980 and Lee, 1977).

America, from its beginnings, has been a country populated by people more interested in the conjugal family than in the blood lines or the economic potential of participants. This has resulted in a romanticism of the entire mate selection process. Goode (1959, 1963) attributed the American association of love and marriage to a freedom based on Christian values and a lessened emphasis on an extended family system. Moving away

from ideas concerning bride-price and family contract, America, affected by its roots in Christianity, established mate selection practices which emphasized the role of the individual rather than those of the participating families. The western migration of the young American family more or less stamped this outlook into the American heritage, thus establishing what now is called mate selection for the purpose of establishing the "conjugal" family (Goode, 1963).

Bundling of Colonial America and songs from Civil War days attest to the occurrence of dating among the young unmarried American population, as do songs from the Spanish American War era and from World War I. It appears that dating has, from the first, been an American phenomenon understood by all but little talked about. According to Reiss (1965), dating, as it evolved on the college campus, was neglected as a field of study until Waller's work was published in 1937. Perhaps due to the fact that family studies is such a relatively young field of interest, this general area was neglected. The publication of Waller's (1937) findings, which alluded to college dating as a time of mutual exploitation, appeared to kindle interest both in dating and the general mate-selection process. This interest seemed to firmly establish in American thinking the fact that there is a time, or a season, in the lives of young people during which they will be expected to date one another and that the targeted end result will be mate selection.

American dating research has largely fallen into two camps; one group who see dating as a pastime during which both of the sexes take advantage of each other and another group who see dating as a natural process which moves the participants out of their families of origin toward the formation of families of their own. This latter perspective is the view espoused by McDaniel (1967) whose work is being replicated in

the current project.

Overview of the Current Project

New phenomena have permeated dating patterns and thinking of the past 20 years. Most avant-garde among related changes are increased premarital sexual activity and increased frequency of cohabitation. These resulting conditions have called into question the very purpose of dating and consequent long-term benefits derived from the dating experience. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that realism and reality have replaced part of the artificiality and romanticism within current dating relationships. It is therefore reasonable that such a change might reduce the dissatisfaction McDaniel found in dating college females.

Among the purposes of the current project is an effort to determine whether or not dating partners are currently as dissatisfied with their dating situations as were their counterparts who were dating during a time prior to general acceptance of recent societal changes.

McDaniel's work at the University of Pittsburgh was the most recent published work found in the specific area of college dating attitudes. Its emphasis was on the attitude of the college female. McDaniel's studies (1967, 1969) related to dating satisfaction prior to the societal upheaval of the late sixties and early seventies. McDaniel's work had been completed in a heavily Jewish population in the eastern part of the country. Because there was a possibility that both his population and the locale of his work might have unduly affected his findings, it was determined that the current project would be interregional in dimension. Further, since many of the current changes in dating patterns have been attributed by the popular press to a reduction in morality and religious

values in institutions of higher learning, it was thought to be appropriate to perform the current test of dating attitudes in both secular and religiously oriented universities. Thus, a plan evolved in which a major state university in the central region of the country and another major university on the west coast were chosen to interregionally represent secular universities while Christian universities representing a single religious perspective were chosen from the same states as those which provided the state university samples. They were used as the interregional representatives of religiously oriented colleges.

Method
Large general education classes were chosen to provide the respondents for each of the participating schools. Because it was posited that both males and females go through dating stages, interest was extended to dating satisfaction of male as well as female students. A questionnaire composed of specially selected and reworded questions from McDaniel (1967) was read to each class during one of its regularly scheduled meetings. Demographic information was provided to the extent that students could be divided according to sex, classification in school, age, religious activity, and socioeconomic status. Married students answered additional questions related to their own personal perception of adjustment to marriage.

A review of related literature is provided in chapter II of this work. Theory is considered in chapter III. Chapter IV explains the methodology by which the project was carried out, and the resulting findings are provided in Chapter V. A summary of the project, with implications and recommendations for future research, are found in Chapter VI. A selected reference list, the questionnaires used by both single and married students (along with sample answer sheets with demographic and marriage adjustment questions printed on the back sides),

a copy of McDaniel's (1969) article from the Journal of Marriage and the Family, and other pertinent information related to the evolvment of this current project can be found in the appendixes.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Because dating, the topic of emphasis in the current project, is only a single aspect of the love-courtship process, the determination was made to capsize the progress of research in this area--first highlighting work within the field of dating before relating it to theories of love, power, courtship, and mate selection. The literature included in this review is by no means all-inclusive. It does, however, present concept development as it pertains to dating theory and its affiliated areas.

Dating Theory

Even with the serious life-long implications involved with college dating, research consideration of this aspect of interpersonal relationships has been a slow, intermittent process. The literature indicates that the study of college dating began with Waller's work, later said by Blood (1955) to have actually been completed in the 1929-30 school year but not reported until 1937. Interest seemed to flower in the fifties and sixties, only to recede almost into oblivion in the seventies and early eighties. Research into college dating spans the time between the work of Waller (1937) and that of McDaniel (1967). Although theory development continues in the related area of mate selection (for example, Adams, 1979), it appears to rest largely on

earlier findings. Scientists appear to have moved to other fields of interest based on such newly researched phenomena as premarital sex (Collins, Kennedy, & Francis, 1976, and Knox & Wilson, 1981), self-disclosure in dating (Rubin, Hill, Peplau, & Dunkel-Schetter, 1980), and living together (Arafat & Yorborg, 1973; Macklin, 1974 & 1978; and Risman, Hill, Rubin, & Peplau, 1981). These areas of concern appear to have replaced dating per se as a research interest.

Contributions of Waller

Waller (1937) was attributed by Krain, Cannon, and Bagford (1977) to have produced the benchmark work in the area of college dating. Based on his findings at Pennsylvania State University, Waller contended that college students were attracted to one another, but economically trapped by their temporary lack of earning power. Therefore, he presented them as a type of "fakes" in the area of human relationships. Consequently, according to Waller, these young people set up a frivolous dating system whereby they could judge each other. It included such materialistic implications as prestige of Greek affiliation, dancing technique, quality of dress, and amount of spending money. Because many of Waller's (1937) findings have remained representative of college populations, his research has been alluded to by many subsequent researchers.

Contributions of Blood

Blood (1955) completed what he called an amended replication of Waller's (1937) work. Blood's (1955) work was positioned in history following World War II by a similar amount of time that Waller's (1937) work had followed World War I. Both were set in a time of national prosperity. Blood found quite a different set of values at work at the

University of Michigan, however. His young subjects valued highly their dates' proficiency in the areas of intelligence, consideration, and listening skills. Low on their list were Waller's Greek affiliations, popularity with others, abundance of money and cars, and dancing ability. His findings caused Blood to wonder if Waller's (1937) findings had ever been valid, and if so, if human interests had changed over time.

Contributions of Skipper and Nass

Skipper and Nass (1966) analyzed the dating attitudes of a slightly different population. Concerned with attitudes of nursing students in an urban environment, this research team found that young female students who were training for the nursing profession were "imprisoned," much as were Waller's subjects, not by lack of earning power so much, however, as by their own environment. They were impaired by their role of subservience within the medical community. Further, they were living in a community permeated by socioeconomic groups lower than their own, and they were located too far away from college men and home community men of their own social status for frequent dating. Society required that they marry and produce children. Yet, during the time of their own highest dating eligibility, they were positioned at a disadvantage. Thus, Skipper and Nass posited that those young women training to be nurses (about 6% of the young American female population of 1966) were motivated to date for the instrumental reason of pairing while their dating partners typically dated for recreation.

Contributions of McDaniel

McDaniel (1967, 1969), working during the same period of time as did Skipper and Nass, found quite a different situation on a college campus

than that observed in the hospital setting. Evidently since females of the mid 1960s still had a slight ratio advantage over males on the typical campus, they were situated for a more comfortable approach to dating. Like Skipper and Nass's population, they were socialized to expect marriage and a family. Yet, they had several years at their disposal and plenty of males from which to select their choice of marriage partners. McDaniel's female subjects were free to enjoy their initial dating encounters. It was only after they became involved in a relationship that they felt unhappy with the demands society was placing upon them. Thus, McDaniel posited a developmental process during courtship. The discussion will return to a more detailed exposition of McDaniel's contributions within a later portion of this study.

Shifting interests

Dating as a subject of research interest waned, and for all practical purposes ended, with McDaniel's study. The crux of the dating issue may be, "Do today's college students even practice dating as projected in early dating research?" Could it be that dating, much like bundling, was a phenomenon of a given time and place and that society and the situation no longer require it? Such would explain the apparent dwindling interest in the dating phenomenon. But the interest in cross-sex relationships continues to flourish, making apparent the thread of commonality which runs the gamut of depth of relationships. The following review of theories related to love, courtship, power, and mate selection is an attempt to find this commonality and tie dating theory into the broad context of cross-sex relationships.

Love Theory

Goode (1959) defined love as "a strong emotional attachment, a cathexis, between two persons of opposite sexes." Goode's love contained, as minimum components, sexual desire and tenderness. While it might be assumed that these attributes would be a part of any mate-selection system, Goode reported that love as a reason for marriage (as he conceptualized the phenomenon) was a rather unusual circumstance. It appeared to be limited largely to modern times and currently to little other than Northern Europe and the United States.

A universal control of love, Goode (1959) maintained, must be continued because the control of love shapes the quality of posterity. That is, this control helped the wealthy and those in higher socioeconomic groups avoid potential spouses attracted to their children for a variety of reasons which were not necessarily in the "best interest" of the family. Thus, a family's position of power and wealth was not diluted through the uncontrolled marriages of its children. Parental control was executed through a variety of means including child marriage, familial definition of eligible spouse, isolation of adolescents, close supervision of the young, and parental and peer control. Even in the Western hemisphere, certain of these control forces were said to be at work--otherwise the United States would, according to Goode (1959), become less effective in its continuance of strong family life patterns.

Goode (1959) attributed the general acceptance of a marriage-for-love system to a strong attachment to Christianity. Espousing love over asceticism, America joined forces with the Puritans of England as well as French, English, and Italian upper class families

of the 11th to the 14th century to position love in the preeminent position within the mate-selection process. Nevertheless, love's theoretical importance lies not in the love experience, but rather in control of love, so as to keep it from disrupting existing social arrangements. Goode conceded, however, that most modern nations now permit the establishment of some form of love bond prior to marriage.

Lee and Stone (1980) corroborated Goode's assessments, based on their cross-cultural evaluation of 117 societies. Their conclusion was that autonomous mate selection and romantic love were more likely to occur in societies espousing the nuclear family system than in societies where families were typically extended. It was the family that bore the brunt of a child's decision, in any event. But it was the extended family, they concluded, which had the ability through both its size and diversity to exert effective control over a potential marriage partner (Lee & Stone, 1980) and suffered the greatest damage of a "poor" mate choice since extended families occurred disproportionately in undifferentiated societies (Lee, 1977). The nuclear family, on the other hand, weakened by lesser numbers than those found in the extended family, could proffer only limited dissent when it disapproved of the mate-selection processes used by its children (Lee & Stone, 1980). This situation typically occurred in differentiated societies where "poor" selection did not endanger the family unit (Lee, 1977).

There is evidence (Knox & Sporakowski, 1968) to indicate that young people in a highly mechanized society composed largely of nuclear families can grow to appreciate the seriousness of love relationships. Determining that they would evaluate the attitudes of unmarried college students toward love, this team considered the responses of students attending Florida State University in 1967. They found females more

realistic than males, but students of both sexes becoming progressively more conjugally oriented in their love interests as they progressed through college. Their study more or less substantiated Goode's contention that romantic love or "head over heels in love" love enjoys only limited popularity among mature young people who are ready to seriously consider marriage. Rather, in avoiding the romantic description of the existing social institution of marriage, their subjects thought young people should be willing to accept some guidance as they learned to love the persons they intended to marry.

If there is a commonality in Goode's pronouncements of the late fifties and the findings of Knox and Sporkowski (1968) a decade later, it probably lies in the seriousness with which people the world around view love relationships. Whether the subjects under consideration are the Polynesian Island young at play or the college student, play is understood to be play. When the young are ready for marriage, seriousness is the order of the hour.

Power Theory

A minimum of information is presented in the literature regarding the effects of power on the dating dyad. Risman et al. (1981) found college females who were cohabiting to have less power than their male counterparts. Further, there was one recent Canadian source (Zeichner, Wright, & Herman, 1977) and one American source available (Stewart & Rubin, 1976) which dealt with power in the context of theory.

Power theory is evidently related to dating theory. That is, power appears to exist during most dating relationships, but there is some indication that situations alter a person's willingness to exert power (Risman et al. 1981). For example, a dating partner who feels free to

make many decisions early in a dating relationship may later cease making decisions, due to a loss of power. This phenomenon is thought to exhibit itself because of the fear within one dating partner of losing the good will of the other. It may be power theory, then, which provides the explanation for dating satisfaction as perceived by McDaniel (1967) in that power, or the lack of it, correlates with satisfaction.

In reporting on assertiveness behavior in Canadian college students, Zeichner et al. (1977) posited nonverbal communication skills as the key to effective dating relationships. Conversely, verbalization appeared to be the key to assertiveness and consequent effective communication in other areas.

Stewart and Rubin (1976) concerned themselves with the effects of the desire for power on the long-term stability of cross-sex relationships in the United States. They reported both males and females expressing similar desires for power. Females seemed to cope better, however, both with the desire for power and with the lack of or the possession of it. Power motivation, on the other hand, was a source of stress in intimate relationships of males. Dyads in which the male was desirous of power were likely to break up and a marriage was unlikely to occur.

Stewart and Rubin (1976) cited the socialization of the female as a possible explanation for their findings. They explained that the female is taught to resolve conflicts in order to reduce interpersonal tension. Thus, she was more adequately trained than was her male counterpart to deal with problems arising over power positions. The implications of this finding appeared to suggest the need for upgrading of training of men so that they would be able to cope with both power and subservience when situations called for either.

Courtship Theory

Research in the area of courtship is currently almost as limited as is work in the area of dating. Even though the recently reported work of Istvan and Griffitt (1980) was related to courtship, the major emphasis was on active sexuality during the courtship process. Conceivably courtship and dating occurred simultaneously, but courtship only encompassed some, or portions of some, of the dating stages.

Findings regarding courtship have not been totally consistent. When Waller (1937) published his Rating-Dating Complex, his thought was that courtship was nonexistent on the American college campus. Neither males nor females intended anything very serious to come of their relationships. Rather, they were playing at love in order to have a good time with an interesting person, thereby upgrading their own position on the campus rating-dating scale. Waller called what he saw "dalliance" (1937) and warned about the destructive aspects of the random dating system. He was concerned that such dating would lead to exploitation since there was little evidence that courtship toward marriage was even possible when the subjects were a college population who had no economic way to earn a living until they were out of school.

Herman's (1955) work at the University of Wisconsin projected quite a different finding than that reported by Waller. He found both recognition and acceptance of the going steady phenomenon in adolescent life. Although 61 percent of his sample were freshmen at the university, 77 percent of them had previously gone steady with at least one person. This left only 23 percent who had not gone with someone on a steady basis prior to college enrollment. Herman did recognize a difference, however, between the steady dating of college-bound and terminal students at the

high school level. For the student who was moving into the world of work following high school, steady dating was an actual form of courtship. For the student intending to enter college, dating followed a type of dalliance pattern similar to that found by Waller. Because of the dominance of the going-steady phenomenon in the youth subculture, Herman presented a need for serious professional consideration of it.

Eslinger, Clarke, and Dynes (1972), became concerned with whether Waller's principle of least interest was still in effect on the Ohio State University campus in the late 1960s. Also of consideration was whether or not the status of the family of orientation affected a person's interest in continuing a relationship. These researchers found that males were less interested than females in ongoing interactions. Further, males from entrepreneurial families were less interested than were males from families who earned a living from bureaucratic endeavors. Eslinger et al. (1972) concluded that the male from an entrepreneurial setting was in a better bargaining position, therefore capable of dominating and exploiting a female.

Chilman's (1966) concerns centered on the types of courtships carried on by both students who married early and those who married later. Females who married earlier appeared to mature slightly earlier and to be freer in their premarital sex relations. Their early marriages appeared to be sound, however. There seemed to be no observable differences in males who married at the two periods in their lives. Marriage generally occurred when a couple had an "unbearably" strong attraction for each other and when adequate financial resources were available. Chilman's findings suggest change over time in the dating relationships of college students in that, while Waller's (1937) subjects did not marry, Chilman's subjects married when they felt compelled to do

so and could afford it. Parents frequently financially supported a college marriage of the 1960s.

Istvan and Griffitt (1980) concerned themselves with the desirability for marriage that a person saw existing in his/her dating partner. This consideration was specifically related to prior sexual experience. Istvan and Griffitt found that inexperienced men and both inexperienced and moderately experienced women rated their less experienced opposite-sex peers as more desirable dates and marriage partners. Highly experienced persons of both sexes tended to rate all persons somewhat alike. Istvan and Griffitt (1980) found males preferring to date women with experience but to marry the sexually inexperienced. Agreeing with Waller (1937), they concluded that much dating was not for courtship, but rather for entertainment. When a person was ready for serious courtship, a different set of considerations came into the dating picture.

Donnelly (1963) sought a theory of courtship. Based on her review of existing research, she saw the female changing over time as she proceeded through the courtship process. Very little had been done, however, to clarify these changes in either of the sexes. Donnelly reported finding no theory available in the area of courtship. Therefore, she identified what was seen as a serious deficiency in the field of social science, presented a group of propositions, and suggested that further research be completed for the express purpose of closing the gap between theory and empirical data.

Mate Selection Theories

Mate selection is very much akin to dating in that it most likely

occurs during one of the dating stages. Although a person may date for years without seriously considering marriage, when mate selection does occur, it consistently happens in the context of dating. Thus, some of the dating theories may explain mate selection or vice versa.

Much as a number of people have contributed to each of the theories in the field of human relationships, mate selection theory has had numerous contributors. It has consequently changed with additions over time. Among the most notable mate selection theories are such "characteristic-oriented" theories as the complementary needs theory of Robert Winch (1958) and "process oriented theory" of Charles Bolton (1961). Each will be briefly discussed below along with the work of Adams (1979) who made an effort to combine and integrate existing theories and restate viable propositions regarding mate selection within the context of process theory (Bolton, 1961).

Needs Theory

Complementary needs theory (Winch, Ktsanes, & Ktsanes, 1955, 1955) suggests that people are attracted to each other because of the characteristics each possesses. According to Winch (1958), individuals with strong qualities that compensate for the weaknesses in the other partner and with weaknesses that are compensated by the strengths of the other partner perceive attraction to the person who thus renders them more "complete" or "whole." A constellation of complementary strengths and weaknesses ("needs") was seen as the basis for mate choice in a small sample of couples (Winch et al. 1955). For a number of years, this theory held wide respect within the research community and was one of the common explanations for attraction within the context of dating, courtship, and mate selection. It has been espoused in various texts,

particularly the one written by Winch (1958) and, to a degree, this concept flavors McDaniel's (1967) dating research project. However, almost from the first, needs theory was simultaneously questioned.

Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) suggested that there was more to the selection process than simple complementary needs. They proffered the idea that a type of filtering process was at work in the mate selection process long before needs theory came into play. First a dating relationship was filtered through the check points of race, education, religion and other endogamous traits. Passing the filtering test, so to speak, a couple moved toward consensus on values, which was the second step toward mating of the dating couple. If consensus prevailed, Winch's needs complementarity was the final check point in the marriage process.

Murstein (1967) discredited Winch's complementary needs theory in total along with other such characteristic-oriented theories as homogamy. His contention was that the two theories suggest agreement while arguing for two opposite behaviors. Murstein suggested the role theory of symbolic interaction as the best explanation for the mating phenomenon. Murstein's thinking is corroborated in the more recent contributions of Burr, Leigh, Day, and Constantine (1979).

Process Theory

The work of Bolton (1961) is particularly pertinent to the current research program in that it projected mate selection as an ongoing process of a dating relationship rather than the results of prior characteristics possessed by the two separate individuals. Bolton (1961) saw dating as a continuing process of social interaction operating within varying modes as determinants of the course of a developing relationship. Thus, Bolton looked at mate selection from the perspective of symbolic

interaction. His social interaction operated in three ways to determine the course of a relationship:

- a. episodes of interaction determined how one episode conditioned the character of subsequent ones.
- b. forms of interaction suggested the form, whether perhaps didactic, therapeutic, coaching, or supportive process, with which a couple learned to be comfortable.
- c. turning points related to transformations dating partners perceived within themselves and within their relationships with others. A turning point was a shift within self from one perspective to another.

Dating, according to Bolton, did not, within itself, determine consequent marriage. Rather, it was thought to set up situations for interaction through which turning points solidified a relationship. From solidified commitment came marriage.

According to Bolton's evaluation of 20 young married couples, the dating phenomenon was projected as a series of episodes, each conditioning the character of subsequent ones. Through such a series of interactions, members of a typical couple began to feel some form of attachment to each other. During this process, general shifting and mutualization of attitudes and communications propelled the relationship forward. Bolton called these propellants "escalators." Typical escalators included those in areas of involvement, commitment, objectification, addiction, fantasy, and idealization.

Bolton suggested that in the presence of escalation, a transformation which he termed a "turning point" occurred. The change brought about a reformulation, a true shift from an old perspective to a new one. Thus, a couple conceivably dating for months might be propelled by a specific turning point, such as an amorous encounter or graduation, and find themselves suddenly thrust from one life phase to another.

Whatever the cause of the change, there was no turning back.

Bolton saw all couples going through developmental processes which differed according to the personality mix within the specific relationship. He classified the developmental processes into five types, suggesting multiple, rather than a single explanation for mate selection. Bolton's process theory, because of its roots in symbolic interaction, is particularly pertinent to the current dating research in that it contained most of the earlier dating and courtship theories within the broad rubric of developmental interactionism.

Adams' Recent Contributions

Burr, Leigh, Day, and Constandine (1979) suggested the greatest need in premarital research to be the acceptance of interactionism as the framework of reference. Their review of the literature preceding this suggestion showed the work of Adams (1979) most nearly fitting within symbolic interaction. Adams (1979) presented 19 propositions concerning the mate selection process. Except for variables relating to barriers and attractions, Burr, Leigh, Day and Constandine (1979) suggested that the variables which Adams presented fell within the symbolic interaction perspective. Among the key concepts that Adams espoused regarding the success of the mate selections process were propinquity, disclosure, personality similarity, reactions of significant others, homogeneity, couple rapport, role compatibility, empathy, individual definition of "right," pair communality, and escalation.

Summary

Does the paucity of recent research literature in the area of college dating indicate an end to dating as known on college campuses

during the past 50 years? This is entirely possible. The work of King et al. (1978), Risman et al. (1981), and Robinson and Jedlika (1982) suggests that rather than a continued interest in dating, disproportionate interest has developed in such phenomena as cohabitation and abortion. Very likely, research moved forward to these currently emphasized areas before sound theory was developed which would bind dating theory tightly to the symbolic interaction perspective. In this case, it will be necessary for future researchers to relate to earlier dating work and then proceed, so that empirical evaluation can continue in the area of dating theory development.

What can be said for and against the various theories presented in the area of dating and mate selection? Waller's (1937) first offering of a rating-dating complex stands intact. It was enlarged by Blood (1955) to encompass changing attitudes toward traits acceptable within the dating partner. McDaniel's (1969) stages of courtship offer a valid addition to a developing theory in that he made it evident that young women act and feel differently as they move through a series of dating stages from a field of freedom to a receptive acceptance of marriage. It is the task of the present study to further examine McDaniel's contribution in the light of normative changes in society and to ascertain if his findings relate to males as well as to females.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENT OF A DATING THEORY

The work of Waller (1937), based on dating habits of college students during the 1929-1930 school year, was an effort to present a theory of college dating. Most dating research of the 30-year period following Waller's work was toward acceptance, enlargement, or refutation of Waller's theory.

The work of McDaniel (1967, 1969) was relatively unique at the time in that it went beyond empirical data collection and evaluation to theory construction. Following the recent call by Burr, Leigh, Day, and Constandine (1979) for the development of family theories within symbolic interaction it was determined that the current research project would evaluate the theory developed by McDaniel (1967, 1969) and make an effort to couch findings in the terminology of symbolic interaction. McDaniel's theory and a rationale for an integration of this theory within symbolic interactionism is covered in this part of the dissertation.

McDaniel's Stages of Dating

The uniqueness of McDaniel's dating theory is that dating is explained as a series of stages through which college students move from the single state toward marriage. It was thought that a replication of McDaniel's work, separated from his efforts by approximately 15 years of social change, might provide a valuable understanding of the pairing process.

Prior to McDaniel's (1967, 1969) work, three major studies had delved into the dating phenomenon and offered different explanations for its existence. McDaniel decided that there must be an element of the total dating phenomenon within each explanation. As a result of studying the contributions of each work, he identified one dating stage which would more or less represent each explanation. The random dating stage of his study represented the non-maritally oriented dating he attributed to Waller (1937) and Gorer (1948). McDaniel's second stage, that of going steady, he equated with the assertive-receptive dating for mate selection purposes ascribed to Burgess and Locke (1953). His third category, receptive dating for the purpose of anticipatory socialization toward the role of mate, he attributed to Lowrie (1951, 1961). Thus, his three dating stages were established.

Essentially, McDaniel was interested in role change over the dating period. His argument was that since leading researchers in the area of dating had looked only at specific time frames within the ongoing dating procedure, each had qualified only a segment of a relationship while generalizing to the whole. He saw partial dating theories contributed by each of the following three schools (McDaniel, 1967).

