

PERCEPTIONS OF MEN CONCERNING WOMEN

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of Problem.	1
Social Roles	1
The Male Role.	2
Influences on Masculine Identification	4
Differences in the Sexes	5
Summary	7
Purpose of the Study.	8
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	10
Implications for the Present Study.	14
III. PROCEDURE.	17
Selection of Subjects	17
Data Sheet.	17
<u>Positive Regard Scale</u>	18
Analysis of the Data.	20
IV. RESULTS.	21
Description of Subjects	21
The Item Analysis	23
Responses to <u>Positive Regard Scale</u> Items.	28
Examination of Hypotheses and Discussion of Results	34
V. SUMMARY.	44
Limitations of the Study and Recommendations.	45
A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY	48
APPENDIX.	52

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Characteristics of the Subjects	22
II. Item Analysis Reflecting Discriminating Items on the <u>Positive Regard Scale</u>	24
III. Percentages of Favorable and Unfavorable Responses to Items of the <u>Positive Regard Scale</u>	30
IV. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Age.	34
V. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Class.	35
VI. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Number of Sisters.	36
VII. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Social Class	36
VIII. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Dating Status.	37
IX. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Religious Preference.	38
X. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Church Attendance.	39
XI. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Mothers' Authority Role.	40
XII. H Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard</u> <u>Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Perception of Own Masculinity.	41
XIII. Mann-Whitney U Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive</u> <u>Regard Scale</u> Scores Classified According to Femininity of Mother.	42

LIST OF TABLES (Continued)

Table	Page
XIV. Mann-Whitney U Score Reflecting Differences in <u>Positive Regard Scale</u> Scores Classified According to the Degree of Femininity Preferred in Dating Partners	43

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

Profound changes in the role of women during the past century have been accompanied by innumerable contradictions and inconsistencies... Sometimes culturally defined roles are adhered to in the face of new conditions without a conscious realization of the discrepancies involved. The reciprocal actions dictated may be at variance with the demands of the actual situation. This may result in an imbalance of privileges and obligations or in some frustrations of basic interests. (Komarovsky, 1946, 184).

If these conditions existed in 1943 when Komarovsky did her study of role concepts, the events of the last 25 years have magnified the contradictions and inconsistencies to an even greater degree.

Whatever the characteristics of the changes, the two basic assumptions made by Sherriffs and McKee (1959) would appear warranted:

1. The roles of the sex groups are changing.
2. The relationship between the groups is in disequilibrium.

Social Roles

Hartley (1959b) has defined the concept of social role as "all personal qualities, interests, attitudes, abilities, and skills which one is expected to have because one occupies a certain status or position..." (page 457). Social roles, and more specifically, sex roles, are differentially learned, according to sex and background, at a rather early age. Rabban (1950) found evidence that boys and girls of the working

class are earlier and more clearly aware of the sex role patterns than are both boys and girls of the middle class. Also, boys are found to be more clearly aware of "sex-appropriate" behavior in both classes than are girls. Rabban, in citing a possible cause for the social class differences, noted that there is a great rigidity in definition of roles in the lower classes with the peer group strongly demanding conformity to these rigid sex role expectations, while in the middle class there is inconsistency in the definition of roles.

The Male Role

The role definitions for the male are largely influenced by outside forces such as folk myth or the social structure, and thus pose difficulty for the male (Hartley, 1959b). Coombs (1969) is of the opinion that today many male children hear that masculinity is the equivalent of antifemininity. Whatever girls do the male child often believes he must do the opposite. Furthermore, our society puts a tremendous push on the boy to shift his identity away from his mother. A feeling of male superiority may often be the major compensation for making it all worthwhile to go to the trouble of shifting identity to the father.

Hartley (1959) found that a great many boys do give evidence of anxiety centered in the whole area of sex-connected role behaviors. Anxiety frequently expresses itself: in overstraining to be masculine, in feeling panic at being caught doing anything that is traditionally defined as feminine, and in hostility toward anything even hinting at femininity, including females themselves. Hartley (1959b) believes:

The frequency and intensity of cross-sex hostility in our male subjects, their manifest anxiety about their adequacy, and the

prevalence in them of marked inflexibility, suggest a dismaying prognosis for their future adjustments in a society where the female roles are changing rapidly.

In her study of 41 eight- to eleven-year-old boys, Hartley (1959) found four configurations of variations in degree of anxiety and modes of handling it: (a) overstriving with explicit hostility expressed against the opposite sex and with marked rigidity concerning the differentiation between the role activities assigned to men and those assigned to women, (b) overstriving with less hostility but marked rigidity, (c) tendency to give up the struggle, accompanied by a protest against social expectations, and (d) a successful, well-balanced implementation of the roles which is positive in approach, showing clear differentiations between concepts of male and female roles, but with understanding of the complementary relationships between the roles, and with marked flexibility in relation to the activities assigned to them.

Coombs (1969) believes that the more insecure the young male feels, the more he compulsively plays the masculine role by acting unfeminine. He falls victim to the myth of masculine superiority.

Brenton (1966) has his own particular view of the American male and his quest for dominance. As he explains:

This, then, is the crux of the male superiority; society arbitrarily stated that there were certain things the woman was permitted to do and other things she was forbidden to do; then it proclaimed the male superior and the woman inferior because she couldn't do the things she'd been forbidden