1. The assertive school: Waller and Gorer. Here daters are characterized in assertive terms....Dating is seen as primarily non-maritally oriented.
2. The assertive-receptive school: Burgess and Locke
Here the daters are characterized in both assertive and receptive terms. However, dating is seen as primarily maritally oriented.
3. The receptive school: Lowrie. Here the daters are characterized in receptive terms....Dating is seen as primarily maritally oriented (p. 4).

McDaniel's Purposes

McDaniel summarized his concerns by maintaining that the purposes of dating as seen by each previous research group were essentially myopic, defining dating behavior in terms of particular interests. Each theory, according to McDaniel, projected only one reason for dating. While the Waller-Gorer and Burgess-Locke purposes were primarily socio-psychological, he saw Lowrie attempting to resolve the differences existing between the earlier two schools. Because the theories could coexist, McDaniel suggested that his work would combine them into a broader theory of dating-courtship.

With his stated purpose being that of theory development, McDaniel produced a questionnaire which was eventually completed by slightly over 600 students attending the University of Pittsburgh in 1965-66. Participants included approximately 400 single female students, 50 married female students, and 180 male students. The single female students were projected to be going through autonomous, autonomous-receptive, and receptive phases of their dating experiences. The married female students, McDaniel thought, would represent a completed form of the female dating role while male subjects would offer male perceptions of how females should act while dating.

McDaniel's Findings

Through his work in the area of college dating roles, McDaniel found female undergraduate students at the University of Pittsburgh dating for four reasons: (1) recreation, (2) mate selection, (3) anticipatory socialization, and (4) adult role clarification. Using the first three of the four specified reasons, he searched for changes in the unmarried

female as the degree of her male-female relationship deepened.

McDaniel reported a progression of female feelings and attitudes as dating partners moved through the courtship process. Girls were quite autonomous and independent early in a relationship but progressively receptive based on the depth of a relationship. With increased commitment to her dating partner, a young woman became generally less satisfied with her dating relationship. This, McDaniel reasoned, was due to her loss of assertiveness, since females who early in relationships had been assertive became receptive when they were pinned/engaged. Female attitudes moved from assertiveness to assertiveness-receptivity and finally to receptivity during lasting relationships. Young women who did not move from an assertive role to one of receptivity did not progress to the serious stages of mating. Either their relationship regressed, or a new, less intimate one began.

McDaniel suggested that, through practice in dating, young women learned how to be assertive in gaining favor with men they would like to date and how to shift to a receptive state with proper timing so as not to hamper the possible development of a long-range relationship. Unmarried males in the McDaniel study generally did not approve of female assertiveness.

McDaniel considered the results of his findings as constituting evidence of socialization throughout the courtship process. He saw the implication here to be the moving of the female out of an original family into a family of her own. Through this process he saw the female learning that the attainment of a mate depended on the extent to which her dating behavior became discretely assertive while apparently receptive.

Existing in 1965-66, according to McDaniel, was a definite power

differential between the sex roles. Since the female was cast in the lower role, she was not allowed by either her dating partner or society to remain assertive as she had been taught to be in childhood. If she persisted in being assertive, she simply could not achieve the social status provided her at best only vicariously through marriage to a suitable mate. Thus, according to McDaniel, since she had the most to gain or lose, the female was the partner who was forced to accept the passive, or receptive, role. Actually, the most successful female was the best deceiver. This necessity to be deceptive is McDaniel's explanation for the dating dissatisfaction of a sizeable number of his female subjects, particularly at the engagement stage of a relationship.

McDaniel was not fully persuaded that he had developed a dating-courtship theory which would stand the test of time. His concerns were related to the fact that his was only a single test of a theory at a particular place and within a given time frame. Further, he was not entirely pleased with the sophistication of his methods. Limitations of subjects to a single college population, the information gathering technique used, and the combined impediments of ordinal statistics and percentage evaluations caused him to wonder as to the generalizability of his findings. Consequently, he concluded that further testing of his dating-courtship theory was essential.

McDaniel's Hypotheses

McDaniel (1967) reported substantiation of each of his hypotheses.

They follow in his own terminology:

1. It is expected that dating stages are progressive, i.e., that girls randomly date before they go steady, and randomly date and go steady before they become pinned/engaged.

2. It is expected that girls are assertive in the first stage of courtship, assertive-receptive in the second stage, and receptive in the last stage.
3. It is expected that girls date for the purpose of recreation in the early stage, mate selection in the second stage, and anticipatory socialization in the last stage.
4. Females who date for the purpose of recreation are very likely to be assertive.
5. Females who date primarily for the purpose of mate selection are very likely to be assertive-receptive.
6. Females who date primarily for the purpose of anticipatory socialization are very likely to be receptive (pp. 75-76).

Current Research Interests

Little information is found in recent literature which reflects an interest in McDaniel's findings. Although the work was mentioned in a research review completed at the end of the decade (Moss, Apolonio, & Jensen, 1971), it was not referenced to any pronounced degree in the following 10 years. While lack of interest in dating roles may have been due to low federal funding during the early 1970s, the proliferation of articles related to cohabitation and premarital sex in general indicates rather more of an interest in the effects of permissiveness and the pill per se on the college population. The works of Rosen and Aneshensel (1976) and Knox and Wilson (1981) attest, however, to an ongoing interest in sex roles and the dating roles of the young unmarried population.

Symbolic Interaction

In the development of cumulative theory in the social sciences (Freese, 1980), it is often productive to relate specific content theories to one of several established conceptual frameworks. After

careful evaluation of the various plausible frameworks, symbolic interaction emerged as the most logical perspective from which to view dating and the roles of dating partners.

Symbolic interaction is a conceptual framework dealing largely with human communication. Although many contributed to theoretical thought in this area, George Herbert Mead's lectures at the University of Chicago provided the key concepts on which the meanings, signs, and communication of symbolic interaction are based. Symbolic interaction emphasizes the need of humans to be creative and to actively seek alteration of the environmental conditions in which they live (Gross & Stone, 1964). The thrust of interaction theory is against instinctual behaviors and toward response which is the result of a stimulus. The human response is mediated through a person's social attitudes, values and perception of the world. Behavior occurs largely as a result of a given person's expectations of the reactions of others within the near environment.

Basic Assumptions of Symbolic Interaction

Like other conceptual frameworks, symbolic interaction contains several basic assumptions which make it unique. Included are the following concepts which are presented in summarized form here and found in the work of Clayton (1975).

- a. Human beings possess a symbolic language system which allows them to modify their own environments, to preserve the past, and, to some degree, envision the future.
- b. The child, born an asocial being, is humanized through internalization of the symbolic language system of the prevailing culture.
- c. Each person's self develops through a series of specific stages. The "I" is the self known by self and the "me" is the self each person comes to accept as the self thought to be seen by others.

- d. With a dual conception of self and the mastery of a language system, a person can see and categorize behaviors and subsequently define a situation. Thus, each human learns to operate in and comprehend the dynamics of relationships that vary but are similar to situations already experienced.
- e. The "social act" is the basic unit of interactionism. Through the social act, a person defines a situation, acknowledges alternative reactions to it, and is able to predict how another person will view each of his/her potential reactions. This results in each individual's becoming proficient at seeing self as both subject and object.
- f. Mankind is born and lives in groups. Such small groups as family and friendship units within the culture are those typically studied by interactionists (pp. 26-30).

The Social Self in Evolving Roles

The social self projected by the interactionist perspective is influenced by the "significant others" in each person's life. Parents, siblings, and other influential persons are those cast in positions of importance. Each person internalizes the attitudes of those closest to him/her. Thus, the social self develops through a selective process. Humans are not rubber stamps of their environments. Rather, each person evaluates the self in the mirror of those persons significant enough to be acceptable as attitudinal models.

As the social self is formed, so, too, are roles that a person plays in the game of life. According to interaction theory, each person is at first able only to role-take with one other person. Later on, small groups are incorporated into the cast of characters within each person's repertoire of role mates. For example, a boy of three years may have only one other child he recognizes as a playmate. Eventually, he can become a member of a class or a team, playing several roles within a larger group. Finally, the adult is capable of role-taking with the "generalized other" which may be equated with the community. The

relationship becomes one of interdependence.

Dramaturgy's Explanation of the Dating Role

Dramaturgy is a derivation of symbolic interaction first presented by Goffman (1959). Goffman saw persons who are entering a relationship as assimilating a set of "masks" with which to perform the various roles necessary for participation in the human drama. Thus, the "team" concept developed. Since dating is considered as a type of role played with "scripts", it is projected here that dramaturgy is a logical explanation of dating as practiced on the college campus.

Several concepts permeate and help explain dramaturgy as related to the dating dyad. The relationship is seen over time as a mixture of exchanges. Included are one-on-one exchanges in private ("backstage behavior"), one-on-one exchanges of which an audience is aware, and staged performances provided by the dating pair for an audience ("frontstage behavior"). Any relationship is seen, for the most part, as but an act staged by individuals interacting with each other, whether alone, in the presence of those they know, or in the presence of a general audience. Thus, there is a front and back region within every dating relationship with masks worn in the front area when a dating couple is on display to others and still different masks donned in privacy.

Each actor within a dyad has a number of selves that can come forth for a presentation when such is deemed appropriate. A dominant identity exists in each actor, however, due to the ability of each person to take the role of a generalized other that transcends any specific social situation and constitutes the predictable part of the person that appears before an audience assembles or after the performance is over and the

viewers leave. It is this dominant identity which offers permanence and relevance to a relationship.

Thus, according to Goffman (1959), it is through the practice of dramaturgy that a dating relationship evolves. A team accepts roles and masks through which a "presentation of self" is made every time they enter one another's physical presence. It is the believability of these roles by the dating dyad themselves, as well as by their viewers, that offers sustenance to the interaction of real social relationships.

The Purposes of the Project

Dating theory has for some time been considered as a likely subject for view from the symbolic interaction perspective. There have been some difficulties, however, with placing it within this framework.

Difficulties have been more related to terminology than to content which can be viewed easily as symbolic interactionism. For example, work reported by Waller (1937) and Bolton (1961) actually falls within interactionism according to Burr, Hill, Nye, and Reiss (1979b). The difficulties of identification are only with language, not with theoretical concepts. Further, the work of Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) and that of Murstein (1970) were suggested as trend setting within symbolic interaction in that through them mate selection came to be seen as an evolving, developmental process, rather than as a one time choice.

One of the purposes of this current research project, therefore, became the testing of dating theory which could be expressed in interactionist nomenclature. The second purpose was the testing of dating attitudes over time and the extension of McDaniel's ideas to other performers.

The Replication in Historical Perspective

There have been marked societal changes in the 16-year period since McDaniel's data were gathered at the University of Pittsburgh. It was thought that a replication of his findings under changing social conditions would lend support to McDaniel's theory while changes would show evidence of societal effects on dating attitudes.

The whole gamut of implications surrounding women's liberation, permissiveness, and the use of modern contraceptives has colored human relationships during the years between McDaniel's work and the present (Heer et al., 1981). Perhaps it is the social changes accompanying these phenomena, just as much as the dating role itself, which require consideration if dating satisfaction is to be understood.

Historically, a woman was the property of her husband in that she could not hold title to her own personal property (Kephart, 1981). Although this situation gradually changed, it was not until during the lifetime of most of today's college students that prohibition of discrimination in employment based on gender became law. Equal consideration of women and men entering the fields of medicine, law, and engineering is also a recent phenomenon. Kephart (1981) found that 81 percent of female college students were planning to combine marriage and a career. It is apparent that today's female students see themselves in the process of preparation for dual roles that, like those of men, include both family and profession.

McDaniel's work occurred several years after Betty Friedan's The Feminine Mystique (1963) opened the gates for what soon became the Women's Liberation Movement. Further, America was at least a decade into wholesale dissemination of effective means of birth control. Perhaps

this was too early, however, for liberation and sex-for-everybody to have permeated the thinking and activity on the college campus. The crux of the consideration is, "have they done so yet?" Have young women changed? Are they totally assertive today, regardless of their cross-sex relationships? Are females sexually active prior to marriage, regardless of their backgrounds and religiosity? Or do today's young women reach adulthood in a totally assertive mind set, brought about by women's liberation, only to move toward receptivity when they are ready to settle into marriage? Is McDaniel's receptivity a conditioning caused by a society of the sixties interested in producing strong, lasting marriages? Or is receptivity a natural trait of all humans (males and "liberated" females as well as females of the early 60s) who reach the mate-selecting point in their lives?

We take the position that women currently are indeed less prone to play dating games; that females expect to be treated on their own terms, rather than adopting roles prescribed for them by society or their peers. We do not take issue with a dramaturgical perspective which would correlate artificial presentation of self and the wearing of masks with dissatisfaction, but would assert that females today, much like their male counterparts, are not characterized by the same degree of artificiality as was expressed in the 1960s. It was within the boundaries of change within the total social framework that the current replication was planned and undertaken.

Justification for Extensions

A determination was made to go deeper into a study of satisfaction within dating relationships through extensions intended to evaluate the satisfaction of males within their dating roles and the satisfaction of

of dating partners of both sexes following marriage. While a replication of quality research is justifiable, it was thought that such a project could provide an important contribution, if further findings could be made through such extensions

A primary extension of this project was the consideration of male dating roles. McDaniel sampled males only as a means of considering how males felt about female actions in the dating-courtship process. He found that males thought females should be more and more receptive as they progressed into cross-sex commitment. Males were very pleased when females progressed through predictable stages toward marriage, while females became less satisfied in their roles of receptivity. But humans appear to have many attitudes in common. That is, each, whether male or female, desires the fulfillment of needs within the security of love and acceptance. Because of the commonality of desires within all humans, it was thought to be altogether possible that males go through a socializing process, much as do females, as a sort of preparation for marriage. The question posed was, "could it be that males are socialized much as females apparently are, changing personality emphases for a time, only to revert back after marriage to stereotypical assertiveness?"

The Linking of Research and Symbolic Interaction

McDaniel found changes developing in his female subjects as they progressed through dating stages from fun to mate selection. Simultaneously, their orientation moved forward from peers to family to couple. Also, as the dating stage moved forward toward marriage, so did commitment and receptivity. It was the stage within which a college woman found herself which determined her purpose, orientation,

and receptivity, and eventually, her satisfaction with her total dating situation.

Perhaps symbolic interaction can help explain the dating stages of college women. That is, according to interactionism, each adult female has an "I" part of self which is the impulsive tendency of the individual. It is the initial, spontaneous, unorganized aspect of human experience (Meltzer, 1978). Such a female also has a "me" part of self which might be described as the part of self which represents the "incorporated other" within the individual. Thus, the "me" comprises the generalized other and, often, some particular other. These aspects of the "I" and the "me" of interaction go with a young woman into a cross-sex relationship, the "I" propelling her and the "me" giving direction to her actions. The "I" and the "me" of interaction theory are in very close collaboration. While the "I" provides spontaneity, the "me" disposes the individual to both goal-directed activity and conformity. Thus a basis is provided for understanding the mutuality of the relationship between the individual and society (Meltzer, 1978).

The "me" of interactionism is incorporated by Cooley (1978) into what he calls the "looking-glass self." Cooley suggests that in imagination, humans perceive themselves as they see themselves perceived by others. This imagination can include how one person perceives others perceiving him/her, self-judgment of that perception, and a resulting self-feeling. It is this "looking glass self" of interaction to which receptivity in dating may be attributed.

The Dramaturgical Explanation of Dating Stages

Goffman's (1959, 1973) dramaturgy further enhances symbolic interaction's explanation of the dating process. A dating couple becomes what is called a "team" (Goffman, 1978). As soon as they know each other well enough, each participant within a dyad assumes a role within the team. Leader-follower roles are common as are masculine-feminine ones. These, or other roles, are tried until a couple becomes comfortable. If a role fit cannot be identified, a relationship may end at the random-dating stage.

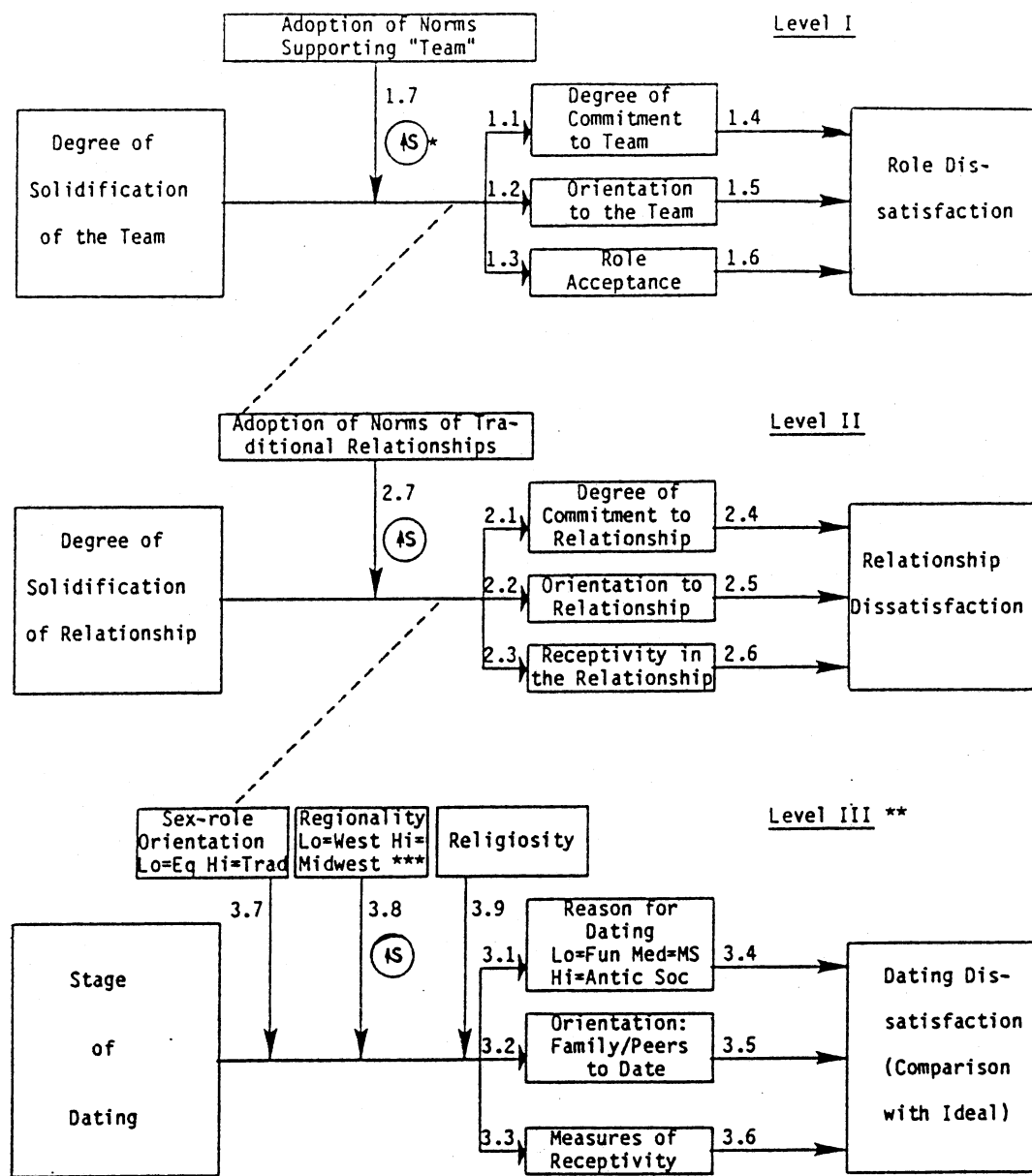
In a sound matching, the salience of the relationship moves backstage. Perfunctory activities may be performed for family and friends, but the real meaning of the relationship, the purpose for the dating to continue, moves to the backstage region and becomes almost a conspiracy of the dating team. Activities determined to be expedient by a dating couple may be colored by contingencies, however. That is, a person's attitudes (whether conservative or liberal), values seen to be worthy in a mate, and sex-role orientation may affect the selection of activities determined to be appropriate for given situations.

Discrepancies may occur within any of the dating stages. One of the key discrepant roles is that of receptivity. An example of this discrepancy might occur if a particular female, possessing very assertive sex-role orientation, were to find herself attending a conservative college. This conservatism might be explained by the school's areas of emphases, geographical location, or other phenomena. In such a setting, the young woman might dare not allow her assertiveness to become apparent to her dating partner. She would therefore hide herself behind a screen of apparent receptivity, because of her inner disagreement with her own

environment. It would not be until after she was married that she would feel confident enough in her new relationship that she could let her "generalized other" regain its natural place in her life. This dramaturgical (Goffman, 1978) explanation of Cooley's (1978) "looking-glass self" suggests an explanation for McDaniel's finding that a high percentage of engaged college females were extremely dissatisfied in the final stage of dating while married females experienced increased satisfaction.

While McDaniel (1967) found the female satisfaction quotient increasing following marriage, it may also be only after marriage that the female finds the Machiavellian strong man she married possessing a heart of tenderest propensity, or vice versa. It is role playing within the engagement period which concerns counselors. They find much of the unhappiness following marriage to be correlated with role changes which occur unexplainably directly following marriage (Freeman, 1982). The marrying person who says he/she is making an "honest person" of a potential mate may be making a totally consistent statement. Such a statement may have very little to do with the sexual connotations associated with it. Rather, it may be only after marriage that McDaniel's dating partners could dismantle the fakery of dating and become totally honest in their dealings with one another.

Even with role playing, in most long-term dating situations, the dating process evolves and changes through couple consent. In a satisfying relationship, the dating person develops a transformed set of dating purposes, orientation moves from the generalized other to the significant other, and dating persons become receptive to one another (Figure 1).



* As variation in the contingency variable increases (small arrow), the relationship it mediates is strengthened (letter "S").

** Level III is discussed in Chapter IV.

*** Regionality has been conceptualized as an ordinal variable.

Figure 1: Dating Theory within the Dramaturgy of Symbolic Interaction

Propositions

By relating McDaniel's work to the dramaturgy of symbolic interaction, a number of expected associations were predicted. They include the hypotheses considered by McDaniel which are restated here as general propositions. Also included are new propositions stated in the terminology of symbolic interaction (see Figure 1). While McDaniel's propositions deal largely with the female stages of dating, the new propositions pertain to dating roles of both sexes and the attitudes of college students both prior to and following marriage.

Propositions Considered in McDaniel's Work

McDaniel's work dealt specifically with statements of truth which might be described as deductive hypotheses. They were divided into 6 hypotheses presented earlier in this chapter, but which can be subsumed under the following propositions.

1. Receptivity on the part of a college female increases commensurate with her dating stage from random dating, to going steady, to pinned/engaged.
2. A college female's reason for dating (recreation, mate selection, or anticipatory socialization) correlates positively with her dating stage.

New Propositions

Based on the dramaturgy of symbolic interaction, a number of abstract propositions evolved. The theory upon which these propositions are based is provided in chart form in Figure 1 which illustrates the levels of abstraction from level I, the most abstract, to level III, the most concrete and the level tested in this study. Level III of the theory is presented and discussed in Chapter IV, which is the methodology

section of this presentation. The theory construction conventions employed in the discussion are taken from Burr (1973) and Burr et al. (1979a). Fairly widely accepted among family social scientists, this methodology employs propositions (statements of the interrelationship of abstract variables), hypotheses (statements of the interrelationship of variables at the testable level), contingency relationships (scope conditions affecting the strength of given propositions and hypotheses), deductions and inductions between the various levels of abstractions, and heuristic diagrams of boxed variables and arrows indicating directions of covariation (see Burr, 1973; Burr et al., 1979a, 1979b for examples).

First Level Propositions. Solidification of a team concept is seen as the Level I independent variable with critical influence on the dependent variables. The degree of commitment a person gives to the team relationship is seen as a variable which is dependent upon the solidification of the team concept: i.e., the greater the solidification, the greater the commitment (proposition 1.1). Similarly, the orientation of an individual to the team is also dependent on the solidification of the team (proposition 1.2) as is the acceptance team members have of the roles imposed on them by the constraints of the team (proposition 1.3). In other words, as the team develops as an entity, it brings with it certain demands for commitment and orientation and imposes certain role expectations. Because these three conditions imply (in symbolic interactionist terminology) greater allegiance to a specific significant other at the probable expense of the cumulative generalized other or (in Goffman's terminology) a greater situationally specific presentation of self and use of masks, degree of commitment (propositions

1.4), orientation to team as opposed to generalized other (proposition 1.5), and acceptance of the team's role definitions (proposition 1.6) are expected to be positively related to role dissatisfaction.

Contingency variables (presented as the adoption of norms supporting the team) are viewed in relation to whether they strengthen or weaken the effect of team solidification on the intervening variables of commitment, orientation, and role acceptance. As norms supporting the team are adopted, the relationship specified in propositions 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3 are strengthened (and vice versa)(proposition 1.7).

McDaniel's study assumed traditional sex roles and values. Because of indicated shifts associated with women's liberation and general societal upheaval in recent years, these aspects of relationships are considered in this study as contingent variables which may influence general satisfaction either positively or negatively. First level propositions could be summarized as follows:

Proposition 1.1 Solidification of the team correlates positively with team commitment.

Proposition 1.2 Solidification of the team correlates positively with orientation to the team.

Proposition 1.3 Solidification of the team positively affects role acceptance.

Proposition 1.4 Degree of commitment to team is positively correlated with role dissatisfaction.

Proposition 1.5 Orientation to team is positively correlated with role dissatisfaction.

Proposition 1.6 Role acceptance is positively correlated with role dissatisfaction.

Proposition 1.7 As the adoption of norms supporting the team concept increases, the relationship between team solidification and role dissatisfaction is strengthened (and vice versa).

Relating Abstract Concepts to Second Level Concepts. At the previous level of abstraction, the concern was with the consequences of team solidification. The second level of abstraction focuses on the more specific case of solidification of an interpersonal relationship. Relationship solidification is considered less abstract (more concrete), in that the concept is more specific; i.e., relationship solidification is subsumed under the more general team solidification.

Similarly, degree of commitment to team and orientation to team deduce at the second level of abstraction to degree of commitment to the relationship and are positive consequences of the solidification of the identity as a relationship (proposition 2.1 and 2.2). The deduction to role acceptance is less obvious. At level I, acceptance of the roles normatively valued and expected by the team was thought to be a function of the team's solidification (Proposition 1.3). At level II, acceptance is deduced to receptivity, which implies not only acceptance of the norms of the team, but submissiveness, even deference, to the other partner as well. This appears to be consistent with McDaniel's hypotheses (1967) and the thinking from which they were formulated. Thus proposition 2.3 suggests an association between relationship solidification and the degree of one partner's receptivity to the wishes, desires, and opinions of the other partner.

Relationship dissatisfaction at the second level of abstraction is deduced from role dissatisfaction and is hypothesized to be a function of commitment to the relationship (proposition 2.4), orientation to the relationship (Proposition 2.5), and receptivity to the partner in the relationship (proposition 2.6) because of the implied artificiality and game playing. Finally, the adoption of norms supporting traditional relationships as expressed in McDaniel's (1967) hypotheses (i.e.,

conservative norms) are deduced from adoption of norms supporting a team (level I). Adoption of these norms acts as a contingency variable with increasing adoption strengthening relationships 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3. Level II propositions include the following:

Proposition 2.1 Solidification of a relationship identity correlates positively with commitment to the relationship.

Proposition 2.2 Solidification of a relationship identity correlates positively with orientation to the relationship.

Proposition 2.3 Solidification of a relationship identity correlates positively with receptivity.

Proposition 2.4 Degree of commitment to a relationship is positively correlated with dating dissatisfaction.

Proposition 2.5 Orientation to a relationship is positively correlated with dating dissatisfaction.

Proposition 2.6 Receptivity is positively correlated with dating dissatisfaction.

Proposition 2.7 As the adoption of norms supporting traditional relationships increases, the correlation between relationship identity and dating dissatisfaction is strengthened (and vice versa).

Summary

McDaniel (1967) developed a dating role theory which suggests that the manifestation of assertiveness/receptivity appears to change over the period of a female's courtship. The masks of Goffman's dramaturgy within the conceptual framework of symbolic interaction are seen as one possible explanation of McDaniel's findings.

The purpose of the current project was to use McDaniel's instrument as the vehicle with which to connect dating research findings to dramaturgy within symbolic interaction. A replication of the McDaniel project with extensions in the areas of male and female role change

during courtship was planned. The methodology used in carrying out the project is explained in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

The currently reported project considers trends in dating satisfaction as college students move through the stages of dating into marriage. McDaniel's work based on research completed at the University of Pittsburgh (McDaniel, 1967) is a consideration of information obtained through students' completion of a dating questionnaire. For this current "conceptual replication," college students were also used as subjects, but it was necessary to change wording in the questionnaire, due to language and societal changes over the 16 years separating the two projects. The methodologies contained in the original and current works are summarized here and justification for the changes are specified.

McDaniel's Original Methods

McDaniel is a researcher who continues to publish in the field of social science. He earned his bachelor's degree at Fayetteville State Teachers College in 1960, obtained his Master's Degree at North Carolina College in 1963, and completed the dissertation, of which this current study is a replication, while earning a doctorate at the University of Pittsburgh in 1967. Among the persons acknowledged for their contributions to the success of his dating research project were the faculty and students in the Department of Sociology at the University of Pittsburgh, in that they helped with his gaining of permission for

student participation in the study and in the distribution and collection of questionnaires in residence halls and married student housing at the university where the work was done.

A questionnaire based largely on complementary needs theory (Winch, Ktsanes, & Ktsanes, 1954) was developed and pretested on students in other nearby colleges prior to the time when it was used to gather information for McDaniel's study at the University of Pittsburgh (1967). Since some 4,000 unmarried females of dating-courtship age were living in residence halls and attending the university where McDaniel was studying, they were chosen for his population. Each female student was given a number and the tenth was selected in each case. All were contacted through the campus system, and those declining were replaced by an alternate who was viewed as the second choice in each list of 10 names. The intention was to acquire approximately 400 unmarried female subjects. Married females (approximately 40) and single males (approximately 150) were handled similarly, except for ratios based on total university population in each category.

The Original Questionnaire

McDaniel's original questionnaire was composed of 163 questions. The questionnaire was developed in the form of a booklet and distributed among 1000 students who had previously agreed to complete and deposit it in one of several conveniently located drop boxes. Student answers were retrieved from the repositories by research assistants associated with the Department of Sociology at the University of Pittsburgh. Single and married women and single men completed the same questionnaire, since McDaniel was interested in each group's attitudes toward the female dating role. Nine of the questions were demographic in nature and

approximately 50 of them were related to the students' family-peer relationships within the dating context. The remaining approximately 100 questions were assigned to 1 of 12 variables attributed to Winch, et al. (1955).

McDaniel espoused Winchian reasoning, positing that a female who was an assertive dater would be achievement oriented, autonomous, dominant, hostile, a status aspirant, and a status striver. He posited further that a receptive female dater would be abasive, deferential, succorous, prone to vicariousness, an approacher, and anxious. On the following Winchian needs and traits he built his expectations and his propositions (n = need and t = trait) (McDaniel, 1967).

- a. Achievement (n). To work diligently to create something and/or to emulate others.
- b. Autonomy (n). To get rid of constraint of other persons, to avoid or escape from domination, to be unattached and independent.
- c. Dominance (n). To influence and control the behavior of others.
- d. Hostility (n). To fight, injure, or kill others.
- e. Status Aspiration (n). To desire a socioeconomic status considerably higher than one has (a special case of achievement).
- f. Status Striving (n). To work diligently to alter one's socioeconomic status (a special case of achievement).
- g. Abasement (n). To accept or invite blame, criticism, or punishment, also to blame or harm the self.
- h. Deference (n). To admire and praise a person.
- i. Succorance (n). To be helped by a sympathetic person, also to be nursed, loved, protected, and indulged.
- j. Vicariousness (t). The gratification of a need derived from the perception that another person is deriving gratification.
- k. Approach (n). To draw near to and enjoy interaction with another person or persons.

1. Anxiety (t). Fear, conscious or unconscious, of harm or misfortune arising from the hostility of others and/or social reactions to one's behavior (p. 17).

University of Pittsburgh Sample

McDaniel completed his work at the University of Pittsburgh during the 1965-66 school year. At that time, he found the subjects representing the university to be socioeconomically of the upper middle class and white. Largely Democrats by political persuasion, they were for the most part Jewish, with more Protestants than Catholics comprising the remainder of the population. Most of the students had begun dating during their early teens, or during junior high school. Most of the females had dated randomly and gone steady, but few of them had been pinned/engaged or married. At the time questionnaires were completed, most subjects were either random dating or going steady.

Strengths of the Sample

McDaniel's sample was strong in that it accomplished what he presented his aims to be. Rather than evaluate the entire population of the university, his goal was to evaluate 10 percent of the unmarried female population, which he was able to do by assigning numbers to the entire population and choosing only 1 student from among any group of 10. Of the 1000 students (married and single women and single men) who had not declined to accept the questionnaire and been replaced by another from among their assigned group, a total of 614 returned them. McDaniel planned for the bulk of his sample to be freshman and sophomore women, thereby giving him opportunity to evaluate dating attitudes before all students had made the final marital decisions more commonly attributed to

upperclassmen. He did not claim his sample to be representative of the United States, but rather of the University of Pittsburgh, in that computation of the chosen statistical procedure suggested that within a degree of accuracy of .25 and within confidence limits of $p > .95$, 400 participants could serve as representative of the college population.

McDaniel's plan was to complete the data collection as rapidly as possible. He thought a rapid turn-around of the questionnaires would encourage individuals to report reflections of their own attitudes rather than those of their friends. Consequently, students were instructed to complete the questionnaires as quickly as possible and deposit them in the drop boxes which were conveniently located. All questionnaires were completed and returned within a week.

Limitations of the Sample

At the same time that McDaniel's sample had strengths, it also had weaknesses. While it may be important to know the dating attitudes of upper middle class Jewish women and of upper middle class women who live in the eastern part of the United States, it is not necessarily the case that either have dating attitudes representative of those of women throughout the country. While McDaniel never indicated that his information was generalizable, it possibly would have been of greater value if his study had been more comprehensive in scope. College women from the geographical eastern sector of the country may be atypical, just as females reared in the Jewish-American culture may have attitudes different from those commonly held by the general population. These unique characteristics of his subjects may have biased his findings.

A second limitation of the McDaniel sample is related to his method of administration. His data collection technique was a consideration

mentioned by McDaniel himself. The research design allowed for the completion of questionnaires outside the sphere of the researcher's observation. Consequently, there is a possibility that returned questionnaires were a composite of group attitudes, rather than a record of individual thinking.

Analysis and Evaluation of the Original Sample

McDaniel chose to evaluate the dating attitudes of his respondents by considering a broad range of variables. There were a total of 12 variables, each of which was measured by responses to a set of indicators. A total of 163 questions comprised the indicator set. The variables were as follows:

1. Demographic considerations
2. Assertiveness
3. Receptivity
4. Anticipatory socialization
5. Recreation
6. Mate selection
7. Original family orientation
8. Peer group orientation
9. Amounts of satisfaction felt in dating
10. Personal orientation
11. Commitment to dating partner
12. Complementarity of traits

McDaniel reasoned that a broad list of variables would show a relatively complete picture of the total dating-courtship picture. Requiring precision for theory building purposes, he saw a need for a unidimensional scale for ordinal measurement. Since the Guttman (or

Cumulative) scaling technique provided the unidimensionality needed to consider the various concepts, it became the test of unidimensionality for the project. Thus, interval and ratio scaling were avoided as necessary assumptions for the evaluation of findings.

The relationship of variables within the study became a concern. Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient was chosen as the statistic of measurement. This correlation tool was considered appropriate because, as McDaniel explained his statistical procedures, it could be used with raw (unscaled) data. Where it was necessary to tease out subgroup relationships, percentages were employed. Elaboration and percentages were employed to assess the first-order relationships and no level of significance was chosen. McDaniel (1967) explained that

one of the essential features of elaboration is that it allows no single hypothesis to be viewed independently of others. Instead, there is a series of hypotheses which must be looked at in combination. Consequently, the tactic is to capitalize on patterns of percentage difference (p. 41).

Based on his findings, McDaniel concluded that all of his propositions were confirmed. He saw the courtship period's purpose to be the moving of the female out of the original family into a family of her own. McDaniel concluded that courtship is a process of evolving stages. The college female is first representative of her peer group and later a representative of her family of origin. In the final stages of courtship, dating behavior and decisions become the autonomous concern of the dating couple.

Current Project

The current project is a "conceptual replication" of the McDaniel study. Extensions are also included in the project. These extensions

consider male attitudes toward their own dating and the changes in general dating attitudes over time. The plan included the use of an updated version of McDaniel's own questionnaire (1967) on new subjects who were tested during the 1982-83 school year. The questionnaire was updated to account for English language changes over the 16-year time span between the 1966 test and the newer one. New questions were introduced to accommodate the extensions.

The questionnaires used for obtaining information for the current project are provided in Appendixes C and D. Variables considered in the project are provided in the bottom section of Figure 1, and are labeled Level III.

Sampling Issues

Several issues related to the design of the original study were of concern to the present research project as well. Specifically, McDaniel's findings and pronouncements had been based on a single sex within a single socioeconomic group within a single geographical area of the country. Could the limitation of the research design affect the findings when generalized to a multifaceted society? These limiting aspects of the original design were consequently compensated for in the current study.

Geographical and Religious Considerations

McDaniel looked at subjects attending the University of Pittsburgh, a privately controlled but state-aided coeducational university in Pennsylvania. While accepting students from this country and others, it is geographically located in and draws students in greatest numbers from the eastern part of the United States. Undergraduate classes meet in a

42-story skyscraper which is a part of the campus, but, to some degree, undergraduates are separated from graduate students. While McDaniel found 4,000 undergraduate female students attending the University of Pittsburgh in the 1965-66 school year, he reported finding slightly over 8,000 single male undergraduate students enrolled.

The current project contained elements which were intended to overcome weaknesses in the original design which considered a single sample from a single university in a single location. It was thought that a national flavor might be acquired through the sampling of colleges from a range of geographical locations and of differing stated emphases. Consequently, institutions in the central and west coast regions of the United States were contacted, with the intention being to find a religiously oriented and a state supported 4-year college or university in each section of the country in which evaluation of dating attitudes could be made. Summarized information related to the participating universities is provided in Table 1.

A state university and a Christian college in the central region of the country and a state university and a Christian university located on the west coast agreed to participate in the study. The two larger universities might be designated the state universities of their particular states; the two smaller universities represented a single well-known religious group. Throughout this study, the central region state university is designated University "A" while the west coast state university is designated University "B." The central region religious institution is labeled University "AA," while the religiously oriented west coast university is labeled University "BB."

TABLE I

TRAITS OF SAMPLED UNIVERSITIES

	A Central Region State University	B Western Region State University	AA Central Region Christian College	BB Western Region Christian University
Financial Support	public	public	private	private
Annual Student Costs	(state resident) \$2157	(state resident) \$3398	\$3140	\$7518
Full-time Enrollment	16,014	31,620	1,469	4,184
Emphasis	not stated in source	Academics	Liberal Arts/ Christian Emphasis	Liberal Arts/ Christian Emphasis
Entrance Requirements	not stated in source	equivalent of upper 12 1/2% of state graduates	open	C average, in high school and 17 or more on ACT
Percent of Students Receiving Financial Aid	34	48	67	65
Teacher/Student Ratio	1:25	1:17	1:22	1:17

College Blue Book, 1981.

Broad differences appeared among the test institutions in regard to means of student financial support, size, entrance requirements, and teacher-student ratio. The central region state university (A) is located in a suburb of a large metropolitan area. Its full time enrollment is slightly over 16,000 students. This university practices open enrollment to state residents, with specified annual costs amounting to slightly over \$2000 for those who maintain permanent residence within the boundaries of the state. This university reported 34 percent of its students receiving financial aid of some sort during 1980 and established its teacher-student ratio as 1:25.

The central region Christian college (AA) is located in a suburb of the same metropolitan area as that encompassing the central region state university. Its full-time enrollment is slightly over 1,500 students. This university practices open enrollment, with specified annual costs amounting to slightly over \$3000 for those students attending. This college reported 67 percent of its students receiving financial aid of some sort during 1980 and established its teacher-student ratio at 1:22. The college catalog of this institution states that it is a liberal arts college with Christian emphasis.

The west coast state university (B) is located in the heart of a large metropolitan area. Its full-time enrollment is almost 32,000 students. This university accepts state applicants from among those who have graduated within the upper 12.5 percent of their classes, and it accepts out-of-state residents of equivalent scholastic standing. Its estimated annual costs of room, board, and general fees to state residents amounts to slightly less than \$3400. This university reported 48 percent of its students receiving some form of financial aid during 1980 and established its teacher-student ratio at 1:17.

The west coast Christian university (BB) is located in the same metropolitan area as that encompassing the west coast state university. Its full-time enrollment is slightly over 4,000 students. This university accepts only students who have maintained a scholastic average of C or better throughout high school and have scored 17 or more on ACT scores. Its annual cost of room, board, and tuition is estimated at slightly more than \$7500. This university reported 65 percent of its students receiving some form of financial aid during 1980 and established its teacher-student ratio at 1:17.

Conservative/Liberal Dimension

The colleges which provided samples for the current study included a major state university and a Christian college, both located in suburbs of the same metropolitan area within the central region of the United States. Also participating in the study were a major state university and a Christian university both located in a large west coast metropolitan area. While the state universities are state supported institutions, the Christian universities are affiliated with a single religious group and depend for funding on the private sector of society.

Because of the stated disparity of emphases between the types of sampled universities, the research project considered the relationships between a school's philosophical world view (e.g. the scholastic vs. religious emphasis) and the dating attitudes of students. Consequently, the samples were evaluated from this new perspective. Some commonalities and differences of the various schools are provided in Table 1 (College Blue Book, 1981).

Gender and Marital Status

McDaniel's research goals centered on evaluation of the unmarried female's dating attitudes. Although he obtained data from a group of married females and evaluated it, his specific findings as to whether or not married women regained their assertiveness was not specified in a published report of his work (1969). Further, his look at male subjects was to evaluate their attitudes toward female dating, rather than to evaluate attitudes of the male respondents themselves.

The current research project was intended to evaluate the attitudes of both single and married students. Whether the unhappiness of McDaniel's receptivity stage of a young person's life was temporary or whether it continued, or even increased, in marriage was one emphasis. Consequently, a dating questionnaire similar to the one used by single students was developed but shaped specifically for the married student (Appendix D). Concern with the possibility that both males and females proceed through stages of courtship resulted in a plan for married males to complete the questionnaire also, thereby testing whether both married males and females move into new stages following marriage, and if so, what the characteristics of these stages might be.

Sampling Procedures

McDaniel attempted to randomize his sample by assigning numbers to all of his population and contacting only 1 among any given set of 10 persons. Even so, McDaniel was concerned that the data he evaluated might have been contaminated, in that friends might have influenced answers during the week the students completed the questionnaires.

In the new project, it was determined that the stipulation of

participation by large general education classes during actual class meeting time would improve the quality of the sample in that it would reduce the type of infiltration feared by McDaniel and also reduce bias to some degree, as survey courses tend to draw from a wide spectrum of majors across a campus, thus avoiding the bias inherent in any college course drawing primarily from a specific interest group.

Permission for obtaining data was sought through the offices of the presidents of the two central region schools and the Christian university located on the west coast. With cooperation promised in these three schools, a successful attempt was made to obtain the cooperation of a west coast university similar in structure to the central region state university.

The consideration of timing complicated the plan. Because the central region state university had many students needing to participate in research to fulfill fall semester class requirements, this university requested that work there be completed during the fall, 1982 semester. At the time it became necessary to administer the questionnaire at this university, the instrument had been field tested, and as a result, shortened and adapted for current students. Even so, its items had not been evaluated for scalability. With time being a critical factor and the central region state university sample an essential component of the study, the decision was made to administer the questionnaire when subjects were available and to compensate for deficiencies through statistical procedures. The following plan was operationalized:

1. Administer the questionnaire when students were available.
2. Perform factor analysis to determine scalability of test items.

3. Use Pearson correlations and, if necessary, partial correlations in the evaluation of the data.

Instrumentation

The current instrument is quite similar to the McDaniel questionnaire in content. Changes were made in the current version of the questionnaire to accommodate the different method of instrument administration and such emerging social trends as women's liberation and changing sex roles. One version of the questionnaire was developed for single students of both sexes while a second version was developed for use by married participants of both sexes. Questions were developed to be read orally to large participating classes who would consider a range of possible answers projected onto an overhead screen. Students were in turn to determine their own answers and record them on computerized score sheets.

Pilot Study

The original questionnaire was adapted to accommodate changes in the English language over time and to shorten it, as it contained 163 questions. Then, a pilot study of the revised version of McDaniel's questionnaire was completed at Oklahoma State University. This university was selected for the pilot study because it was not a participating university in the actual survey. As a result of this pilot study, further changes were made in the instrument.

Upon execution of the pilot study, the adapted questionnaire appeared still too long for maintained interest during a single execution period. Consequently, a minimum of indicators was chosen to evaluate each of the Winchian (1955) traits, as Winchian theory is currently viewed far

less receptively than it was in 1967 (Burr, Leigh, Day, and Constantine, 1979). A larger number of indicators were used to evaluate sex-role orientation, dating purpose, mate selection process, family, peer, and dating partner orientation, commitment to dating partner, date trait rating, personal world view, demographics, and in the case of married students, marriage adjustment. A final version of the questionnaire, much shorter in length than McDaniel's original instrument, was developed as a result of the pilot study. Since a total of 80 questions could be answered on the face side of the preprinted computer answer sheet selected for use in recording a student's answers, the final instrument was an 80-question version with demographic information provided on the back sides of answer sheets.

In keeping with the thinking of Dillman (1979), demographics were located near the end of the questionnaire, thus allowing for answering of key questions first, during the height of participant interest. Such a plan also allowed for demographic questions to be printed on the backs of computer answer sheets, to avoid the necessity of using two answer sheets per subject with possible difficulty through loss or separation of data. Further, reactions to relatively personal demographic questions could be provided through the subjects' reading and answering of printed questions. Since married student questions were different from single student questions and the single student questions were being read orally to reduce production costs, it was deemed necessary that married students be allowed to administer their own questionnaires in the privacy of a second test site.

Necessary changes

Wording became a crucial consideration due to the increased scope of

the project and language changes over time. It was determined that since the questions were to be orally communicated to large groups, they might be more easily understood if constructed, when possible, in the first person singular. Where more understandable, the second person "you" would be incorporated into the questions. The following is an example of an original question changed for dual-sex participation and then for married student participation.

McDaniel-----Since almost all men are exploitative, a girl's dating behavior should be cautious.

Current single-----Since most people are exploitative, I am cautious on a date.

Current married-----Since most people are exploitative, I am cautious, even in my marriage.

Operationalization of Propositions

Propositions provided in chapter 3 include those established by McDaniel. Also included are additional propositions which were formulated for the consideration of the projected dating theory. Level III of the dating theory (see Figure 1) presents testable hypotheses deduced from the more abstract propositions in level II.

Solidification of the relationship deduced to the stages identified by McDaniel (1967, 1969). Students were asked to declare their own dating situation by marking one of several options which were combined to comprise the following stages (See Appendix A).

Stage I Random Dating

Stage II Going Steady

Stage III Pinned/Engaged

Stage IV Married

Degree of commitment to the relationship (level II) deduced to one

of McDaniel's reasons for dating: recreation or "fun and games," "mate selection," and "anticipatory socialization." (A more detailed discussion of the instrumentation of this, and all other variables in level III follows the listing of hypotheses below.)

Orientation to the relationship deduced to orientation to peers and/or family versus orientation to the dating partner while receptivity deduced to various items measuring receptivity.

Dating stage was hypothesized to be positively related to the three intervening variables: "reason for dating" (hypothesis 3.1), "orientation" (hypothesis 3.2), and "measures of receptivity" (hypothesis 3.3). Dating dissatisfaction (level III) was measured by comparing an individual's actual date or spouse with the expectations held for a hypothetical "ideal" partner. The premise here was that the greater the difference between reality and expectation, the less satisfied a person would be with the dating partner. Comparison of one's actual date with one's ideal date ("dissatisfaction") was thought to be a function of the three intervening variables: "reason for dating (hypothesis 3.4), "orientation" (hypothesis 3.4), and "measures of receptivity (hypothesis 3.6).

Adoption of norms supporting traditional relationships (from level II) deduces to three possible areas. The first is sex-role orientation. McDaniel had found that females who were ready for marriage were receptive. Such females defined themselves in terms very similar to those more recently called "stereotypically feminine" (Spence and Helmreich, 1972). As a result of a possibility that there might or might not be a commonality between receptivity and the submissiveness attributed to femininity which has been projected to hold women in roles of subservience, sex role orientation became a concern of the current

research project. It was believed that McDaniel's (1967, 1969) work assumed a traditional posture on the part of his female sample. More equalitarian females were not expected to fit McDaniel's model to the same extent. Hence, as sex-role orientation becomes more traditional (hypothesis 3.7), the relationships implied in hypotheses 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 will be strengthened.

A second measure of conservative norms was expected to be regionality. This variable is generally nominal in nature. Based on the work of Christensen and Gregg (1970), however, it was believed that the regional samples would yield traditional/conservative differences depending on the region of the country where the college/university was located. Thus, the variable, "regionality" is conceptualized here as an ordinal continuum with the two categories of west coast region and central region. Since the west coast of the United States is usually considered more liberal than the central states, geographical region was considered a measure of conservative norms supporting traditional institutions such as marriage and was expected to act as a contingency variable in relationships 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 (hypothesis 3.8).

The final deduction concerns the variable of religiosity. It was expected that students attending Christian universities would exemplify traditional sex roles and hold more conservative attitudes and values than students attending state universities who would be more likely to show acceptance of liberated sex role orientations and more liberal world views. (Summarized information related to the participating universities is provided in Table 1.)

The rewording of these propositions into testable hypotheses can be summarized as follows:

Hypothesis 3.1 Dating stage (random dating, going steady, or pinned/engaged) correlates positively with reason for dating (fun, mate selection, or anticipatory socialization).

Hypothesis 3.2 Dating stage correlates positively with orientation, whether to peers/family or to date.

Hypothesis 3.3 Dating stage covaries positively with receptivity.

Hypothesis 3.4 Reason for dating (fun, mate selection, or anticipatory socialization) is positively correlated with approval of dating partner.

Hypothesis 3.5 Orientation to date is positively correlated with approval of dating partner.

Hypothesis 3.6 Receptivity is positively correlated with approval of dating partner.

Hypothesis 3.7 As the adoption of norms associated with traditional sex roles increases, the relationship between dating stage and dating satisfaction is strengthened (and vice versa).

Hypothesis 3.8 As the adoption of norms associated with midwestern regionality increases, the relationship between dating stage and dating satisfaction is strengthened (and vice versa).

Hypothesis 3.9 As the adoption of norms associated with religiosity increases, the relationship between dating stage and dating satisfaction is strengthened (and vice versa).

Composite Variable Development

Because the current project suggested a need to measure the scope and depth of a wide array of variables, factor analysis was used for reducing the data set to include only relevant items. Factor analysis was not used in the evaluation of the data, but as a guide in the development of these composite variables. Since it was posited that factor analysis would detect which variables possessed communalities, evidence provided by this process was used both to explain communalities and allow for valid item combinations toward composite variables. However, it should be clearly understood that decisions for creating scales were made on logical and theoretical grounds which were

supplemented, but not mandated, by the factor analysis (presented in Appendix B).

In order to proceed through the evaluation of the data, the SPSSx (1983) statistical package was chosen as a method for factoring the data available from previously developed frequency distributions. Principal factoring with iterations was the selected factoring process. Through this procedure, an orthogonal matrix was prepared, initial factors extracted for possible data reduction, and rotation toward terminal solutions completed.

The decision was made to use only those variables which, when rotated, had a primary loading of .40 or more. McDaniel's (1969) scales did not replicate well when subjected to factor analysis and license was taken in several areas in order to save a portion of a variable cluster for the testing of McDaniel's original theory or on logical/theoretical grounds. This situation occurred in the McDaniel receptivity variables and in the "reason for dating" variable cluster (See Figure 1 and Appendix B).

Students' answers to a specific question were generally viewed as the data by which to logically measure a specific variable. In given cases, however, a determination was made to combine the answers from a question cluster and use such information as a measure of a variable, or to first evaluate it by the factoring process in order to determine communalities, thereby discarding questions which were not loading together with a group. A discussion of how specific group, or composite, variables were developed is the topic of the following discussion.

Dissatisfaction. Relationship dissatisfaction became one of the composite variables for consideration. Dissatisfaction was thought to be

a key variable within the study in that McDaniel's (1967, 1969) theory, couched in dramaturgical perspective, implicates role dissatisfaction as the end result of intervening variables present within interpersonal relationships (see Figure 1).

To test for dissatisfaction, a total of 5 questions were used for measuring what a student would like to have in a date/spouse and then, the same questions were used again to determine how a person's actual date or spouse compared to this ideal (Questions 71 through 80). Those considerations had been labeled "Complementarity of Traits 1 through 10" and each of the 10 items loaded appropriately for inclusion in a composite data set. Since each appeared to be a valid measure of some facet of characteristics desired in a dating partner, all were used in the calculation of the variable which was named "dissatisfaction." It was determined that by using a student's values of items 1 through 5 (which were evaluations of a person's ideal date) and subtracting the value that student gave to a matching question from items 6 through 10 (which were evaluations of a person's actual partner) and totalling the results, a person's dissatisfaction with his/her date could be quantified. Thus, the 10 variables yielded a single variable which was named "dissatisfaction."

Reason for Dating The intervening variable "reason for dating" was based on a comparison of the student's scores on items measuring three basic reasons for dating: recreation or "fun and games," (Questions 3, 5, & 6) "mate selection," (Questions 16, 18, 23, & 24), and "anticipatory socialization" (Questions 21 & 27). The average score for each set of items measuring the three reasons was compared against the average for the other two sets. The set with the highest average score was assumed

to be the primary reason for dating. In other words, most students indicated medium to high scores on all three reasons for dating. The set of items receiving the highest average score (relative to the scores for the other sets) was taken as the most important motivation or reason for dating for that student.

Orientation. Orientation of a subject, whether to the dating partner, to family, or to peers was a concern of the current project since McDaniel had observed in random dating subjects a high degree of orientation to peers and family, but in seriously dating subjects an orientation toward the dating dyad. A total of 9 questions were employed as measures of the dating partner's influence on the dating orientation, all but one of which loaded at or above the .40 designation upon factor analysis. Those 8 items (Questions 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 46, & 48) were consequently used as the measure of a person's orientation to his/her dating partner.

Evaluation of 5 additional questions related to orientation to family (Questions 29, 30, 31, 32, & 33) and 5 similar ones measuring orientation to peers (Questions 34, 35, 36, 37, & 38) showed similar loading. Consequently, decisions were made to combine scores in each area of orientation to produce 3 composite measures of orientation; orientation to date, orientation to family, and orientation to peers.

Receptivity. Receptivity as projected in McDaniel's study had considered a dating person's willingness to accept blame and please the dating partner, as well as to feel concern when the dating partner was displeased. In order to consider the current subjects in light of McDaniel's theory, a measure of their receptivity was essential. A total of 6 of McDaniel's questions had been used as measures of a person's

receptivity. Only 3 of the questions loaded at above a .40 designation. However, since one other question, a measure of vicariousness, loaded at .30, it, too, was included. Receptivity, then, was determined by totalling 4 of the 6 receptivity questions (Questions 8, 12, 20, & 28).

Contingency Variables. Sex-role orientation became a contingency within the current study. A total of 7 questions was included in the new questionnaire. They considered a person's self-perceived traits of aggressiveness, independence, emotionality, submissiveness, gentleness, competitiveness, and self-confidence (Questions 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, & 70). The questions were suggested by Spence and Helmreich (1972) to be valid test items in consideration of stereotypically feminine and masculine traits. It was posited that autonomous daters of both sexes would perceive themselves to possess the stereotypically male traits of aggressiveness, independence, competitiveness, and self confidence, while receptive daters of both sexes would believe themselves to possess the stereotypically feminine traits of emotionality, submissiveness, and gentleness.

Upon factoring, values of all of the traits seen as stereotypically feminine loaded together at above .40, and measures of the traits seen as masculine loaded together, all at or above .40. Since the two categories, projected in 1972 as tests of stereotypical masculinity and femininity appeared in the pilot study no longer highly correlated with gender of participant, they were viewed as a measure of each person's own autonomy, or equalitarianism within the sex-role orientation.

The last two contingency variables are religiosity and region. Each subject was given a religiosity score. This value was determined through evaluation of a student's self-perceived religious fervor (Question 66)

combined with self-ascribed habits of attendance of religious activities (Question 67). Regionality was based on the region in which a subject was attending school. Students attending the west coast universities were cast into one region while the central region students were in another one (see Figure 1).

Other Variables

A number of variables were left in original form for evaluation. This was particularly true of the demographic variables which were factual in nature, rather than measurable indicators within composite variables. Examples of such information include gender of participant, church affiliation, dating status, and parents' occupations. There were a number of variables, however, which could be and were combined for convenience in data evaluation.

Students from the four universities were combined by school in order to make possible evaluations of students, dependent upon their school of attendance. Further, data were separated by region, thus providing information based on whether students were participants from the central or west coast region of the country.

Statistical Procedures

A total of 92 questions was included in the final version of the questionnaire, and over 600 students were included in the study. It was therefore necessary to evaluate the data set in order to confirm the scalability of items and to determine which questions were measuring variables related to the theory under consideration. Since this study was a "conceptual replication" of the McDaniel study (1967, 1969), the decision was made to evaluate the data in a manner similar to McDaniel's

procedures, while taking advantage of currently improved computer processes. Consequently, Pearson correlations were run to determine significant relationships between the key variables and dating dissatisfaction. In order to consider the impact of extraneous variables, the frequencies were run as the data were separated by university, by sex, by marital status, and by geographical region. In addition, evaluation by partial correlation, controlling for school, region, and religiosity established the findings critical for comparison of the current study with that of McDaniel (1969).

A clarification of the meaning and usage of contingency as used in this study might be pertinent at this point. A contingency relationship allows the researcher to examine a relationship under varying degrees of presence of some third factor (see the earlier discussion in Chapter Three). One way of statistically assessing a contingency relationship is to compute the partial association of the main relationship controlling for the effects of the contingency variable; in other words, to examine what happens to the relationship when the effect of a third variable is statistically removed. Three possibilities present themselves. First, the relationship between the independent and dependent variables may not change when moving from the zero-order correlation to the partial correlation. This condition would indicate that the contingency variable has no impact on the relationship. Second, the relationship between the independent and dependent variables may increase in size. This would suggest a "suppression effect" which would mean that, when the effects of the contingency variable were removed, the relationship would increase in size, hence, increased presence of the contingency variable decreases the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Third, the relationship may decrease in size. This is the most likely event and

indicates that increased presence of the contingency variable increases the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

An example may help clarify this complex point. The theory developed earlier suggests that the relationship between dating stage and reasons for dating is "contingent upon" the adoption of norms associated with traditional sex roles. The more those roles are adopted, the more likely that movement along the courtship process will be accompanied with dating for mate selection. If this is true, the relationship between stages and reasons for dating should decrease when controlling for traditional norms since statistical removal of norms should result in a weakened relationship. The reason this is difficult to follow is that the hypotheses call for increasing the presence of the contingency variable while the partial correlational analysis tests for this situation by decreasing (technically, "removing") the contingency variable. Another way of saying this is "if the absence of the contingency variable results in a weakened relationship (partialling out the control variable), its presence must result in a strengthened relationship (the hypothesized situation)."

Summary

Two separate questionnaires were developed for use in evaluating the dating attitudes of both single and married college students. The questionnaires were simplified and shortened through pilot studies. Schools were contacted in central and west coast regions of the United States and permission received for administering the questionnaire in large general education classes. Plans were made to compare current findings with those made by McDaniel, based on deductions to testable

hypotheses. A report of these findings and comparisons of the samples are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

The first section of this chapter provides a general profile of students participating in the study. Results of hypothesis testing are then considered. The general participant profile was completed by evaluation of frequency distributions within the data set. Hypotheses were tested through use of Pearson correlations and partial correlations.

Summary of the Project

A total of 636 university students completed questionnaires regarding their attitudes toward dating. Cooperating institutions included a state university and a Christian college in the central part of the country and a state university and a Christian university from the west coast region of the United States. While 607 of the participating students were single, 29 of them were married. Slightly less than 1 percent of the single students had been married and divorced, causing them to be included among the single students. The determination was made to exclude these 5 students from those considered in the evaluation of the 4 dating stages.

As a result of wording in the questionnaire designed to locate participants with transsexual or homosexual tendencies, four such subjects were located, and their questionnaires were discarded. Three other questionnaires were discarded due to failure on the part of

students to follow directions.

A total of 629 completed questionnaires from the study remained. While 600 of them were completed by single students, 29 of them were completed by students who were married. The questioning process provided over 58,000 responses for evaluation. There were a total of 328 instances when a student did not answer a particular question, and a few other questions were answered improperly. All such responses were deleted from the study, leaving 90.5 percent of all respondents providing full data sets. Over 99 percent of all questions were answered according to specifications, and subsequently comprised the data set for the study. The 29 married students provided qualitative answers to 9 additional marriage adjustment questions which are intended for use in future evaluation of the data.

Varying dating attitudes were apparent among the 629 college students. The findings of this project were viewed from the perspective that dating stage, reason for dating, orientation (whether to peers, family, or dating partner), and receptivity would be measurably related to dating satisfaction. Sex-role orientation, region of country, and religiosity of participants were seen as contingent variables, each influencing the relationship of dating stage and dating satisfaction (See Figure 1).

Since this study was a "conceptual replication" of the McDaniel study (1967, 1969), the decision was made to evaluate the data in a manner similar to McDaniel's procedures, while taking advantage of currently improved computer processes. Consequently, frequencies were run on the total data set, separating information by school (See Table II).

TABLE II
 PROFILE OF SINGLE PARTICIPANTS BASED ON
 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SCHOOL OF ATTENDANCE

Demographic Considerations	University				Total
	A	AA	B	BB	
Classification in School					
Freshman ✓	109	107	57	58	331
Sophomore	28	50	26	38	142
Junior	14	19	11	38	82
Senior	4	8	9	23	44
Other	0	0	0	1	1
	<u>155</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>103</u>	<u>158</u>	<u>600</u>
Current Dating Status					
Group Dating	8	11	6	9	34
Random Dating	70	97	54	71	292
Going Steady	49	43	34	52	178
Engaged	13	22	4	12	51
Cohabiting	6	0	2	3	11
Dating Following Breakup	4	9	4	7	24
Dating Following Divorce	2	1	0	0	3
Missing Data	2	1	0	4	7
	<u>155</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>103</u>	<u>158</u>	<u>600</u>
Age at First Date					
Below Age 10 ✓	4	1	1	4	10
Between ages 10 and 12	9	9	8	20	46
13 years	14	12	13	25	64
14 years	24	32	19	31	106
15 years	55	52	17	29	153
16 years	35	49	26	25	135
17 to 19 years	11	27	18	20	76
20 Years or Above	1	1	0	3	5
Have Never Dated	2	1	1	1	5
	<u>155</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>103</u>	<u>158</u>	<u>600</u>
Current Marital Status					
Single	152	183	102	158	595
Divorced	3	1	1	0	5
	<u>155</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>103</u>	<u>158</u>	<u>600</u>
Sex					
Male	74	68	35	52	229
Female	81	116	68	106	371
	<u>155</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>103</u>	<u>158</u>	<u>600</u>

TABLE II (Continued)

Demographics Considerations	University				Total
	A	AA	B	BB	
Religious Affiliation					
Catholic	18	1	26	43	88
Jewish	0	0	21	3	24
Baptist	55	2	7	9	73
Methodist	22	0	7	9	38
LDS (Mormon)	3	0	0	0	3
Christian Science	4	0	1	0	5
Church of Christ	12	173	2	14	201
Other Protestant	21	3	19	41	84
Other Religion	13	4	5	20	42
No Affiliation	7	1	14	17	39
Religious Activity					
Extremely Active	11	40	10	18	79
Active	50	106	25	40	221
Slightly Active	68	35	30	60	193
Not at All Active	26	3	37	39	105
Religious Service Attendance					
Daily	0	19	0	3	22
Three or More Times Weekly	17	140	7	17	181
Once a Week	50	20	25	41	136
About Once a Month	18	1	6	17	42
Occasionally	38	5	24	37	102
About Twice a Year	8	0	14	9	31
About Once a Year	11	1	12	16	40
Practically Never	13	0	15	18	46
Family's Income Range					
Below \$10,000	6	4	4	6	20
\$ 10,000 to \$ 20,000	12	43	9	8	72
\$ 20,000 to \$ 40,000	60	66	26	2	178
\$ 40,000 to \$ 60,000	37	36	23	24	120
\$ 60,000 to \$100,000	23	15	19	21	78
\$100,000 to \$200,000	7	3	9	9	48
Above \$200,000	9	6	9	41	65
Mean of Family Incomes	\$55,000	\$45,000	\$64,000	\$96,000	\$59,000

TABLE II (Continued)

Demographic Considerations	University				Total
	A	AA	B	BB	
Father's Level of Education					
No Formal Education	0	0	1	2	3
Some Grade School Education	1	1	2	0	4
Completed Grade School	1	0	1	5	7
Some High School Education	8	9	6	4	27
Completed High School	13	29	8	20	70
Military or Tech Past					
High School	24	38	12	10	84
Some College	31	40	17	23	111
Bachelor's Degree	41	40	26	44	151
Graduate or Professional					
Beyond College	35	23	30	48	136
Missing Data	1	4	0	2	7
Father's Type of Occupation					
Professional	62	59	49	86	256
Farm Professional	5	7	0	2	14
Business, White Collar	38	43	20	23	124
Business, Clerical	10	6	0	3	19
Indoor Machinery	17	12	11	9	49
Outdoor Machinery	4	27	7	5	43
Service, Physical	4	15	2	1	22
Unemployed, Retired, Deceased or Not Given	15	15	14	29	73
Mother's Employment					
Yes	88	124	62	78	352
No	65	58	37	78	238
Unemployed, Retired, Deceased or Not Given	2	2	4	2	10
Total	155	184	103	158	600
Racial/Ethnic Background					
Caucasian	133	171	72	125	501
Black	16	8	7	6	37
Mexican-American	1	0	8	0	9
Oriental	1	1	12	20	34
American Indian	1	2	0	2	5
Other	3	0	4	4	11
Missing Data	0	2	0	1	3
Total	155	184	103	158	600

TABLE II (Continued)

Demographic Considerations	University				Total
	A	AA	B	BB	
Current Age					
Below 18 Years	2	2	2	3	9
18 Years	90	70	41	38	239
19 Years	32	68	32	38	170
20 Years	12	24	11	30	77
21 Years	9	13	9	25	56
22 or 23 Years	5	5	5	19	34
24 or 25 Years	2	2	0	4	8
Above 25 Years	<u>3</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>
Mean of Ages (in years)	19.8	20.0	20.1	20.7	20.3

This process showed generalities within the data but lacked the facility for determining which questions were measuring the specified variables. Factor analysis was subsequently used to assist in decisions regarding data reduction and scale development. Pearson correlations were run to determine significant correlates of the independent variable, "dating stage." Finally, in order to test for McDaniel's original findings relating dating stage and dating dissatisfaction, partial correlations were run controlling for the newly introduced variables of region, religiosity, and school of attendance (See Figure 1).

General Findings within the Data Set

Based on frequency distributions, the data were divided according to sex of participant, school, region, and marital status. Within these divisions, certain tendencies became apparent.

Gender by University of Attendance

Large general education classes were chosen for sampling in each of four colleges. Regarding the sample of 600 single students participating in this study, females outnumbered males by 371 to 229, or 61 percent to 39 percent. That information by university is provided in Table II.

Family Background

The students in this study were 84 percent Caucasian, 6.5 percent Black, 5.4 percent Oriental, 1.4 percent Mexican American, 1 percent American Indian, and 2 percent other races. Concerning education of the fathers of participants, slightly over 46 percent of them were reported to have graduated from college. Twenty-two percent of the fathers had attained professional degrees beyond the bachelor's designation. Family incomes covered a wide range, but over 67 percent of families were reported to have annual incomes above \$40,000. Almost 20 percent were reported to have annual incomes of more than \$100,000.

A total of 93 percent of the fathers of the students were reported to be gainfully employed. Approximately 5 percent of the fathers were reported as not working, and 4 percent were retired or dead. Among mothers, 58 percent were reported to be employed, 40 percent simply did not work, and 2 percent were reported as either retired or dead.

A total of 47 percent of the fathers were classified by their children as working in highly esteemed jobs (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958) whereas 31 percent of the mothers had jobs of high prestige orientation. This might be explained by the fact that mothers in high income families tended not to work for pay, and many of the employed mothers worked in secretarial positions which rated less

prestigiously than did professional occupations on the job scale used in the study.

Religiosity of Participants

The group of students ranked themselves at 1.9 on a 4-point religiosity scale. As a group, they attended religious services with regularity. Approximately 34 percent reported attending church services three or more times weekly. Additionally, approximately 22 percent of them attended services on a weekly basis, with another 6 percent attending church services now and then. Less than 37 percent reported that they did not attend church services with some degree of regularity.

The largest percent (34) were affiliated with Churches of Christ. This finding might be explained by the fact that the two private colleges used in the study are affiliated with Churches of Christ. Approximately 33 percent of the sample reported membership in other Protestant churches, while 14 percent were Catholic and 4 percent were Jewish. Only 7 percent reported no affiliation, whereas 7 percent reported affiliation with non-Judeo-Christian religions.

Age and Dating Experience

The age of these subjects ranged from below 18 years to above 25, but 65 percent of the total were either 18 or 19 years of age. Except for the 29 married students, all were single, with less than 1 percent reporting divorces which placed them for a second time in the "single" category. Almost half of the sample (46 percent) reported that they were random dating, and over 83 percent had never been engaged. The summary of dating status of participating students is given in Table 3.

TABLE III

DATING STATUS OF SINGLE STUDENTS IN PERCENTAGES

University	A	AA	B	BB	Mean
Group Dating	5.3	6.0	5.8	5.8	5.4
Random Dating	46.1	53.0	52.4	46.1	46.4
Going Steady	30.2	19.2	30.1	33.4	36.4
Engaged	11.6	16.3	6.8	8.2	8.1
Cohabitating	3.9	0.0	1.9	1.9	1.7
Dating Following Breakup of Serious Commitment	2.6	4.9	4.5	2.9	3.7
Dating Following Divorce	1.3	.5	0.0	0.0	.5

Orientation

When evaluated as a total cross-sex group, these subjects saw themselves as moderately high in self-confidence (3.6 on a 5-point scale) but also moderately submissive (3.3 on a 5-point scale). They were more oriented to their dates (2.5 on a 4-point scale) than to peers (2.2 on a 4-point scale). Although they were oriented to their dates and thought petting (5 on a 6-point scale) and sexual activity (4.6 on a 6-point scale) were private concerns to be determined by themselves and their dates alone, their total determination to please their dates (2.5 on a 4-point scale) was not quite as strong as was their desire to please their families (2.9 on a 4-point scale). Totally, then, they were less oriented to peers than to parents or to dating partners.

In light of this study, peers appeared to possess a minimal social impact on attitudes of these students. While typical respondents

reported that they would be disturbed by their friends' disapproval of their dating (2.2 on a 4-point scale), sexual activities (2.0 on a 4-point scale), and engagements (2.6 on a 4-point scale), each hypothetical peer censoring of an activity was projected to disturb them less than would a family's negative attitude toward a similar incident.

Dating Dissatisfaction

As a group, the students appeared neither to demand ideal partners nor, in fact, to date persons whose attributes they considered to be ideal. Consequently, they seemed to be quite satisfied with their dating situation (8.7 on a 10-point scale). If the typical participant could have been in full control, he/she would have chosen attributes for a dating partner in the following order of importance, each ranked on a 10-point scale:

1. considerateness (8.2),
2. a pleasant disposition (8.0),
3. affection (7.9),
4. physical attractiveness (7.1), and
5. interest in family (6.7).

In evaluating their current dating partners, the subjects suggested that their dates in fact possessed these traits in the following descending order, each ranked on a 10-point scale:

1. physical attractiveness (7.6),
2. affection (7.5),
3. a pleasant disposition (7.5),
4. considerateness (7.3), and
5. interest in a family (6.9).

These findings suggest that the subjects, as a group, were not yet

ready to think seriously of a long-term commitment as ultimate, and they appeared to be dating persons of similar non-family concern. The problem appeared to be that they would have liked to be dating considerate persons, while they ranked those persons whom they were actually dating lower than desirable in considerateness. In fact, as a group, they reported the persons they were dating possessing less considerateness and less pleasant dispositions than they desired. On the other hand, dating partners were more physically attractive and more affectionate than was deemed necessary. Dating dissatisfaction appeared to be related to a perceived underemphasis of the attitudinal and an overemphasis of the physical on the part of their dating partners.

Other Factors for Consideration

While this group of subjects was vicarious in that they were gratified when their dates were getting satisfaction from an activity (3.6 on a 6-point scale), they were largely dating for fun (3.8 on a 6-point scale). While most of their specific reasons for dating (fun, mate selection, and anticipatory socialization) appeared to have a normal distribution, certain of the questions had to be removed from the final evaluation due to a lack of variation in responses (excessive skewedness).

There appeared to be a strange mix of feelings among the subjects (measured on 6-point Likert-type scales). While assertive in staying out of trouble (4.9), reprimanding a date who was out of line (3.9), and choosing not to manipulate a date for self-fulfilling purposes (3.5), they were receptive in (a) desiring to please their dates (4.2), (b) feeling concern when their dates were disturbed (5.5), and (c) feeling gratified when their dates were enjoying themselves (3.6). Even so,

almost one third of the subjects scored 6 on the 6-point scale showing opposition to obtaining or extending sexual gratification through dating. Conversely, the group score on this variable was 3.1 on a 6-point scale.

The subjects from each of the universities seemed quite different from all other college subgroups as to receptivity, orientation, and religiosity. None-the-less, there was a calculated possibility that the combined groups might be representative of American college dating in the 80s. For this reason, evaluation moved to a more sophisticated type of statistical procedures based on a combination of all students. Possible impacts of region (as well as religion and sex-role differentiation), however, were still included by treating the variables as contingencies and utilizing partial correlational analysis as discussed in the previous chapter.

Tests of the Hypotheses

In order to test the hypotheses, Pearson bivariate and partial correlations were used. The hypotheses first considered (3.1 through 3.6) deal with Pearson (or simple zero order correlations). Each hypothesis will be discussed in numerical order (figure 1).

Hypothesis 3.1

Hypothesis 3.1 Stage of dating (random dating, going steady, or pinned/engaged) correlates positively with reason for dating (fun, mate selection, or anticipatory socialization).

Hypothesis 3.1 was partially supported with this sample of 629 students. When a correlation was computed between the stage of dating and reason for dating (as a composite scale), the findings were

statistically, though not substantively, significant ($r = .08$, $p = .04$; see Table 4). When the three reasons for dating (fun, mate selection, and anticipatory socialization) were considered as separate variables and correlated with stage of dating, the relationships were clarified. The Pearson product correlation coefficient between stage of dating and dating for fun was $-.27$ ($p = .001$); i.e., the further the individual was in the courtship process, the lower the emphasis on dating for recreation. Conversely, the correlation between stage of dating and mate selection was $.15$ ($p = .001$); i.e., the further the individual was in the courtship process, the greater the emphasis on dating for mate selection. Both of these findings are consistent with what McDaniels (1967, 1969) reported. There was not a significant relationship between stage of dating and dating for anticipatory socialization ($r = .01$, $p = .48$). This lack of correlation may have been largely due to the fact that questions which tested for anticipatory socialization seemed somewhat inadequate upon post hoc examination. Thus, while stage of dating was marginally related to reason for dating (as a scale), the individual reasons for dating provided a clearer picture and offered some support for hypothesis 3.1.

TABLE IV
 PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF KEY VARIABLES WITH
 STAGE OF DATING AND DATING DISSATISFACTION (N = 629)

Variable	Stage of dating	Dissatisfaction
Reason for Dating (Fun and Games)	-.265 *** (550)	.187 *** (580)
Reason for Dating (Mate Selection)	.146 *** (544)	-.140 *** (573)
Reason for Dating (Antic. Soc.)	-.002 (559)	.051 (588)
Reason for Dating (Composite Scale)	.080 * (486)	-.125 ** (514)
Orientation to Peers	-.100 ** (556)	-.128 *** (583)
Orientation to Family	-.084 * (552)	-.116 ** (578)
Orientation to Date	-.018 (557)	.034 (586)
Receptivity	.122 ** (586)	-.100 ** (615)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are "n" for paired associations

- * $p \leq 0.05$
- ** $p \leq 0.01$
- *** $p \leq 0.005$

Hypothesis 3.2

Hypothesis 3.2 Stage of dating correlates positively with orientation to date and negatively with orientation to peers or family.

The association between stage of dating and orientation to date was not substantively significant ($r = -.02$, $p = .33$). The associations between stage of dating and orientation to peers and to family were both marginal but significant and negative as predicted ($r = -.10$, $p = .01$ and $r = -.08$, $p = .02$ respectively).

In order to further understand these interrelationships, correlations between the types of orientations were examined for each sub-group of stage of dating (not reported in Table 4). As expected, orientation to family correlated significantly with orientation to peers for all stages of dating (stage I: $r = .50$, $p = .001$; stage II: $r = .40$, $p = .001$; stage III: $r = .52$, $p = .001$). Adolescents tended to either be oriented to both family and peers or oriented to neither (this is consistent with Kandel and Lesser, 1969; see also, Ellis, in press). In this case, the data hint that, as adolescents became more involved in stages of dating, they become less oriented to all three reference groups. The question, then, is not whether adolescents are oriented to family versus peers but how their orientation to the date affects their orientation to either family or peers.

It appeared that the greater the adolescents' orientation to their dates, the less their orientation to either family or peers. The correlation between orientation to the date and orientation to peers remained negative and significant for all three stages of dating (stage I: $r = -.41$, $p = .001$; stage II: $r = -.48$, $p = .001$; stage III: $r =$

-.25, $p = .05$; not reported in Table 4). The correlation between orientation to date and orientation to family also remained negative but was only significant for the first two stages of dating (stage I: $r = -.21$, $p = .001$; stage II: $r = -.24$, $p = .001$; stage III: $r = .00$, $p = .49$). It may be important that the strength of association for both comparisons decreased in stage III (engagement). One is tempted to speculate that, for these adolescents, the interpersonal relationship with the date is secure enough during engagement that the date is not seen in opposition to relationships with the other significant others.

Since adolescents' orientation to their dates appeared to be negatively correlated with their orientation to family and peers, and since two of the three hypothesized correlation in hypothesis 3.2 were significant (albeit marginal) and in the hypothesized direction, hypothesis 3.2 appeared to receive some support.

Hypothesis 3.3

Hypothesis 3.3 Stage of dating correlates positively with receptivity.

When a Pearson correlation was computed between stage of dating and receptivity (as a composite scale) the findings were statistically, but not substantively correlated ($r = .12$, $p = .002$). Thus, there appeared to be limited support for hypothesis 3.3.

Hypothesis 3.4

Hypothesis 3.4 Reason for dating (fun, mate selection, or anticipatory socialization) is positively correlated with dissatisfaction with the dating partner.

Pearson correlations showed a significant, though nonsubstantive negative correlation between reason for dating (as a scale) and

dissatisfaction ($r = -.13$, $p = .002$; see Table 4). The three reasons for dating (fun, mate selection, and anticipatory socialization) were considered as separate variables and correlated with dissatisfaction to further clarify the relationship. The correlation between dating for fun and dissatisfaction was $.19$ ($p = .001$); i.e., the greater the emphasis on recreation, the greater the dissatisfaction. Conversely, the correlation between dating for mate selection and dissatisfaction was $-.14$ ($p = .001$); i.e., the greater the emphasis on dating for mate selection, the less the dissatisfaction (or, the more the satisfaction). These findings are opposed to what McDaniels (1967, 1969) reported. There was not a significant relationship between dating for anticipatory socialization and dissatisfaction ($r = .05$, $p = .11$). As discussed with hypothesis 3.1, this lack of correlation may have been due to the fact that questions which tested for anticipatory socialization seemed problematic upon post hoc examination.

To provide an additional perspective, the subjects were divided by stage of dating and the focal correlation between reason for dating (as a scale) and dissatisfaction was re-examined (not reported in Table 4). At stage I (random dating) the correlation was ($r = -.17$, $p = .001$; not reported in Table 4); for those who were random dating, the more serious the reason for dating, the less the perceived dissatisfaction with the dating partner. Changing inappreciably at stage II (going steady) the correlation remained negative ($r = -.15$, $p = .02$). Substantive findings were most apparent at stage III (engaged) where there was a larger negative correlation between reason for dating and dissatisfaction ($r = -.31$, $p = .02$).

The correlations between reason for dating (as a scale and as individual reasons) and dissatisfaction appeared to offer a refutation to

McDaniel's (1967, 1979) ideas as presented in hypothesis 3.4. Thus, the finding of increased satisfaction, (rather than dissatisfaction) as a respondent moved into more serious stages of dating suggests that hypothesis 3.4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3.5

Hypothesis 3.5 Orientation to date correlates positively with dissatisfaction with the dating partner.

A Pearson correlation between orientation to date and dissatisfaction with dating partner showed a non-significant positive correlation ($r = .03$, $p = .20$; see Table 4). Zero order correlations also failed to illuminate such a relationship in that when the data were broken in sub-groups by stage, there was still no significant relationship between a person's being oriented to a dating partner and being dissatisfied with that person's characteristics. Further, no sort of significance was established when the data were evaluated by school or by sex (since none of these relationships were significant, the coefficients are not presented). Therefore hypothesis 3.5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3.6

Hypothesis 3.6 Receptivity is positively correlated with dissatisfaction with the dating partner.

The Pearson correlation between receptivity and dissatisfaction was significant (though small) but in the negative direction ($r = -.10$, $p = .01$). When the data were examined by sub-groups the size of the correlation between receptivity and dissatisfaction appeared to decrease with the seriousness of the dating relationship. At stage I, there was

not a significant correlation ($r = .01$, $p = .40$). At stage II, however, the correlation was significant ($r = -.15$, $p = .02$) as it was at stage III ($r = -.19$, $p = .09$). At stage IV, (married) the negative correlation increased further ($r = -.40$, $p = .02$). This finding suggests that receptivity correlates positively with satisfaction, rather than with dissatisfaction, and suggests that hypothesis 3.6 was not supported.

Contingency Relationships

Contingent variables played an important role in the evaluation of the dating theory (see figure 1). As discussed earlier, the effects of contingent variables were evaluated through computer control of their effects on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (partial correlations). In all cases in this particular study, there was some effect attributed to the contingency variable. The usual situation was that the relationship between the independent and dependent variable decreased in size when data were controlled for the effects of the contingency variable, therefore indicating an increase in the relationship between the independent and dependent variable.

Hypothesis 3.7a

Hypothesis 3.7a As the adoption of norms associated with traditional sex roles increases, the relationship between stage of dating and reason for dating is strengthened (and vice versa).

Pearson correlations showed a nonsubstantive but significant correlation between stage of dating and reason for dating ($r = .08$, $p = .04$). When the data were controlled for gender and the traditional sex role traits of assertiveness and submissiveness (Spence & Helmreich,

TABLE V
 PARTIAL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OF KEY VARIABLES WITH STAGE OF
 DATING CONTROLLING FOR CONTINGENCY VARIABLES (N = 629)

Variable	Contingency Variables		
	Sex-roles	Regionality	Religiosity
Reason for Dating (Fun and Games)	-.266 ***	-.265 ***	-.292 ***
Reason for Dating (Mate Selection)	.207 ***	.215 ***	.262 ***
Reason for Dating (Antic. Soc.)	-.019	-.000	.008
Reason for Dating (Composite Scale)	.035	.037	.051
Orientation to Peers	-.034	-.036	-.024
Orientation to Family	-.069	-.081	-.064
Orientation to Date	-.011	-.009	-.015
Receptivity	.072	.089	.085

Note: Sample "n" for contingency variables using listwise deletion are
 Sex-roles: 272; Regionality: 273; Religiosity: 273.

* $p \leq 0.05$
 ** $p \leq 0.01$
 *** $p \leq 0.005$

1972) through the use of partial correlational analysis, statistical findings lost significance ($r = .04$, $p = .28$) suggesting an impact of norms related to sex role as discussed above.

Partial correlational procedures were used to correlate stage of dating with each of the specific reasons for dating controlling for sex-roles. The correlation of stage of dating with dating for fun and games ($r = -.27$, $p = .001$) failed to change when controlling for sex-roles ($r = -.27$, $p = .001$). The correlation of stage of dating with dating for mate selection increased ($r = .15$, $p = .001$ to $r = .21$, $p = .001$) thus indicating a suppression effect. The correlation of stage of dating with dating for anticipatory socialization also increased although neither correlation was significant ($r = -.00$, $p = .48$ to $r = -.02$, $p = .38$). As discussed above, a suppression effect indicates that the presence of the contingency variable decreases or weakens (rather than strengthens) the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Because the relationship between stage of dating and reason for dating (as a scale) was decreased by the removal of the contingency variable while the relationships between stage of dating and each of the specific reasons for dating were not affected or strengthened, a decision regarding hypothesis 3.7a is not clear. The evidence is inconsistent. At this point, there seems no clear support for or against the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3.7b

Hypothesis 3.7b As the adoption of norms associated with traditional sex roles increases, the relationship between stage of dating and orientation to the dating partner is strengthened (and vice versa).

Pearson correlations showed no relationship between stage of dating and orientation to the dating partner ($r = .02$, $p = .33$). When data were controlled for effect of masculine and feminine sex-role traits, the relationship between stage of dating and orientation to the dating partner remained insignificant ($r = -.01$, $p = .43$). Thus, since there was no significance in either the controlled or the noncontrolled situation, the hypothesis held no statistical basis for confirmation.

Hypothesis 3.7c

Hypothesis 3.7c As the adoption of norms associated with traditional sex roles increases, the relationship between stage of dating and receptivity toward the dating partner increases (and vice versa).

When Pearson correlations were computed, a limited substantive and significant statistical relationship between stage of dating and receptivity ($r = .12$, $p = .002$) was established. When the complete data set was controlled for the effects of the Spence and Helmrich sex role traits (1972), the relationship lost significance ($r = .07$, $p = .12$).

Since receptivity throughout the study appeared to be positively correlated with dating satisfaction, further consideration was given to these results. When partial correlations of stage of dating and receptivity of the students in the central region state university were controlled for the effects of masculine and feminine sex role traits, the correlations lost significance ($r = .12$, $p = .19$) and ($r = .07$, $p = .32$). Similarly, when partial correlations of stage of dating and receptivity of the students in the west coast state university were controlled for the effects of masculine and female sex role traits, the correlations

were insignificant ($r = .02$, $p = .45$) and ($r = .03$, $p = .42$). The correlation of stage of dating and receptivity within the west coast Christian school, when controlled for masculine and feminine sex-role traits, was also nonsubstantive and statistically insignificant ($r = -.08$, $p = .29$) and ($r = -.07$, $p = .32$) respectively. On the other hand, correlations of stage of dating and receptivity at the central region Christian college controlled for the effects of masculine and feminine sex role traits correlated at $.15$ ($p = .05$) and $.18$ ($p = .03$). Thus, when the group as a whole was considered, the hypothesis was supported. This phenomenon was particularly pronounced within subjects attending the central region Christian college.

Hypothesis 3.8a

Hypothesis 3.8a As the adoption of norms associated with midwestern regionality increases, the relationship between stage of dating and reason for dating is strengthened (and vice versa).

Pearson correlations showed nonsubstantive but significant relationship between stage of dating and reason for dating ($r = .08$, $p = .04$). When the data were controlled for regionality using partial correlational procedures, the relationship decreased as expected ($r = .01$, $p = .11$). This finding lends support to the hypothesis.

Partial correlational procedures were used to correlate stage of dating with each the specific reasons for dating controlling for regionality. The correlation of stage of dating with dating for fun and games ($r = -.27$, $p = .001$) failed to change when controlling for regionality ($r = -.27$, $p = .001$). The correlation of stage of dating with dating for mate selection increased ($r = .15$, $p = .001$ to $r = .22$, $p = .001$) thus indicating a suppression effect. The correlation of stage

of dating with dating for anticipatory socialization also failed to change with neither correlation being significant ($r = -.00$, $p = .48$ and $r = -.00$, $p = .50$).

As discussed under hypothesis 3.7a, because the relationship between stage of dating and reason for dating (as a scale) was decreased by the removal of the contingency variable while the relationships between stage of dating and each of the specific reasons for dating were not affected or strengthened, there seems no clear support for or against the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3.8b

Hypothesis 3.8b As the adoption of norms associated with midwestern regionality increases, the relationship between stage of dating and orientation to dating partner increases (and vice versa).

Pearson correlations showed a nonsubstantive and nonsignificant negative correlation between stage of dating and orientation to the dating partner ($r = -.02$, $p = .33$). When data were controlled for regionality, the relationship remained insignificant ($r = -.01$, $p = .44$). Thus, the hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 3.8c

Hypothesis 3.8c As the adoption of norms associated with midwestern regionality increases, the relationship between stage of dating and receptivity toward the dating partner increases (and vice versa).

When a Pearson correlation was computed for the data set, a positive relationship was established between stage of dating and receptivity ($r = .12$, $p = .002$). When data from partial correlations controlling for

regionality were considered, both explained variation and significance were somewhat reduced ($r = .09$, $p = .07$) showing regionality to be an explanation of part of the relationship between stage of dating and receptivity. Thus, there is some evidence presented for confirmation of this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3.9a

Hypothesis 3.9a As the adoption of norms associated with religiosity increases, the relationship between stage of dating and reason for dating is strengthened (and vice versa).

A Pearson correlation of stage of dating and reason for dating, while exhibiting limited explained effect reached statistical significance ($r = .08$, $p = .04$). When data were controlled for religiosity through a partial correlation procedure, the findings lost significance ($r = .05$, $p = .20$), yielding some basis for confirming the hypothesis.

Partial correlational procedures were used to correlate stage of dating with each the specific reasons for dating controlling for religiosity. The correlation of stage of dating with dating for fun and games ($r = -.27$, $p = .001$) increased slightly to ($r = -.29$, $p = .001$) indicating another suppression effect. Similarly, the correlation of stage of dating with dating for mate selection increased ($r = .15$, $p = .001$ to $r = .26$ $p = .001$). The correlation of stage of dating with dating for anticipatory socialization also increased although neither correlation was significant ($r = -.00$, $p = .48$ and $r = -.01$, $p = .45$).

As discussed under hypotheses 3.7a and 3.8a, a decision regarding this hypothesis is problematic given the conflicting evidence. There seems no clear support for or against the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3.9b

Hypothesis 3.9b As the adoption of norms associated with religiosity increases, the relationship between stage of dating and orientation to dating partner increases (and vice versa).

Pearson correlations showed an insignificant negative relationship between stage of dating and orientation to dating partner ($r = -.02$, $p = .33$). When the data were controlled for effects of religiosity, the relationship remained insignificant and practically unchanged ($r = -.02$, $p = .40$). Since the change was insignificant, religiosity appears to have no effect on the relationship, and hypothesis 3.9b does not appear to have been supported.

Hypothesis 3.9c

Hypothesis 3.9c As the adoption of norms associated with religiosity increases, the relationship between stage of dating and receptivity toward dating partner increases (and vice versa).

When a Pearson correlation was computed between stage of dating and receptivity, the correlation was established at ($r = .12$, $p = .002$). When data were manipulated through partial correlation controlling for religiosity, both the explained variation and significance were reduced ($r = .09$, $p = .08$) showing religiosity to have an impact on the relationship between stage of dating and partner receptivity. This provides supporting evidence for hypothesis 3.9c.

Additional Statistical Findings Related to Sex of Subjects

From the beginning, it had been the position of the current project

that males as well as females proceed through the dating stages which, while perhaps different from female stages, are predictably a part of the dating phenomenon. In order to evaluate the findings from this perspective, Pearson correlations were computed on variables related to the testable hypotheses. Statistical computations were made on the data, controlling for sex of subject and school.

Across gender within the four universities, there appeared to be few and minute violations of consistency in the correlations when they were controlled for gender of subjects. Dating for fun was negatively correlated with dating for the purpose of mate selection ($r = .37$ $p = .001$). Further, dating for fun was (across the categories of subjects) negatively correlated with progress toward stage IV (marriage). This characteristic was as evident in females as in males, but was most pronounced in the male and female subjects attending the west coast state university ($r = -.24$ $p = .06$ and $r = -.19$ $p = .06$) for males and females respectively).

While males were slightly more dissatisfied than females with their dating partners, the correlation between receptivity and dating satisfaction was peculiarly a male characteristic. State university males were particularly high here with central region male correlations of $.59$ ($p = .005$) and west coast male correlations of $.54$ ($p = .001$). Exceptions were the males who attended the central region Christian college ($r = -.05$, $p = .33$) and the females from the west coast state university whose correlations, while not as substantive or as significant as were those of their male counterparts, ($r = .20$, $p = .05$), were positive, and different from correlations of female subjects representing the other three institutions. It is entirely possible that even though males are not as satisfied with the specific traits of their dating

partners as are females, the high sex-related correlation of their receptivity with satisfaction may explain a basic difference in the sexes.

Except for the west coast females ($r = .13$ $p = .09$ and $r = .06$ $p = .29$ respectively) for the west coast private and public universities, dating satisfaction was negatively correlated with orientation to dating partners. Family orientation and receptivity were positive correlates in all subjects except those males attending the west coast public university ($r = -.25$ $P = .08$).

Summary

A group of slightly over 600 students attending college in four universities in two regions of the country were evaluated for dating attitudes. The students were largely from middle to upper middle SES groups and predominantly of Christian religious persuasion. While backgrounds differed substantially from those examined by McDaniel (1967), they more or less corroborated McDaniel's findings and theory. Differences suggested that students of the 1980s are less oriented to their dating partners than were students in earlier years, but today's students are far more satisfied with their dating relationships than were the earlier subjects.

The current study will be summarized in chapter 6. Possible improvements to be made in subsequent studies will be considered as will uses to be made of the study by students and counselors.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

A questionnaire which was developed and first used at the University of Pittsburgh was altered and administered during the 1982-83 school year to evaluate the dating attitudes of 629 college students attending four universities--two in the central part of the United States and two on the west coast. Over 90 percent of the questionnaires were completed in every response category, and approximately 99 percent of the questionnaires were usable, in that only one to five answers were missing. This high response record was made possible because the four cooperating universities (two large state universities and two private Christian universities) made class time available for student participation in research. This cooperation on the part of universities is to be commended and encouraged, as such high response rates in a conducive environment are otherwise almost impossible to obtain.

A Summary of the Findings

The present study examined the dating attitudes of 629 students who attended college in the central and west coast regions of the United States during the 1982-83 school year in order to provide a replication and extension of the work of McDaniel (1967, 1969). Emphasis was placed on hypothesized associations between stage of dating and a student's reason for dating, orientation to family/peers or to the dating partner,

receptivity, and dating dissatisfaction. The impact of 16 years of changing sex-role orientations as well as regional differences and religiosity were considered.

A total of 15 hypotheses were tested in the current project, resulting in both statistical and substantive evidence supporting a total of 5 of them. Hypotheses which were not supported were those related to orientation to the dating partner and dissatisfaction which the theory suggested would correlate with receptivity and reason for dating (See figure 1). Finally, the analysis of several hypotheses yielded conflicting results with the decision uncertain. These findings tended to occur with the contingency relationships.

Hypotheses relating dating stage with both reason for dating and receptivity were confirmed. The contingency variables related to sex-role orientation, regionality, and religiosity each had some effect on the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables but the effect was mixed between strengthening and weakening the relationships (See figure 1).

While the bulk of McDaniel's (1967, 1969) theory was supported, key discrepancies were related to a lack of dissatisfaction found in the current subjects and, at the same time, their lack of orientation to their dating partners. Based on current findings, McDaniel's (1967, 1969) notion that persons who are moving through dating stages actually date for different reasons during different dating stages remains intact. Further, as found in the 60s, receptivity remains greater today for students who are seriously dating than for those who are dating for fun. It does not seem likely that females are playing "female games" in trying to trap the unsuspecting male. Rather, a tendency to increase one's adoption of dramaturgical masks as the symbolic interaction "team"

identity strengthens may be a human tendency.

It appears that, despite 16 years of campus unrest, the revival of the women's movement, and the strengthening of a hedonistic "me" philosophy, young dating couples in the 1980s still progress through similar patterns of courtship as those of the early 1960s. Similarly, the current research suggests that males, with some minor variations, go through much the same process by becoming more receptive and adopting the norms of courtship as they proceed toward marriage.

A major break became apparent, however, between feelings of satisfaction expressed by students of the 80s compared with those expressed by McDaniel's subjects. Within the current cross-regional group, as the dating stage increased toward engagement, a student was typically happier with the attributes of the dating partner. This is a significant finding, possibly predicting increased marital happiness to be established by students who are dating in the 80s, particularly if their traits of assertiveness and receptivity continue after marriage.

A positive correlation between orientation of subjects to dating partners and dissatisfaction with dating partners was established. Speculating beyond what the data actually address, it is tempting to explain this finding as a peculiarity among students of the 80s. Because of reduced emphasis on virginity prior to marriage, they may feel less necessity for orientation to a particular dating partner but greater satisfaction in their sex-role orientation within the dating context. It appears that this generation appreciates independence even within the dating context. The fact that the relationship between receptivity and dissatisfaction was negative may indicate that the independence coexists with a receptivity to the date's feeling of enjoyment, displeasure, and so on.

Implications of the Project

It must be recognized that research is not intended to prove or disprove a position, but rather to build upon established knowledge (Freese, 1980). While many of the current concerns of the marriage counselor appear to be related to avoiding the breakup of the American family, there appears to have been no recent nationally published research which has attempted to make a connection between the dating phenomenon and the problems which too frequently erupt later within the context of marriage. Consequently, the possible pertinence of this current project bears serious consideration.

The following inter-school, interregional findings, related to dating stages, may serve as useful information for college students who are dating or for those persons responsible for counseling them, since mate selection appears to be a predictable process which frequently occurs during the college years. Much as was evidenced in 1967, current dating appeared to proceed by stages, but throughout the process, a new set of evidence persisted. That is, the possession of a strong self-concept as evidenced by high scores on the Spence-Helmreich (1972) traits of self assertiveness and self-confidence persistently correlated with dating satisfaction.

Based on current findings, the following appear to be expected tendencies within the four stages of dating.

Stage I

It is understandable that a certain amount of dissatisfaction will exist due to the "fun and games" aspect of random dating and the struggle between allegiance to peers and allegiance to the dating dyad. This

aspect of dating appears pertinent for members of both sexes.

Stage II

Dissatisfaction during the "going steady" stage of courtship is peculiarly a male problem. It appears that the highly family-oriented person of either sex finds less dissatisfaction in the dating relationship, however, than might other persons who are going steady.

Stage III

Dissatisfaction during the "engagement" stage of dating is practically nonexistent. If it exists to any marked degree, the engagement is most probably dissolved. A strong affiliation with friends is given up at this point for the dating dyad. This phenomenon appears to be well understood by all parties concerned, and there is no resulting dissatisfaction. The only dissatisfaction apparent in the current sample appeared when a person was engaged, but perceived self to be dating more for fun than for the more serious facets of dating.

Stage IV

Common among the American culture is the notion that a "honeymoon" period exists following marriage. The typical subject in this study emerged from this phenomenon in a receptive state. When such a subject manifested tendencies such as allowing self to accept blame without guilt or obtaining gratification through the satisfaction of another, this form of receptivity produced satisfaction within the context of marriage. High Spence-Helmreich scores (1972) related to self-concept also appeared to positively correlate with marital satisfaction, because it was the most self-confident subject who showed the least likelihood of spousal

dissatisfaction.

Future Research Considerations

A sizeable portion of the "dating attitude theory" upon which this study is based has been substantiated within the dramaturgy of symbolic interaction (Figure 1). The major unexpected finding was low dissatisfaction scores as the current group of subjects progressed through the dating stages. An opposite finding is suggested by dramaturgy, as the mask wearing of the courtship period is predicted to cease only after marriage, if then.

The marked difference between current students and those evaluated by McDaniel (1967, 1969) may be explained by the method of determining a person's dissatisfaction with the dating partner. McDaniel made this determination by asking subjects if they would be "quite disturbed to undisturbed" if they had to deal with the following situations.

- a. Ask my date to talk to me when he/she is preoccupied in a conversation with someone else,
- b. Ask my date for another date,
- c. Tell my date where the two of us will go on a date,
- d. Persuade my date to participate in something in which he/she is not particularly interested, and
- e. Pay the tab for my own and my date's dinner.

Since it was thought that these questions would not tell a great deal about whether today's college students were dissatisfied with their dating partners, a different method was used for determining satisfaction. The importance a person attached to a dating partner's physical and emotional characteristics was used as a measure of dissatisfaction within the current study. After it was determined how

important each person believed family orientation, considerateness, physical attractiveness, disposition, and affection to be, a measure of each subject's evaluation of his/her dating partner in each of these areas was established.

Some might say that the current test was not a fair evaluation in that it deviated from the test established by McDaniel (1967). The contention of the current project is that McDaniel's methods would not have established valid dissatisfaction scores in today's liberated university setting, and it may not have been a valid test of dissatisfaction in the late 1960s.

Current findings suggest that the honesty with which college students approach relationships reduces the likelihood of mask wearing during all serious stages of dating. The number of engaged and married students participating in the current study was indeed small. Perhaps the current findings, which disagree with the theory of dramatury, indicate invalidity in that the samples of engaged ("n" = 51) and married students ("n" = 29) were too small and suggest the need for larger projects, or those that center specifically on groups within these two stages (engaged and married).

Improving Upon the Study

A new questionnaire is needed in order for effective work to continue in this area. Questions which were worded a certain way in 1965 caused interruptive giggles in the college classroom of the 1980s. Question content is probably sound, but college students need to be brought into the reworking of the questionnaire in order to develop an appropriate approach in current terminology. Particular attention needs to be given to questions related to assertiveness and anticipatory

socialization due to societal changes related to women's liberation.

The questionnaire needs further to be pretested and evaluated to a serious extent. McDaniel's problem with the scalability of questions persisted in the current study. A worthy project for a future researcher might be the building of a sound, effective research instrument for use in dating studies.

When huge classrooms are used, as was the case in the current study, a male voice should administer the questionnaire, or a microphone should be provided for effective communication between the administrator and the subjects. The idea of projecting the range of possible answers onto a screen for consumption by active participants was a very effective one, and this practice should be continued. If computer answer sheets are used in future projects, extreme degrees of cooperation and high levels of communication will be required between the research team and the computer experts.

Unanswered Questions

The chief concern of this current study is the apparent satisfaction that exists in engaged couples and the dissatisfaction that follows in submissive married students. This is opposite to the results found by McDaniel in that the unhappiness of his engaged subjects was attributed to a type of fake receptivity, exemplified through Goffman's masks of dramaturgy, which when removed provided an avant-garde married female who was indeed happier than any of his typical subjects. Was the current study inaccurate, or are today's submissive students set up for miserable marriages? This is the biggest question of all, because quality of life within the human race is attached to it.

Future Directions

Continued research in this area is imperative. It appears that college students across the country pass through dating stages. Submissiveness, receptivity, self-concept, and a student's finesse in simultaneously managing attachments with his/her friends and family and the dating partner seem to be key components of satisfaction within a relationship. Consideration of these related concerns needs concentrated attention in subsequent works.

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APPENDIX A

VARIABLE TEST QUESTIONS BY NUMBER

Items for Variable Tests

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Singles</u> <u>Questionnaire</u> <u>Test Item</u>	<u>Marrieds</u> <u>Questionnaire</u> <u>Test Item</u>
Stage of Dating	82, 83, 86	62
Reason for Dating	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, 18, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27	1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 14, 16, 19
Orientation		
To Family	29, 30, 31, 32, 33	
To Peers	34, 35, 36, 37, 38	
To Dating Partner	39, 40, 41, 42, 43 44, 45, 46, 47	21, 22, 23, 24, 25 26
Personal Receptivity	8, 10, 12, 14, 20 28	9, 10, 13, 15, 17, 20
Date Trait Rating (Dissatisfaction)	71, 72, 73, 74, 75 76, 77, 78, 79, 80	43, 44, 45, 46, 47 48, 49, 50, 51, 52
Sex Role Orientation	64, 65, 66, 67 68, 69, 70	53, 54, 55, 56, 57 58, 59,
Acceptance of Traditional Norms	81, 84, 85, 87, 88 89, 90, 91, 92, 93 94, 95, 96, 97	61, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71 72, 73, 74
Dating Assertiveness	4, 7, 17, 19, 22, 25	3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 18
Commitment		
To Dating Partner	48, 49, 50, 51, 52 53, 54, 55, 56, 57 58, 59, 60, 61, 62 63	27, 28, 29, 30, 31 32, 33, 34, 35, 36 37, 38, 39, 40, 41 42
General Marriage Adjustment		75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 79b 80, 81, 82

APPENDIX B

FACTOR ANALYSIS TABLES

Composite Variable--Reason for Dating

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6
Date1	.015	.018	-.008	.045	.109	.515@@
Date2	.030	.127	.129	.103	.047	-.039
Date3	-.027	-.089	-.062	-.016	-.068	.237@
Date4	.027	.085	-.497@	.046	.342	.085
Date5	.021	-.101	-.373	.074	.165	.288@
Date6	.048	-.056	.127	.071	.043	.118
Date7	.008	.057	-.037	.029	-.015	.474@@
Date8	-.306	-.101	-.200	-.228	-.503@	.140
Select1	.018	.171	.053	-.002	.098	.348
Select2	.095	.014	.462@	.034	.251	-.007
Select3	-.006	.094	.454@	.025	-.014	.137
Select4	-.018	.013	.148	.005	-.026	.260@
Select5	.057	-.015	-.015	.101	.356@	.038
Select6	-.010	-.022	.128	.012	-.047	.395
Select7	.093	-.086	.577@	-.017	-.064	.081
Select8	.074	-.084	.523@	.032	.088	.117

@ = Sufficient strength for inclusion

@@ = Improper frequency distribution for scaling

Decision: $Date3 + Date4 + Date5 / 3 =$ Composite Variable-Dating for Fun

$Select2 + Select3 + Select5 + Select7 / 4 =$ Composite Variable-Dating for Mate Selection

$Select4 + Select8 / 2 =$ Composite Variable-Dating for Anticipatory Socialization

Composite Variable REASON = Greatest average score of the three possibilities less average of the average of the other two

Composite Variable--Sex Role Orientation

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trait1	-.051	.069	.615©	.067	.059	-.136	.065
Trait2	.062	.040	.447©	-.069	-.033	-.002	.161
Trait3	-.061	.015	.166	-.182	.032	-.007	.387©
Trait4	.012	.047	.123	.018	.011	.031	.352©
Trait5	-.257	-.004	-.085	.031	.085	-.097	.554©
Trait6	.008	-.034	.505©	-.229	.088	.037	-.060
Trait7	.194	.001	.501©	-.077	.077	.046	-.008

© = Sufficient strength for inclusion

Composite Variable--Orientation to Date

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Orient1	.024	.422 [⊙]	.023	.000	.239	-.037	.041
Orient2	.053	.541 [⊙]	-.044	-.107	.089	.138	-.183
Orient3	-.083	.619 [⊙]	.032	-.087	.075	.020	-.086
Orient4	.046	.648 [⊙]	-.017	.103	.279	-.040	-.074
Orient5	-.001	.186	.034	-.054	.473 [⊙]	.108	-.002
Orient6	.068	.029	.013	.079	.578 [⊙]	.144	.041
Orient7	-.113	.041	.022	.038	.260	.083	.051
Orient8	-.022	.058	.074	-.046	.601 [⊙]	-.042	-.009
Orient9	-.036	.111	-.012	-.000	.400 [⊙]	.145	-.028

⊙ = Sufficient strength for inclusion

Composite Variable--Receptivity

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Recpt1	.438©	.102	.086	-.075	-.009	.017	.087
Recpt2	-.187	.098	.044	-.014	-.177	.010	.070
Recpt3	.318©	.038	.118	.037	.041	.177	.213
Recpt4	-.010	-.018	-.003	-.005	.156	.213	-.021
Recpt5	.043	-.002	.050	.019	.040	.559©	.012
Recpt6	.046	.082	.190	-.088	-.055	.567©	.007

© = Sufficient strength for inclusion

Composite Variable--Dissatisfaction

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comp1	.070	.013	.854 [Ⓢ]	.290	.070	.020	.034)
Comp2	.258	.053	.231	.603 [Ⓢ]	.110	.185	.042)
Comp3	.029	.009	.017	.154	.684 [Ⓢ]	.144	.020) = A
Comp4	.182	-.054	.086	.362	-.025	.715 [Ⓢ]	.052)
Comp5	.208	.007	.029	.607 [Ⓢ]	.270	.146	-.010)
Comp6	.289	-.022	.572 [Ⓢ]	.151	-.022	.065	.031)
Comp7	.758 [Ⓢ]	.049	.146	.148	.045	-.060	.009)
Comp8	.431	.022	.051	.168	.474 [Ⓢ]	.020	-.026) = B
Comp9	.773 [Ⓢ]	.000	.148	-.002	.115	.391	.033)
Comp10	.596 [Ⓢ]	.050	.010	.269	.067	.033	.005)

Ⓢ = Sufficient strength for inclusion

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SINGLE STUDENTS

QUESTIONNAIRE ON DATING ATTITUDES

! Material in this Boxed Form is Special !
! Directions for the Test Director !
! -----

* * * * *
* Material in this Boxed Form is to be read *
* to students so they know how to proceed in *
* completing the Questionnaire *
* * * * *

All unmarked areas are the questions which are
to be read aloud to the participants

! Directions to Test Director !
! !
! 1. Provide each subject with the computerized !
! test blank. !
! 2. Provide a special computer pencil for each !
! participant !
! 3. Read the following information to the students !
! just prior to their completing the !
! questionarie. !
! -----

* * * * *
 * You are being given a dating questionnaire which *
 * you are being asked to fill out according to *
 * directions. You have the right not to participate *
 * if you desire not to do so. *
 * *
 * If you are married, raise your hand so *
 * that you can be given a special form for married *
 * people. Married students will read the instructions *
 * and fill out your separate set of answers at your *
 * own rate of speed. *
 * *
 * For all of you, this is an anonymous questionnaire *
 * which examines dating attitudes of college students. *
 * The information which you provide will be held in *
 * strictest of confidence. In order to assure such *
 * you are asked not to write your name on the answer *
 * sheet. *
 * *
 * Please be as honest as your memory enables you to *
 * be. *
 * *
 * While there are a number of statements in the *
 * questionnaire, each can be reacted to with a single *
 * mark, so you should be able to finish the *
 * questionnaire quickly. *
 * *
 * Please be sure to react to every statement in the *
 * appropriately numbered section. The test director *
 * will mention the question number to ensure that you *
 * are marking in the correct spaces. *
 * *
 * For this questionnaire, date means "person *
 * toward whom you currently feel warmest." *
 * *
 * Now get ready for the first set of statements. *
 * These statements deal with dating in general and *
 * are not about specific dating situations. So, for *
 * each statement in the section, mark your answer *
 * sheet somewhere between 1 and 6, depending on how *
 * strongly you agree or disagree. *
 * * * * *

* * * * *

* You will code as follows:

* 1 = strongly agree

* 2 = agree

* 3 = slightly agree

* 4 = slightly disagree

* 5 = disagree

* 6 = strongly disagree

* Remember, during these first questions, you will

* never mark a response beyond 6 on your answer sheet.*

* Here is question 1.

* * * * *

1. One of the reasons I date is to have lots of fun.

* * * * *

* Mark your answer in section number 1 Did

* you give this question a rating of 1 or 2. If so,

* you are indicating that you either strongly agree

* or agree. Now move to question number 2. Ready?

* * * * *

2. I don't worry too much about pleasing my date, just myself.

* * * * *

* Mark your answer in section number 2 Did

* you give this statement a rating of 4, 5, or 6? If

* so, you are indicating you disagree with the

* statement. You are now ready to move to the right

* for question 3.

* * * * *

3. Dating provides me with a pleasant opportunity for companionship without the responsibility of marriage.

4. It's important that on dates I don't allow myself to get in situations where I'm no longer in control.

5. I don't worry about marriage when I'm dating.

6. For me, the only good reason to date is to have lots of fun.
7. If my date is willing, it is quite all right for me to make all the decisions on a date.
8. If my date blames me for something which has no serious consequence, I try to accept the blame and criticism and forget the incident regardless of whether or not I'm guilty.

* * * * *

* You should now be moving down to the third row of
 * answers and be ready for answering question
 * number 9. Check to see that you are marking your
 * answers in the appropriate section.

* * * * *

9. I date only those persons with whom I feel most relaxed.
10. I want to be indulged and pampered by my date.
11. When I'm deciding whether to go out on a date, one of the key questions is, "Will I have a good time?"
12. If my date gets enjoyment from something in which I'm not interested, I feel gratified simply by my date's satisfaction with the activity.
13. It's important for me to date a sufficient number of persons to make a sound choice from a wide range of potential marriage partners.
14. I feel concern when my date is hurt or disturbed.
15. It's all right for me to obtain sexual enjoyment through dating.
16. I try to date only those persons I think will make good marriage partners.
17. If my date is not behaving properly, it is all right for me to reprimand him or her.
18. Dating provides me the opportunity to refine my standards for a marriage partner.
19. Since most people are exploitive, I'm cautious on a date.

- 20. I am disturbed if my date is displeased with something I do.
- 21. If I can't get along with my date while dating, I don't consider that person as a suitable mate selection.
- 22. It's all right for me to manipulate my date in order to get him or her to do as I want.
- 23. I consider "romantic love" as secondary to other standards in mate selection.
- 24. I make myself as attractive as possible to attract the person of my choice.
- 25. I steer clear of dating partners who are smug and egotistical.
- 26. I consider my mate selection to be more than an incidental part of the dating situation.
- 27. I try to compare my ideal mate choice to reality in the dating situation.
- 28. I am disturbed if my date thinks I'm not conducting myself on a date according to his or her standards.

* * * * *
 *
 * In the next section you are asked to react to a *
 * series of hypothetical situations. You are not *
 * being asked whether or not you have participated in *
 * the activities. But rather, if you were to *
 * participate in the activity, you are asked to *
 * indicate how you would be affected if your parents *
 * or close friends disapproved of your participation.*
 * Where appropriate, the word date suggests you will *
 * envision the person you most frequently dated in *
 * the last six months. *
 *
 * In this section, indicate your feelings with the *
 * following marks: *
 *
 * 1 = quite disturbed *
 * 2 = moderately disturbed *
 * 3 = affected but undisturbed *
 * 4 = unaffected *
 *
 * * * * *

29. Assuming that your parents (or parent substitutes) disapproved of your dating, would you be (1) quite disturbed, (2) moderately disturbed, (3) affected, but not disturbed, or (4) unaffected?
30. Assuming that your parents disapproved of your dating a certain person, which would you be?
31. Assuming that your parents disapproved of your petting on dates, would you be (1) quite disturbed, (2) moderately disturbed, (3) affected, but not disturbed, or (4) unaffected?
32. Assuming that your parents disapproved of your engaging in sexual intercourse on a date, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?
33. Assuming that your parents disapproved of your engagement to be married, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?

* * * * *

*
* Now you are asked similar questions as related to *
* the effects of your friends' attitudes on your *
* feelings about your dating activities. Continue to *
* mark 1 for quite disturbed, 2 for moderately *
* disturbed, 3 for affected, but undisturbed, and 4 *
* for unaffected. *
* * * * *

34. Assuming that your very closest friends disapproved of your dating, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?
35. Assuming that your very closest friends disapproved of your dating a particular person, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?
36. Assuming that your very closest friends disapproved of your petting on dates, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?
37. Assuming that your very closest friends disapproved of your engaging in sexual intercourse, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?
38. Assuming that your very closest friends disapprove of your engagement to be married, how seriously would you be affected by their disapproval?

* * * * *

* The next nine questions will be completed by your *
 * marking a six-point scale. 1 = strongly agree and *
 * 6 = strongly disagree. You should be ready to mark *
 * for question number 39. *

* * * * *

- 39. If my date suits me, that is enough.
- 40. I enjoy having interesting experiences on dates, whether or not I can discuss them with my friends.
- 41. If I decide to pet on dates, it is solely the concern of my date and myself, and not my friends.
- 42. If my dating conduct is rewarding to me, it doesn't matter what my friends think.
- 43. If there is one thing I deplore, it is to have my friends around when I want to be alone with my date.
- 44. Going to games with my date is much more fun if my friends don't accompany us.
- 45. If I decide to engage in sexual intercourse on a date, I certainly will not discuss it with my friends.
- 46. I prefer to go to the movies alone with my date.
- 47. I would rather not listen to my friends' evaluations of my date.

* * * * *

* In this section, you are asked to respond simply *
 * whether or not you would do what your date wished *
 * you to do in hypothetical situations. Mark 1 for *
 * yes and 2 for no. Your next response should be *
 * completed in the area provided for number 48. *

* * * * *

- 48. If your date wanted you to change your religion, would you or wouldn't you?
- 49. If your date wanted you to decide where the two of you would go on a date, would you or wouldn't you?
- 50. If your date wanted you to defy your parents, would you or wouldn't you?
- 51. If your date wanted you to change your hair style, would you or wouldn't you?

52. If your date wanted you to raise your scholastic average, would you or wouldn't you?
53. If your date wanted you to lose weight, would you or wouldn't you?
54. If your date wanted you to change your politics, would you or wouldn't you?
55. If your date wanted you to buy expensive presents, would you or wouldn't you?
56. If your date wanted you to stop smoking, would you or wouldn't you?
57. If your date wanted you to help so that he or she could pass a test, would you or wouldn't you?
58. If your date asked you to make all the major decisions on a date, would you, or wouldn't you?
59. If your date wanted you to change your manner of dress, would you or wouldn't you?
60. If your date wanted you to travel a long distance to visit his/her parents, would you or wouldn't you?
61. If your date wanted you to drop a long-time friend, would you or wouldn't you?
62. If your date wanted you to call when he or she forgot to call as promised, would you or wouldn't you?
63. If your date wanted you to tell a lie, would you or wouldn't you?

 *
 * Now you need to consider yourself and the kind of
 * person you think you are. You will consider your
 * strength in a particular character trait and rate
 * yourself on a five-point scale. For example, you
 * might be asked to consider your artistic ability.
 * If you thought you had no artistic ability, you
 * would mark 1. If you thought yourself to be quite
 * artistic, you would mark the 4 or 5.
 *
 * Remember as you complete this section that you are
 * not to mark past a rating of 5. There are 7 of
 * these traits, and you should be ready to mark
 * number 64.
 *

- 64. Aggressiveness
- 65. Independence
- 66. Emotionality
- 67. Submissiveness
- 68. Gentleness
- 69. Competiveness
- 70. Self Confidence

* * * * *

* You are now returning to standard dating questions. *

* In this section you are to rank personality traits. *

* on a 10-point scale. If a trait is very important, *

* give it a 10. If it is very unimportant, give it a *

* 1. Give each personality trait a rating of *

* somewhere between 1 and 10. You should be ready to *

* mark number 71. *

* * * * *

- 71. I like a date who is family oriented.
- 72. I like a date who is considerate.
- 73. I like a date who is physically attractive.
- 74. I like a date who has a pleasant disposition.
- 75. I like a date who is affectionate.

* * * * *

* Now you are to rate the person to whom you *

* currently feel warmest. *

* * * * *

- 76. My date is family oriented.
- 77. My date is considerate
- 78. My date is physically attractive.
- 79. My date has a pleasant disposition.
- 80. My date is affectionate.

* * * * *

* Please turn your computer sheet over and on the *

* back side answer the questions. When you are *

* finished, turn in your data sheet. *

* * * * *

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MARRIED STUDENTS

ATTITUDES OF MARRIED STUDENTS

* * * * *
*
* Material in this Boxed Form is Special *
* Directions for Married Students. Read them *
* carefully in order to know how to proceed *
* in completing the Questionnaire. *
*
* * * * *

All unmarked areas are the questions which are to be read and completed on the computer test sheet.

QUESTIONNAIRE

* * * * *

* Directions to Married Students *

* 1. Be certain that you have both this *
* questionnaire and the computerized test *
* blank. *
* *
* 2. See that you have a special computer pencil *
* for completing the test sheet. *
* *
* 3. Read the following information just prior to *
* completing the questionnaire. *
* *
* * * * *

* You are completing an anonymous questionnaire which *
* you are being asked to fill out according to *
* exact directions. The information which you *
* provide will be held in strictest of confidence. *
* In order to assure such you are asked not to write *
* your name on the answer sheet. *
* *
* Complete the questionnaire, answering questions in *
* relation to your feelings toward your marriage *
* partner. *
* *
* Please be as honest as your memory enables you to *
* be. *
* *
* While there are a number of statements in the *
* questionnaire, each can be reacted to with a single *
* mark, so you should be able to finish the *
* questionnaire quickly. *
* *
* Be sure to answer every statement in the *
* appropriately numbered section. If you feel *
* uncomfortable at marking in the presence of your *
* classmates, take a moment now to get a cover sheet *
* with which to cover your response sheet. *
* *
* Material in the questionnaire deals with dating and *
* mate selection in general and is not intended to be *
* about specific situations. So, for each statement *
* in the section, mark your answer sheet somewhere *
* between 1 and 6, depending on how strongly you *
* agree or disagree. *
* *
* * * * *

* * * * *
 *
 * You will code as follows for the first 20 questions: *
 *
 * 1 = strongly agree *
 * 2 = agree *
 * 3 = slightly agree *
 * 4 = slightly disagree *
 * 5 = disagree *
 * 6 = strongly disagree *
 *
 * Remember, during these first 20 questions, you will *
 * never mark a response beyond 6 on your answer sheet. *
 * Here is question 1. *
 * * * * *

1. One of the reasons to date is to have lots of fun.

* * * * *
 *
 * Mark your answer in section number 1 Did *
 * you give this question a rating of 1 or 2. If so *
 * you are indicating that you either strongly agree *
 * or agree. Now move to question number 2. Ready? *
 * * * * *

2. I don't worry too much about pleasing my spouse, just myself.

* * * * *
 *
 * Mark your answer in section number 2 Did *
 * you give this statement a rating of 4, 5, or 6? If *
 * so, you are indicating you disagree with the *
 * statement. You are now ready to move to the right *
 * for question 3. *
 * * * * *

3. If my spouse is willing, it is quite all right for me to make all the decisions on a date.

4. It's important that in my marriage I don't allow myself to get in situations where I'm no longer in control.

5. Prior to engagement, it's important to date a sufficient number of persons to make a sound choice from a wide range of potential partners.

6. The only good reason for a person to date is to have lots of fun.
7. If my spouse is not behaving properly, it is all right for me to reprimand him or her.
8. Dating provides opportunities to refine your standards for a marriage partner.
9. If my spouse blames me for something that has no serious consequence, I try to accept the blame and forget the incident, whether or not I'm to blame.
10. I want to be indulged and pampered by my spouse.
11. Since most people are exploitive, I am cautious even in my marriage.
12. It's all right for me to manipulate my spouse in order to get him or her to do as I want.
13. If my spouse gets enjoyment from something in which I'm not interested, I feel satisfied simply by my spouse's satisfaction with the activity.
14. It's important to consider "romantic love" as secondary to other standards in mate selection.
15. I feel concern when my spouse is hurt or disturbed.
16. It's important to make myself as attractive as possible to continually attract my marriage partner.
17. I am disturbed if my spouse is displeased with something I do.
18. I avoid my spouse when he or she is acting smug and egotistical.
19. Mate selection is more than an incidental part of the dating situation.
20. I am disturbed when I think I am not conducting myself according to my spouse's standards.

* * * * *

*
 * The next six questions will be completed by your *
 * marking a six-point scale. 1 = strongly agree and *
 * 6 = strongly disagree. You should be ready to mark *
 * for question number 21. *
 * * * * *

21. If my spouse suits me, that is enough.

22. I enjoy having interesting experiences within marriage whether or not I can discuss them with my friends.
23. If my conduct in marriage is rewarding to me, it doesn't matter what my friends think.
24. If there is one thing I deplore, it is to have my friends around when I want to be alone with my spouse.
25. I prefer to go to the movies alone with my spouse.
26. I would rather not listen to my friends' evaluations of my spouse.

* * * * *

*
 * In this section, you are asked to respond simply *
 * whether or not you would do what your spouse *
 * wishes you to do. Mark 1 for yes and 2 for no. *
 * * * * *

27. If your spouse wanted you change your religious preference, would you or wouldn't you?
28. If your spouse wanted you to decide where the two of you would go for an evening out, would you or wouldn't you?
29. If your spouse wanted you to defy your parents, would you or wouldn't you?
30. If your spouse wanted you to change your hair style, would you or wouldn't you?
31. If your spouse wanted you to raise your scholastic average, would you or wouldn't you?
32. If your spouse wanted you to lose weight, would you or wouldn't you?
33. If your spouse wanted you to change your political preference, would you or wouldn't you?
34. If your spouse wanted you to buy expensive presents, would you or wouldn't you?
35. If your spouse wanted you to stop smoking, would you or wouldn't you?
36. If your spouse wanted you to help so that he or she could pass a test, would you or wouldn't you?
37. If your spouse asked you to make all the major decisions on an evening out, would you, or wouldn't you?

- 38. If your spouse wanted you to change your manner of dress, would you or wouldn't you?
- 39. If your spouse wanted you to travel a long distance to visit his/her parents, would you or wouldn't you?
- 40. If your spouse wanted you to ostracize a long-time friend, would you or wouldn't you?
- 41. If your spouse wanted you to call when he or she forgot to call as promised, would you or wouldn't you?
- 42. If your spouse wanted you to tell a lie, would you or wouldn't you?

* * * * *

* In this section, spouse means husband or wife of anyone. You are to rank personality traits on a 10-point scale. If a trait is very important, give it a 10. If it is very unimportant, give it a 1. Give each personality trait a rating of somewhere between 1 and 10. You should be ready to mark number 43.

* * * * *

- 43. The ideal spouse is family oriented.
- 44. The ideal spouse is considerate.
- 45. The ideal spouse is physically attractive.
- 46. The ideal spouse has a pleasant disposition.
- 47. The ideal spouse is affectionate.

* * * * *

* Now you are to rate your own husband or wife. Remember to give a 10 for a high rating and a 1 for the lowest rating.

* * * * *

- 48. My spouse is family oriented.
- 49. My spouse is considerate
- 50. My spouse is physically attractive.
- 51. My spouse has a pleasant disposition.
- 52. My spouse is affectionate.

* * * * *
*
* Now you need to consider yourself and the kind of
* person you think you are. You will consider your
* strength in a particular character trait and rate
* yourself on a five-point scale. For example, you
* might be asked to consider your artistic ability.
* If you thought you had no artistic ability, you
* would mark 1. If you thought yourself to be quite
* artistic, you would mark the 4 or 5.
*
* Remember as you complete this section that you are
* not to mark past a rating of 5. There are 7 of
* these traits, and you should be ready to mark
* number 53.
*
* * * * *

- 53. Aggressiveness
- 54. Independence
- 55. Emotionality
- 56. Submissiveness
- 57. Gentleness
- 58. Competiveness
- 59. Self Confidence

* * * * *
*
* The next set of questions will relate to your own
* personal characteristics and family background.
*
* * * * *

- 60. Mark number 60 for your gender.
1 = male
2 = female
- 61. List your classification in school.
1 = freshman 5 = graduate student
2 = sophomore 6 = special student
3 = junior 7 = other
4 = senior
- 62. How many times have you been engaged to be married?
1 = no engagement
2 = one engagement
3 = two engagements
4 = more than two engagements

63. At what age did you have your first date?
 1 = before age 10 6 = age 16
 2 = 10 to 12 years 7 = age 17 to 19
 3 = age 13 8 = age 20 or above
 4 = age 14 9 = never dated before marriage
 5 = age 15
64. List your current age category.
 1 = below 18 5 = 21
 2 = 18 6 = 22 to 23
 3 = 19 7 = age 24 to 25
 4 = 20 8 = age 25 or above
65. List your religious affiliation.
 1 = Catholic 6 = Christian Science
 2 = Jewish 7 = Church of Christ
 3 = Baptist 8 = Other Protestant
 4 = Methodist 9 = Other Religion
 5 = LDS (Mormon) 10 = No affiliation
66. How active do you consider yourself to be in religious affairs?
 1 = extremely active
 2 = active
 3 = slightly active
 4 = not at all active
67. How often do you attend religious services?
 1 = daily 5 = occasionally
 2 = 3 or more times weekly 6 = twice a year
 3 = once a week 7 = once a year
 4 = about once a month 8 = never
68. List your father's highest level of education
 1 = no formal education
 2 = some grade school education
 3 = completed grade school
 4 = some high school education
 5 = completed high school education
 6 = military or technical training past high school
 7 = some college work completed
 8 = Bachelors degree
 9 = Graduate or Professional Degree past Bachelors Degree
69. Estimate your father's annual income before taxes.
 1 = below \$10,000
 2 = \$10,000 to \$20,000
 3 = \$20,000 to \$40,000
 4 = \$40,000 to \$60,000
 5 = \$60,000 to \$100,000
 6 = \$100,000 to \$200,000
 7 = above \$200,000

70. Give your race / ethnic group.

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 1 = Caucasian | 4 = Oriental |
| 2 = Black | 5 = American Indian |
| 3 = Mexican-American | 6 = Other |

* * * * *
*
* Please turn your computer sheet over and complete *
* the questionnaire by answering the questions that *
* are printed there. *
*
* * * * *

APPENDIX E

RESPONSE SHEETS FOR SINGLE AND MARRIED STUDENTS

PART II DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Circle the number beside the description of your classification in school.
 - 1 = freshman
 - 2 = sophomore
 - 3 = junior
 - 4 = senior
 - 5 = graduate student
 - 6 = special status
 - 7 = other
2. How many times have you been engaged to be married?
 - 1 = none
 - 2 = once
 - 3 = twice
 - 4 = more than twice
3. Circle the number beside the phrase that best describes your current dating status.
 - 1 = group dating
 - 2 = random dating
 - 3 = going steady
 - 4 = living with someone, unmarried
 - 5 = dating following the breakup of a serious commitment
 - 6 = living in legal first marriage
 - 7 = dating following a divorce
 - 8 = engaged following a divorce
 - 9 = married following a divorce
4. Circle the number beside the age at which you had your first date.
 - 1 = before age 10
 - 2 = between age 10 and 12
 - 3 = age 13
 - 4 = age 14
 - 5 = age 15
 - 6 = age 16
 - 7 = age 17 to 19
 - 8 = 20 or above
 - 9 = have never dated
5. Circle the number beside your present age category.
 - 1 = below 18
 - 2 = 18
 - 3 = 19
 - 4 = 20
 - 5 = 21
 - 6 = 22 or 23
 - 7 = 24 or 25
 - 8 = above 25
6. Circle the number beside the description of your marital status.
 - 1 = single
 - 2 = married
 - 3 = widowed
 - 4 = divorced
 - 5 = separated
7. Circle the number beside the name of the religious organization with which you are affiliated.
 - 1 = Catholic
 - 2 = Jewish
 - 3 = Baptist
 - 4 = Methodist
 - 5 = LDS (Mormon)
 - 6 = Christian Science
 - 7 = Church of Christ
 - 8 = Other Protestant
 - 9 = Other Religion
 - 10 = No affiliation
8. Circle the number beside the phrase that best describes your religious activities.
 - 1 = extremely active
 - 2 = active
 - 3 = slightly active
 - 4 = not at all active
9. Circle the number beside the phrase best describing your attendance of religious services.
 - 1 = daily
 - 2 = three or more times weekly
 - 3 = once a week
 - 4 = about once a month
 - 5 = occasionally
 - 6 = about twice a year
 - 7 = about once a year
 - 8 = practically never
10. Circle the number beside the estimate that best describes your family's annual income.
 - 1 = below \$10,000
 - 2 = \$10,000 to \$20,000
 - 3 = \$20,000 to \$40,000
 - 4 = \$40,000 to \$60,000
 - 5 = \$60,000 to \$100,000
 - 6 = \$100,000 to \$200,000
 - 7 = above \$200,000
11. Circle the number beside the phrase that best describes your father's highest level of education.
 - 1 = no formal education
 - 2 = some grade school education
 - 3 = completed grade school education
 - 4 = some high school education
 - 5 = completed high school education
 - 6 = military or technical training past high school
 - 7 = some college
 - 8 = Bachelor's Degree
 - 9 = Graduate or Professional Degree beyond B.S.
12. Circle the number beside the name of your own race/ethnic group.
 - 1 = Caucasian
 - 2 = Black
 - 3 = Mexican-American
 - 4 = Oriental
 - 5 = American Indian
 - 6 = Other
13. Does your father work outside the home?
 - 1 = yes
 - 2 = no
14. If your father works outside the home, what exactly is his job called?

15. Does your mother work outside the home?
 - 1 = yes
 - 2 = no
16. If your mother works outside the home, what exactly is her job called?

17. What is your own gender?
 - 1 = male
 - 2 = female
18. Who do you typically date?
 - 1 = males
 - 2 = females
 - 3 = members of both sexes

PRINT YOUR NAME IN THE BLOCKS PROVIDED. BLACKEN THE CORRESPONDING LETTER IN EACH GRID.

LAST NAME		FIRST		MI
A	A	A	A	A
B	B	B	B	B
C	C	C	C	C
D	D	D	D	D
E	E	E	E	E
F	F	F	F	F
G	G	G	G	G
H	H	H	H	H
I	I	I	I	I
J	J	J	J	J
K	K	K	K	K
L	L	L	L	L
M	M	M	M	M
N	N	N	N	N
O	O	O	O	O
P	P	P	P	P
Q	Q	Q	Q	Q
R	R	R	R	R
S	S	S	S	S
T	T	T	T	T
U	U	U	U	U
V	V	V	V	V
W	W	W	W	W
X	X	X	X	X
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Z	Z	Z	Z	Z

MARRIED

COURSE NUMBER	STUDENT NUMBER
001	001
002	002
003	003
004	004
005	005
006	006
007	007
008	008
009	009
010	010
011	011
012	012
013	013
014	014
015	015
016	016
017	017
018	018
019	019
020	020
021	021
022	022
023	023
024	024
025	025
026	026
027	027
028	028
029	029
030	030

Oklahoma State University
BUREAU OF TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074

DO NOT COMPLETE ABOVE RED LINE.

COURSE NUMBER	SECT.
001	001
002	002
003	003
004	004
005	005
006	006
007	007
008	008
009	009
010	010
011	011
012	012
013	013
014	014
015	015
016	016
017	017
018	018
019	019
020	020
021	021
022	022
023	023
024	024
025	025
026	026
027	027
028	028
029	029
030	030

COURSE	SECTION	TEST									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	36	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	41	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	42	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	46	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	51	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	53	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	56	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	57	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	58	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	59	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	61	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	62	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	63	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	65	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	66	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	68	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	69	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	72	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	73	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	74	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	75	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	76	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	77	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	78	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	79	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

PART II

1. Does your father work? _____
2. If your father works, what exactly, is his job called? _____
3. Does your mother work? _____
4. If your mother works, what exactly, is her job called? _____
5. How long have you been married? _____
6. How did you find yourself changing during courtship with the person to whom you are now married?

7. At this point, how do you feel about the general practice of people living together prior to marriage?

8. Discuss whether you feel more or less assertive now than when you were dating.

9. What is it that happened in the courtship-marriage process that made you:
 - a. Most happy: _____
 - b. Most unhappy: _____
10. Did you and your spouse wear masks (pretend to be other than your real selves) when you first knew each other? (yes or no) _____
11. When did you and your spouse become your "real selves" in front of each other?

12. If you have been able to be your "real self" with your marriage partner, what has this done to your relationship?

APPENDIX F

MCDANIEL'S JMF ARTICLE

Dating Roles and Reasons for Dating*

CLYDE O. McDANIEL, JR.**

An attempt was made to isolate and test a set of hypotheses which explain the relationship between the female's dating role and her reasons for dating. The primary explanatory variable was "stages of courtship." Through the use of survey methodology, with a sample of 396 college women and 181 college men, it was discovered that (1) girls who are random dating are assertive and they date for recreational purposes, (2) girls who are going steady are assertive-receptive and they date for the purposes of mate selection, and (3) girls who are pinned/engaged are receptive and they date for the purpose of anticipatory socialization.

THERE is a large inconsistency within the literature on female dating behavior. On the one hand, the female is characterized as assertive and unmindful of the marriage-oriented reasons for dating.¹ Bowman declares that

The woman plays a role and has a vital part in making choices and in developing the [dating] relationship. . . . There are indications that women are losing their traditional reserve and are more direct and aggressive in their approach to men.²

Herman's 1955 study shows that dating represents, for many girls, merely doing as others do and a means for lessening competition.³ He labels this type of dating "dalliance."

On the other hand, the female is characterized as receptive and very much aware of the marriage-oriented reasons for dating.⁴ Tyler declares that

[While dating] women assume the role of the pursued. Women respond favorably to pursuit by men. . . . It is worth keeping in mind that there is a feminine as well as a masculine role in dating. We have not yet reached the stage where both sexes widely accept the principle of 'dutch dating'. An open display of aggression or initiative on the part of a woman makes men avoid her.⁵

* This paper is based on the author's doctoral dissertation, "Relationships between Female Dating Roles and Reasons for Dating" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1967). The author is grateful for the advice of Robert W. Avery, Jiri Nehnevajsa, Morris Berkowitz, Ray Elling, Howard Rowland, and Jacquelyn A. Alford in preparing the dissertation. Data for the study were gathered from December, 1966, through February, 1967.

** Clyde O. McDaniel, Jr., Ph.D., is Director of Research and Evaluation, Urban Laboratory in Education, Atlanta, Georgia.

¹ An assertive girl is one who takes the initiative or acts as aggressor in most dating activities.

² Henry A. Bowman, *Marriage for Moderns* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 9 and 128.

³ Robert D. Herman, "The Going Steady Complex: A Re-Examination," *Marriage and Family Living*, 17 (1955), pp. 92-98.

⁴ A receptive girl is one who is responsive in most dating activities to male initiative.

⁵ Leona E. Tyler, *The Psychology of Human Differences*

(2nd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956), p. 310.

Cameron and Kenkel's 1960 study shows that 70 percent of the students in their sample were thinking of marriage,⁶ and Hewitt's 1958 study shows that most of the traits his sample desired in a date were also desired in a marriage partner.⁷

One of the reasons for such inconsistency is the failure, on the part of current dating theorists, to specify which stage of courtship is being used as a reference point. While studies have been done to assert that courtship is a progressive phenomenon and that girls do assume different roles for different reasons, no one has related stages and reasons for dating, or stages and dating role. This study was aimed at answering a set of questions which inquire about some of the relationships between the female's role in dating and her reasons for dating (in each stage of courtship). Since these questions also inquire about the conditions under which the relationships obtain, their answers aid in placing dating-courtship firmly within the boundaries of socialization.

This study was designed essentially to discover what impact stages of courtship have on the relationship between female dating role and reasons for dating by answering the following specific questions:

1. In what sequence do stages of courtship occur?⁸
2. What is the relationship between stages of courtship and dating roles?⁹

(2nd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956), p. 310.

⁶ William J. Cameron and William F. Kenkel, "High School Dating: A Study in Variation," *Marriage and Family Living*, 22 (1960), pp. 74-76.

⁷ Lester Hewitt, "Student Perceptions of Traits Desired," *Marriage and Family Living*, 20 (1958), pp. 344-349.

⁸ Only three stages of courtship were used in this study: random dating, going steady, and pinned/engaged.

⁹ Three types of dating roles were used in this study: assertive, assertive-receptive, and receptive. The assertive-receptive role type is manifest when the girl alternates about evenly between assertiveness and receptivity.

3. What other factors influence dating roles?¹⁰
4. What is the relationship between stages of courtship and reasons for dating?¹¹
5. What is the relationship between dating roles and reasons for dating?
6. Is a penalty paid by girls if their dating roles do not change as they move through the stages of courtship?
7. What impact do the perceptions of males have on facilitating change in female dating behavior?

METHODOLOGY

Survey methodology was employed to execute the study. Of the 600 questionnaires which were distributed to undergraduate students at the University of Pittsburgh, 396 were returned from single females while 181 were returned from single males.

Determining adequate sample sizes and selecting respondents were not done arbitrarily. In order to determine the sample size for single females, the author used the following criterion as a guideline: select a sample size which is practical and manageable and yet which is large enough to allow for subgroup analyses. This criterion was buffered by the awareness that the aim of the study was not to generalize to any particular population, but to test relationships. The author consequently decided on a sample size of 400. Since the major intent of the study was to discover the impact of stages of courtship (a trichotomized variable) on the relationships between two sets of dichotomized variables—role behavior (assertiveness and receptivity) and reasons for dating (recreation, mate selection, and anticipatory socialization)—a sample size of 400 allowed the possibility of simultaneously analyzing these relationships. Such a cross-tabulation scheme would result in forty-eight subgroups with a chance possibility of eight to nine cases in each.

In order to place female "subjects" on a sample list, simple random sampling was employed: random sampling, not for the purpose of facilitating accurate generalization to the parent population, but for the purpose of making sure all categories in the antecedent and independent variables would be substantially represented. Since there were about 5,000 single dormitory females in the population from which

¹⁰ Other factors used in this study were three types of reference sources (original family, peer group, and personal-boyfriend), degree of dissatisfaction with dating role, commitment to boyfriend, and complementarity of girl's and boyfriend's personality traits.

¹¹ Three reasons for dating were used in this study: recreation, mate selection, and anticipatory socialization (training to become good marriage mates).

the sample of 400 was to be drawn, from a list of all the single females in the population, every eighth one was designated as a respondent for the study.

A sample size of 200 for single males was arrived at in much the same way. Since there were 9,000 single male students at the University from which a sample of 200 was to be drawn, from a list of all the single male students, every forty-fifth one was designated as a respondent. The reason for using the smaller sample was to make simple comparative analyses of females who were actually dating (and had not completed progress through the courtship system) with males' perceptions of how females should act while dating. The smaller sample facilitated the testing of implicit hypotheses such as the following: "dating males, at certain stages of courtship, expect their girl friends to be assertive (or receptive)."

Summarily, the entire sample can be described in a few statements. It was composed predominantly of young single female students. Further, being undergraduates, they were principally freshmen and sophomores. They were overwhelmingly democratic, upper middle-class, and white. Most of them began dating at or around junior-high-school age. The girls, in a typical middle-class fashion, were somewhat sensitive about revealing their ages or anything connected with age. Most of them had had the experience of the first two stages of courtship—random dating and going steady—but few had been pinned or engaged. Finally, most of the sample presently were either random dating or going steady.

It was impractical to observe directly the behavior which constituted the data for this study. However, indirect observation was practical. Among the many methods available which would facilitate indirect observation, the self-administered questionnaire seemed most appropriate. The foregoing was especially true because the self-administered questionnaire lent itself to simultaneously questioning members of the respondent group with a minimum of interaction among them. The method, which did not require an interviewer because each respondent read the questions herself (himself) and filled in her (his) own answers, took the following form: After each of the potential respondents had been identified and placed on a sample list, each of them was contacted via campus mail. Upon such contact, they were notified that they had been selected and were asked to be available on a specified date in order to fill in the questionnaires. Then, with the aid of the Dean

of Men, the Dean of Women, and relevant dormitory heads, the questionnaires were distributed and promptly returned via campus mail.

The contents of the questionnaire were based on a list of items which are characteristic of dating behavior. These were categorized and judiciously assigned to each variable (see the next section for conceptual and operational definitions of each variable). Where feasible, the items were incorporated in the critical-incident technique form.¹² Furthermore, most of the questions incorporating the items were either phrased normatively or hypothetically in order to allow the respondents to answer the questions freely and nonthreateningly.¹³ The items came from published results of research and from observations of the author and referred to both attitudinal sets and to behavior, such as engaging in sex. In assigning items to variables, the author employed the Guttman Scalogram model. Adherence to this measurement model made it possible to construe each variable along a unidimensional scale and to make no measurement assumptions which exceeded ordinality.

The questionnaire was pretested with small samples of graduate and undergraduate students at the New Kensington branch of the University of Pennsylvania, at Carnegie Institute of Technology, and at Chatham College. In analyzing the data, all zero-order relationships were assessed through the use of Spearman's Rho along with a conservative level of significance (.05). All higher-than-zero-order relationships were assessed through the use of elaboration and percentaging with no level of significance being chosen. That is, where it was necessary to tease out subgroup relationships, percents were employed with modal differences being indications of the patterns of relationships. One essential feature of elaboration is that it allows no single hypothesis to be viewed independently of others. Instead, there is a series of hypotheses which must be looked at in combination. Consequently, the tactic here was to capitalize on *patterns* of percentage differences.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

1. Stages of Courtship

Since it was postulated that significant changes take place among females within cer-

¹² John C. Flanagan, *The Critical Incident Technique* (Pittsburgh: The American Institutes for Research, July, 1954).

¹³ There is clear evidence that expressed value positions do provide insight into behavior. See, for example, Winston Ehrmann, *Premarital Dating Behavior* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1959), pp. 213-276. In this section of his book, Ehrmann provides convincing evidence that girls' most

tain stages of courtship, it was necessary to hypothesize the sequence in which the changes were expected to occur. Dating is known to manifest itself in at least three stages: random dating, going steady, and pinned/engaged. Random dating occurs when the female is dating but not with any special person; going steady occurs when she is dating a special person but has not made any commitment to marry; and being pinned/engaged occurs when she is dating a special person and has made a commitment to marry.

Hypothesis 1: It was expected that these three stages were progressive, i.e., that girls randomly date before they go steady, and randomly date and go steady before they become pinned/engaged.

The rationale for the progression is based on the assumption that girls must scout around a bit before they learn that society expects them to choose special persons who are suitable for marriage mates. When they find such persons, they must test their compatibility by dating them steadily. If compatibility cannot be attained, the girls revert back to random dating, and the process starts again. If and when compatibility is attained, the girls commit themselves to marriage and become engaged.

In order to discover whether or not occupancy in one stage of courtship presupposes occupancy in other stages, the three stages were incorporated as items in the questionnaire. Table 1 shows that, among single females, all the items scaled and yielded a very high Coefficient of Reproducibility (.972) and Minimal Marginal Reproducibility (.820). In the order of their decreasing attractiveness, the stages arranged themselves in the following manner: (1) random dating, (2) going steady, and (3)

intimate courtship behavior correlates quite well with their expressed personal codes about intimate courtship behavior.

TABLE 1. STAGES OF COURTSHIP PARTICIPATED IN

Scale Scores	Single Females		
	F	%	
Random Dating, Going Steady, Engaged	1	103	26
Random Dating, Going Steady	2	186	47
Random Dating	3	107	27
Total		396	100

Coefficient of Reproducibility = .972; Minimal Marginal Reproducibility = .820; no non-scalable questions.

pinned/engaged. One can be sure, with such a high Coefficient of Reproducibility, that if a girl is going steady, she has random dated; and if she is pinned/engaged, she has random dated and gone steady; and any variable which correlates fairly well with stages of courtship participated in can, to that extent, be used in the same manner in which the latter can be used. While it must be remembered that stage of courtship participated in is not synonymous with present stage of courtship, it appears that Hypothesis I was not disconfirmed.

2. Role Behavior

Robert Winch, *et al.*, while empirically elaborating the Winch theory of the complementarity of needs in mate selection, suggested an excellent analytical role scheme which was used in assessing role behavior in this study.¹⁴ The scheme was suggested when, through cluster analysis, Winch and his associates arrived at the general hypothesis that "an important dimension of dating for both sexes is the assertive-receptive dimension."¹⁵ They found, on the one hand, that the *assertive* dater was achievement-oriented, autonomous, dominant, hostile, a status aspirant, and a status striver; they found, on the other hand, that the *receptive* dater was abasive, deferential, succorous, prone to vicariousness, an approacher, and anxious.¹⁶ The behavioral indicants of these were used in this study as assertive and receptive roles respectively.¹⁷

¹⁴ Robert F. Winch, Thomas Ktsanes, and Virginia Ktsanes, "Empirical Elaboration of the Theory of Complementary Needs in Mate Selection," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 51 (1955), pp. 508-518.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 513.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 509-513. Winch and his associates defined each need (n) and each trait (t) behaviorally as follows: a. *achievement* (n)—to work diligently to create something and/or to emulate others; b. *autonomy* (n)—to get rid of constraint of other persons or to be unattached and independent; c. *dominance* (n)—to influence and control the behavior of others; d. *hostility* (n)—to fight, injure, or kill others; e. *status aspiration* (n)—to desire a socioeconomic status considerably higher than one has; f. *status striving* (n)—to work diligently to alter one's socioeconomic status; g. *abasement* (n)—to accept or invite blame, criticism, or punishment or to blame or harm the self; h. *deference* (n)—to admire and praise another; i. *succorance* (n)—to help sympathetically; to nurse, to love, to protect, to indulge; j. *vicariousness* (t)—the gratification of a need derived from the perception that another person is deriving gratification; k. *approach* (n)—to draw near and enjoy interaction with another person or persons; and l. *anxiety* (n)—fear, conscious or unconscious, of harm or misfortune arising from the hostility of others and/or social reactions to one's behavior.

¹⁷ From a strict role standpoint, these two concepts may appear to be polar extremes of a single continuum and thus analytically inseparable. From a behavioral and empirical standpoint, however, the two concepts comprise two separate

The assertive-receptive role was a combination.

Although eighteen items were included in the questionnaire to measure assertiveness, only nine scaled such that an acceptable Coefficient of Reproducibility (.90) and Minimal Marginal Reproducibility (.76) were produced. The items which scaled acceptably—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were the ones dealing with a girl's (1) always being in control on dates, (2) wishing to marry only a potential success, (3) not being dependent on her date, (4) reprimanding her date for misbehavior, (5) being cautious on dates, (6) staying at least one step ahead of her date, (7) wishing to stay at least one step ahead of her date, (8) subtly manipulating her date, and (9) making all the decisions on dates.

As was the case in measuring assertiveness, eighteen items were used to measure receptivity. Again, in order to achieve an acceptable Coefficient of Reproducibility (.90) and an acceptable Minimal Marginal Reproducibility (.819), nine of the items had to be discarded. The items which conformed to an acceptable scale—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were those dealing with a girl's (1) rejoicing when her date rejoices, (2) enjoying being near her date, (3) admiring her date, (4) wanting to be tenderly cared for by her date, (5) dressing to suit her date, (6) being disturbed if her date is disturbed with her, (7) allowing her date to make the decisions on dates, (8) accepting her-date's criticisms, and (9) never going stag to a party.

Hypothesis II: It was expected that the girls in this study would be assertive in the first stage of courtship, assertive-receptive in the second stage, and receptive in the last stage.

The rationale for such a progression is as follows: Girls, in the early stage of courtship, are inexperienced and unsophisticated with regard to appropriate role behavior. They are assertive initially because they view their right to act as aggressors in social interaction as identical with boys' right to act as aggressors. In heterosexual interaction on dates, however, they are made aware of their inappropriate role behavior through negative reinforcement from boys. In this way, they learn that receptivity is more frequently approved than assertiveness. At the same time, they are beginning to place a premium on attaining a mate. Both of these are seen as significant features in the definition of their adult status. They resort to receptivity, then, because it enables them

continua, because a given act can only be either assertive or receptive. Since a role is manifest by acts, by modal definition it may be either of the three role types.

TABLE 2. THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OTHER FACTORS AND ASSERTIVENESS, RECEPTIVITY AMONG SINGLE FEMALES

Role Behavior	Other Factors							
	Stages of Courtship	Original Family Orientation	Peer-Group Orientation	Personal Orientation	Degree of Dissatisfaction	Commitment to Date	Traits Desired in a Date	Actual Traits of Date
Assertive	-.35	.13	.18	-.12	—	.20	-.16	.14
Receptive	.24	.26	.12	.12	.23	.29	-.13	.17

N=396, P<.05.

to obtain a mate, and because it is consistent with their adult status definition.

To test Hypothesis II, present stage of courtship was related to assertiveness and to receptivity. The first stage, of course, is random dating and was assigned a lower weight than the later stages—going steady and pinned/engaged.

The first column in Table 2 shows that (1) *there is a tendency for girls in the early stage of courtship to be assertive*, and (2) *there is a tendency for girls in the later stage of the courtship to be receptive*. Although the correlations are small, they are significant, indicating that a fairly high degree of confidence can be placed in them. Since stages of courtship scale, there is reason to believe that girls in the early stage of courtship approach heterosexual relationships with the belief that they have just as much right, power, and authority as boys. Their immediate goal is to initiate cross-sexual relationships, and the data indicate that they do so with straightforwardness. However, something happens between early dating and later dating, because female role behavior tends to shift toward receptivity. Whatever the influence is, it is difficult to say, but an attempt is made in the succeeding sections to tease out much of it.

It is interesting to note that the two correlations in the first column of Table 2 differ not only in direction (or sign) but also in magnitude. This seems to imply that there is a stronger tendency for girls to be assertive in the first stage than there is for them to be receptive in the last stage, or that fewer girls have changed to receptivity in the later stages. The differences in the sizes of the correlations are probably due to the fact that those girls who have not changed cluster in the second, or transitional, stage of courtship—going steady—wherein they are becoming receptive while not actually relinquishing assertiveness. If this is true, it can be said that the girls in the second stage of courtship are assertive-receptive. Fur-

thermore, it means that a certain amount of credence is accorded to Hypothesis II.

3. The Influence of Reference Systems, Degree of Dissatisfaction, Commitment, and Complementarity on Role Behavior¹⁸

Many other factors can be hypothesized to account for the girls' being assertive in the first

¹⁸ *Original-family orientation*—From among the ten items used to measure the extent of orientation to the original family, only one proved non-scalable. The ten items were hypothetical activities wherein the respondents were asked to indicate how they would be affected if their parents (or parent substitutes) disapproved of their participation in the activities. The nine remaining items yielded a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .911 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .669. The nine items—arranged in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were the ones concerning the respondents' (1) becoming engaged, (2) dating a particular person, (3) dating, (4) petting on dates, (5) going to the movies with a date, (6) attending a football or basketball game with a date, (7) talking to strange boys, (8) studying alone with a boy, and (9) having lunch with a boy.

Peer Orientation—The extent of peer-group orientation was measured by asking respondents to indicate how they would be affected if their age-association sex group (peer group) disapproved of their participation in the same ten hypothetical activities used in measuring the extent of original-family orientation. Again, only one item proved non-scalable. In this case, the Coefficient of Reproducibility was .925 and the Minimal Marginal Reproducibility was .753. The nine scalable items—in the order of their decreasing impact on the respondents assuming their peer groups' disapproval—were the ones concerning their (1) becoming engaged, (2) dating a particular person, (3) dating, (4) petting on dates, (5) talking to strange boys, (6) going to the movies with a date, (7) attending a football or basketball game with a date, (8) having lunch with a boy, and (9) studying alone with a boy.

Personal Orientation—Ten items were used to measure the extent to which the respondents evaluate and determine their own dating behavior. All of the items scaled except two. With a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .915 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .832, the eight scalable items—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were concerned with whether the respondents (1) would prefer to be the sole determiner of whether or not to pet on dates, (2) would enjoy having interesting experiences on dates in spite of whether or not they could be related to friends, (3) would prefer not to discuss with friends the fact of their having sexual intercourse on dates, (4) would disregard her

stage of courtship and receptive in the last stage. The author thought that if some of these other factors related significantly with role behavior, then confidence could be placed in the assumption that they influence assertiveness initially and receptivity later. The last seven col-

friends' opinions if she wished to hold hands on dates, (5) would prefer to be the sole determiner of whether her dating conduct was rewarding to her, (6) would prefer not to have her friends around when she is with her date, (7) would rather go to the movies alone with her date, and (8) would prefer going to games alone with her date.

The Extent of Satisfaction with Dating Role—Ten items were used to measure the extent of satisfaction-dissatisfaction with the dating situation. Only five of them did not scale. Those which did scale yielded a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .900 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .666. The five items included in the scale—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—concerned whether the respondent would be disturbed if she found it necessary to (1) ask her date to talk to her when he is obviously preoccupied in conversation with someone else, (2) ask her date for another date, (3) "pay the tab" for her and her date's dinners, (4) tell her date where the two of them are to go on a date, and (5) straighten her date's tie, hat, hair, etc.

Commitment to Dating Partner—Twenty-one items were used to measure the extent of commitment to dating partner. Ten of these did not scale. With a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .918 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .774, the eleven items which did scale—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were those concerned with whether the respondent would comply if her dating partner wished her to (1) run an errand for him, (2) correct her general, apparently disorderly conduct, (3) raise her scholastic average, (4) travel a long distance to visit his parents, (5) help him pass a test, (6) "pay the tab" for their dinners, (7) give him expensive presents, (8) defy her parents, (9) change her religious preference, (10) change her political preference, and (11) ostracize a long-time friend.

Complementarity of Traits—Complementarity of traits was measured by combining a scale of traits desired in a date with a scale of perceived traits of respondent's date. *Traits Desired in a Date*—Ten items were used to measure traits desired in a date. These were incorporated in the questionnaire as a list of traits, and respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they desired each one in an ideal date. Five of them did not scale. Yielding a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .900 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .690, the five traits which did scale—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were: (1) emotional maturity, (2) stability and dependability, (3) affection, (4) industriousness, and (5) family-mindedness. *Perceived Traits of Respondent's Date*—The same ten traits used in measuring traits desired in a date were used to measure perceived traits of date. The only difference is that this time the respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they thought their dates actually possessed the traits. None of the traits proved non-scalable, and at the outset a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .900 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .730 were obtained. In the order of their decreasing attractiveness, the traits were as follows: (1) neat appearance and good manners, (2) pleasantness of disposition, (3) physical attractiveness, (4) considerateness, (5) affection, (6) industriousness, (7) poise and confidence, (8) stability and dependability, (9) emotional maturity, and (10) family-mindedness.

umns in Table 2 show the relationships among some of the other factors and role behavior.

A number of facts become apparent when these columns are perused. It seems that as the girls make the shift from assertiveness to receptivity, they simultaneously become: (1) more original-family oriented, (2) less peer-group oriented, (3) much more personally oriented, (4) much more dissatisfied with their dating role, (5) more committed to their dates, and (6) relatively unchanged in terms of complementarity (both assertive and receptive girls desire fewer traits in their dates than they actually get).

In view of the foregoing, it is believed that a series of events occur in the process of girls' changing from assertiveness in the first stage of courtship to receptivity in the last stage. Some of the events cause assertiveness, some of them result from assertiveness and cause receptivity, and some of them result from receptivity.

It is believed that achievement as prescribed by the peer group and the original family dominates the first stage of courtship. The girls are much more aware of peer-group norms than they are of original-family norms, but they are unaware of their own ability to prescribe the content of their dating behavior. First, the peer group demands that they initiate cross-sexual relationships; and later the original family demands that they select particular dates and exclude others. Concurrently, the girls in the first stage have not learned that they have less power than the males in initiating cross-sexual relationships, since they were socialized, in the past, on the same generational plane as the males.¹⁹ As a result, they feel that they have just as much right and power to act as aggressors in attaining their goals—heterosexual though they may be—as the males. This causes them to be assertive in their dating behavior and to be fairly satisfied with their dating role, since it conforms with the expectations of their most important reference groups (at that time) and is consistent with their past socialization.²⁰

Continuing, the early daters are not nearly as much "in love" with their dates as are their "sisters" in the later stages of courtship. But it appears that many of them are sometimes inclined to indicate that they are committed to their dates. They have a fairly high evaluation of their dates (even though they do not necessarily desire many traits in their dates). It is

¹⁹ See Talcott Parsons and Robert F. Bales, *The Family, Socialization, and the Interaction Process* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1955).

²⁰ *Ibid.*

quite likely that some of the early daters are "falling in love" with their dates. If this is true, it means that their reference source is shifting to themselves and their boyfriends. When these two phenomena occur, the girls move into the later stages of courtship wherein their boyfriends more seriously reject assertiveness among girls. With emotional investment in boyfriends, the girls are forced to become receptive, because now it conforms to the expectations of their new reference source.

Receptivity, however, is not consistent with past socialization,²¹ and one of the interesting findings in this study is that the receptive girls are dissatisfied with having to play their receptive role. The girls in the later stages play the receptive role, but this does not mean that they have accepted the role. This, indeed, seems to provide a built-in conflict for newlyweds, especially since it is known from a separate finding that married females are more *avant-garde* than single females and that they advocate assertiveness in some of the more crucial areas of dating behavior much more strongly than single females.²²

As a summary, it may be well to speculate on the order in which the dating roles are probably subscribed to by the girls in this study. It appears that the girls are assertive first; that is, they enter the courtship process feeling themselves equal to boys in rights, power, and authority, and they express themselves accordingly while random dating. At a second stage—going steady—the girls are assertive-receptive; that is, receptivity is gradually being learned and is gradually supplanting assertiveness. And finally, at the third stage—pinned/engaged—when the girls are ready to be married, they are receptive.

4. Reasons for Dating

The findings from a study done by Lowrie in 1951 were applicable here.²³ Lowrie's study was designed to discover why students date. Four reasons were identified: (1) mate selection, (2) recreation, (3) anticipatory socialization, and (4) adult role clarification. Because of ambiguity of definition, adult role clarification was not used in this study. Mate selection is the conscious searching for compatible dating and/or marriage partners. Recreation is dating solely for the pur-

pose of enjoying heterosexual interaction. Anticipatory socialization is learning, through dating, the knowledges and skills which are prerequisite to assuming specific marital roles.

In the present study, ten items were incorporated in the questionnaire to measure the extent to which mate selection was used as a reason for dating. All ten items scaled and yielded a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .911 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .818. In the order of their decreasing attractiveness, the ten items were concerned with a girl's (1) making herself as attractive as possible to attract the boy of her choice, (2) *incidentally* dating to choose the right husband, (3) dating, prior to engagement, enough boys to make a choice from a wide range of potential husbands, (4) being provided, through dating, with opportunities to refine her standards for good husbands, (5) not thinking of incompatible dates as good husbands, (6) comparing, in the dating situation, her ideal mate choice with reality, (7) *not just incidentally* considering mate selection while dating, (8) considering "romantic love" as secondary to her other standards for a good husband, (9) dating only those boys whom she considers potentially good husbands, and (10) *primarily* dating to choose the right husband.

Again, ten items were used to measure the extent to which recreation was used as a reason for dating. Only one of these proved non-scalable. With a Coefficient of Reproducibility of .916 and a Minimal Marginal Reproducibility of .820, the remaining nine scalable items—in the order of their decreasing attractiveness—were those concerning a girl's (1) *incidentally* dating to have lots of fun, (2) considering dating as a pleasant opportunity for companionship with the opposite sex without the responsibility of marriage, (3) having fun while dating in order not to miss a large portion of the beauty of youth, (4) considering enjoying herself as a major issue when contemplating going out on a date, (5) dating only those boys with whom she feels most comfortable, (6) obtaining sexual enjoyment while dating, (7) *not* worrying about marriage while on dates, (8) *primarily* dating to have lots of fun, and (9) *not* worrying about pleasing her date, just herself.

From among the ten items used to measure anticipatory socialization, only one proved non-scalable. The Coefficient of Reproducibility and the Minimal Marginal Reproducibility were quite satisfactory, being .917 and .800, respectively. In the order of their decreasing attractiveness, the remaining nine scalable items are those concerning a girl's (1) not being mar-

²¹ *Ibid.*

²² Clyde O. McDaniel, Jr., "Relationships among Female Dating Roles and Reasons for Dating" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1967), p. 135.

²³ Robert H. Lowrie, "Dating Theories and Student Responses," *American Sociological Review*, 16 (1951), pp. 334-340.

TABLE 3. SOME OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG STAGES OF COURTSHIP, FEMALE REASONS FOR DATING, FEMALE ROLE BEHAVIOR, AND MALE ATTITUDES TOWARD FEMALE ASSERTIVENESS AND RECEPTIVITY

Female Reasons for Dating	Present Stage of Courtship			Female Role Behavior	
	Random Dating	Going Steady	Engagement	Assertiveness	Receptivity
Anticipatory Socialization	-.28**	-.15**	.30**	—**	.16**
Recreation	.24**	-.17**	-.30**	.23**	—**
Mate Selection	.15**	.32**	.12**	.29**	.32**
<i>Male Attitudes</i>					
Toward Female Assertiveness	.10*	-.12*	-.24*		
Toward Female Receptivity	.16*	.20*	.30*		

* N = 181 (Number of Males).
 ** N = 396 (Number of Females).
 P < .05.

riageable to a particular boy until he has seen her assuming a variety of different roles, (2) learning, through dating, the general attitudes and behaviors of boys in order to facilitate initial marital adjustment, (3) *incidentally* dating in order to learn what behavior is necessary for being a good wife, (4) learning how to please a date in order to learn how to please a husband, (5) testing sexual compatibility with a potential mate while dating, (6) allowing engagement to serve as a trial marriage, (7) not seeing anything "wrong" with trial marriages, (8) *primarily* dating in order to learn what behavior is necessary for being a good wife, and (9) dating only those boys who can teach her something about marital roles.

Hypothesis III: It was expected that the girls in this study date for the purpose of recreation in the early stage of courtship, mate selection in the second stage, and anticipatory socialization in the last stage.

The rationale for the progression is based on the assumption that girls are either not aware of or not interested in the maritally oriented functions of dating in the early stage. They learn soon that, women, to be socially acceptable, must be married. As a result, a conscious mate selection process ensues; this is done in a sequence of tests while going steady. Once a mate has been selected and tested, girls' emphases shift to the more immediate future wherein they begin actively to anticipate some of their perceptions of their roles as wives.

While these three reasons for dating are isomorphic with the implicit deductions of each of three theoretical schools of thought (see next section), Lowrie failed to cash in on a major theoretical contribution by not relating them

with certain types of dating roles, stages of courtship, or with any of the variables involved in courtship. However, Lowrie's study does indicate that young people do not date solely for the purpose of having fun. Many are seriously concerned with other functions, particularly the marital and socialization functions.

The first three cells in the first three columns of Table 3 show the relationships among present stage of courtship and the three reasons for dating among single females. The data indicate that anticipatory socialization is positively correlated with the engagement stage of courtship; recreation is positively correlated with the random dating stage of courtship; and mate selection is positively correlated with all three stages of courtship, but the highest correlation obtains with the going-steady stage of courtship. This makes it highly probable that the following relational pattern obtains: (1) in the early stage of courtship, there is a tendency for the girls to justify their dating on the basis of mate selection and recreation (however, recreation dominates); (2) in the interim stage of courtship, there is a tendency for them to justify their dating on the basis of mate selection; and (3) in the last stage of courtship, there is a tendency for the girls to justify their dating on the basis of mate selection and anticipatory socialization (however, anticipatory socialization dominates). If such a pattern obtains, a certain amount of credibility is accorded to Hypothesis III and to the assumptions underlying it.

5. Relationships Among Role Behavior and Reasons for Dating

From the foregoing it follows that role behavior and reasons for dating among single fe-

males are related to each other in the following manner:

Hypothesis IV: The females who date primarily for the purpose of recreation are very likely to be assertive.

Hypothesis V: The females who date primarily for the purpose of mate selection are very likely to be assertive-receptive.

Hypothesis VI: The females who date primarily for the purpose of anticipatory socialization are very likely to be receptive.

The main focus of Hypotheses IV, V, and VI is: "Exactly what do assertive and/or receptive girls get out of courtship?" As seen in the last two columns of Table 3, this question was answered by relating types of role behavior to reasons for dating. The data indicate that (1) *the assertive girls date for the purposes of mate selection and recreation*; (2) *the receptive girls date for the purposes of mate selection and anticipatory socialization*; and, since both assertive and receptive girls justify their dating on the basis of mate selection, (3) *the assertive-receptive girls date for the purpose of mate selection*.

It seems that if girls were continually assertive throughout courtship, two of the functions uncovered by Lowrie would go lacking, but if they were continually receptive, they would get no fun out of dating. If they were sometimes assertive and sometimes receptive, they would be continually searching for mates. Assertiveness does not undermine the functions of courtship; it merely contributes to specialized aspects of them. Since it is known that the girls shift from assertiveness to receptivity as they move through courtship and that their dating emphases also shift, the findings in the last two columns of Table 3 were expected. However, the findings indicate that Hypotheses IV, V, and VI are not disconfirmed.

The data show that at least three schools of thought can be used to summarize the role behavior of modern-day females.²⁴ Waller and Gorer's school (an Assertive school) seems to present a neat characterization of early female daters as assertive and motivated by hedonistic

²⁴ These three schools can be abstracted from a careful reading of the following sources: Willard Waller, *The Family: A Dynamic Interpretation* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1938); Geoffrey Gorer, *The American People* (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1948); Ernest Burgess and Harvey Locke, *The Family: From Institution to Companionship* (New York: American Book Company, 1945); and Samuel H. Lowrie, "Dating Theories and Student Responses," *American Sociological Review*, 16 (1951), pp. 334-340.

considerations.²⁵ Burgess and Locke's school (an Assertive-Receptive school) seems to give a fairly accurate presentation of females who are in transit from the early stage (random dating) to the last stage (pinned/engaged).²⁶ Their girls are pictured as sometimes assertive and sometimes receptive and motivated by desires to select mates. The stage of courtship which best describes this school is going steady. Lowrie's school (a Receptive school) more properly portrays later daters, wherein the girls are receptive and motivated by desires to attain anticipatory socialization benefits.²⁷ The stage of courtship which best describes this school is pinned/engaged.

Each of the schools is valuable as far as it goes. Each characterizes a part of the dating process. When the three schools are combined, however, a much clearer picture of dating roles and functions is presented, wherein one can see that dating roles and functions change as the girls move through courtship. The question immediately arises as to what would happen if the roles and functions do not change. Apparently, some penalty is paid by the girls if they do not change their role behavior from one stage to another. The next section presents insight into the nature of this penalty.

6. Assertiveness, Receptivity, and Socialization

If the girls do not change from assertiveness to receptivity while moving through courtship, one wonders what happens. The data, in this study, show that two things happen: (1) society imposes negative sanctions, and (2) the girls do not progress to later stages of courtship, or if they do progress, they soon regress to earlier stages. The first finding is presented in the last two cells of the first three columns of Table 3. These six cells show that "society" (in the form of the male) does not, in fact, like females who are assertive. And more significantly, they dislike them most in the last stages of courtship.²⁸ The more advanced the men are in

²⁵ Waller, *The Family*; and Gorer, *The American People*.

²⁶ Burgess and Locke, *The Family*.

²⁷ Lowrie, "Dating Theories and Student Responses."

²⁸ The attitudes of males toward female assertiveness and female receptivity were assessed by asking the 181 single males in the study to respond to the same items which were used to measure assertiveness and receptivity among females. For both attitudes toward female assertiveness and attitude toward female receptivity, about half of the items had to be discarded in order to obtain Coefficients of Reproducibility of .90. The items which were retained were identical with those included in the scales of assertive and receptive dating behavior among females.

TABLE 4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRESENT STAGE OF COURTSHIP AND STAGE OF COURTSHIP PARTICIPATED IN

Present Stage of Courtship		Stage of Courtship Participated in	
	%		%
Random Dating	55	Random Dated	26
Going Steady	30	Random Dated, Gone Steady	47
Pinned/Engaged	15	Random Dated, Gone Steady, Pinned/Engaged	27
Total	100 (396)		100 (396)

$r_s = -.60, P \leq .05.$

the stages of courtship, the more they de-emphasize female assertiveness and the more they emphasize female receptivity. It can be assumed, then, that with such an attitude toward the female role in dating, the males impose serious negative sanctions on the expression of female assertiveness during the later stages of courtship. Credibility is added to this statement when one remembers (from Table 2) that girls become, during the later stages, more personally and boyfriend oriented. This means that they are, indeed, aware of the types of sanctions imposed by their boyfriends and that they are more concerned with learning the proper role behavior for an adult woman and wife.

The second finding is presented in Table 4 which shows that a significant number of girls do, in fact, regress or fail to progress to further stages of courtship. This is evidenced by the fact that the correlation between present stage of courtship and stage of courtship participated in is $-.60$, indicating that (1) most of the girls who presently reside in later stages of courtship are quite likely to have participated in earlier stages, and (2) *many of those who have participated in later stages are quite likely to be presently residing in earlier stages.* The negative exchange which is implied by the second statement seems to take place between random dating and going steady, pinned/engaged. More girls are presently random dating than have *only* random dated in the past. And fewer girls are presently going steady or are pinned/engaged than have gone steady or have been pinned/engaged in the past. The residue of present random daters is accounted for in the two succeeding categories under "Stages of Courtship Participated In" ("Random Dated, Gone Steady" and "Random Dated, Gone Steady, Pinned/Engaged"). This means that some of the girls who are presently random dating were once going steady and were once pinned/engaged.

Since it is known that the early daters (random daters) are assertive and the later daters

(pinned/engaged) are receptive, one would guess that one of the main reasons for the negative exchange is the failure, on the part of some later daters, to shift from assertiveness to receptivity. One can visualize a learning cycle wherein girls learn through trial and error to become receptive. If they do not become receptive, they never get married. Admittedly, the foregoing is a very strong statement, but the evidence in Table 2 shows that most of the later daters are not assertive, and most of the early daters are not receptive in spite of the fact that many of them were once residents of later stages of courtship. Presumably, the later daters who are still assertive will repeat the cycle until they become receptive.

SUMMARY

In order to provide a picture of the foregoing findings, elaborate cross-tabulation procedures (contingency analyses) were performed, the results of which are reported in Figure 1. The cross-tabulation involved: (1) dichotomizing each of the variables in the paradigm (except stages of courtship and commitment which were trichotomized); (2) cross-tabulating role behavior with reasons for dating among single females (modal categories were pulled out and placed in column 2); and (3) sequentially cross-tabulating the results in column 2 with present stage of courtship, reference groups, complementarity, commitment, and degree of dissatisfaction. The modal categories were pulled out and placed in column 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Such a picture makes it quite clear that the six hypotheses raised at the outset are credible. Now it is possible to summarize the major findings of this study. The findings are as follows:

1. There is a tendency for the girls in this study to random date first, to go steady second, and to become pinned/engaged third or last.
2. There is a tendency for girls in this study to be assertive in the first stage (random dating) and receptive in the last stage (pinned/engaged). They

FIGURE 1. SUMMARY

Socialization Sequence: Stages of Courtship	Relationship Between Role Behavior—Reasons for Dating	Reference-Group Orientation	Degree of Complementarity	Degree of Commitment	Degree of Satisfaction with Dating Role
1. Random Dating	Assertive—Recreation	Original Family, Peer Group	Complementary Plus	Low/Medium	Satisfied
2. Going Steady	Assertive Receptive—Mate Selection	Original Family, Peer Group	Complementary Plus	Medium	Satisfied/Dissatisfied
3. Pinned/Engaged	Receptive—Anticipatory Socialization	Self and Boyfriend	Complementary Plus	Medium/High	Dissatisfied

are assertive-receptive in the second stage (going steady).

3. There is a tendency for girls in this study who are assertive to be original-family and peer-group oriented, complementary plus, low-medium in commitment, and mostly satisfied-dissatisfied with their dating roles.
 4. There is a tendency for girls in this study who and receptive to be original-family and personally and boyfriend oriented, complementary plus, medium-high in commitment, and mostly dissatisfied with their dating roles.
- It is believed that some of the intervening variables cause assertiveness, some result from assertiveness and cause receptivity, and some result from receptivity. However, further research is needed to assess the exact causal status of the intervening variable set.
5. There is a tendency for girls in this study who are in the first, second, and third stages of courtship to give recreation, mate selection, and anticipatory socialization, respectively, as their primary reasons for dating.
 6. There is a tendency for the girls in this study who give recreation as their primary reason for dating to be assertive. They are probably participating in the first stage of the courtship socialization sequence (random dating). This is consistent with Waller and Gorer's Assertive school with regard to reason for dating and role behavior.
 7. There is a tendency for the girls in this study who give mate selection as their primary reason for dating to be assertive-receptive. They are probably participating in the second stage of the courtship socialization sequence (going steady). This is consistent with Burgess and Locke's Assertive-Receptive school with regard to reason for dating

and role behavior.

8. There is a tendency for the girls in this study who give anticipatory socialization as their primary reasons for dating to be receptive. They are probably participating in the third stage of the courtship socialization sequence (pinned/engaged). This is consistent with Lowrie's Receptive school with regard to reason for dating and role behavior.
- Assertive dating behavior does not undermine the functions of courtship, but contributes to specialized aspects of them, i.e., recreation and mate selection.
9. Tentatively, evidence is offered to the effect that girls in this study do learn to be receptive. If they are not receptive in the early stages, they probably have a lot of fun while dating. If they are not receptive in the later stages, they either regress to earlier stages, or at least they fail to progress to more advanced stages. Such a phenomenon is enhanced by the males' strong dislike for girls who are assertive in the later stages.

A single testing of a theory is never definitive. Each hypothesis included in a theory is always threatened by the possibility of its rejection. Such a possibility is allowable only through an appeal to more research. A single testing only heightens the awareness that further research, to be useful, should be conducted with different and more sophisticated methods. In the present study, a college population, the use of the questionnaire technique, the use of percentages, and the use of ordinal statistics may have presented impediments to the validity of the findings. Further testing of the theory in this study must attempt to avoid these limitations.

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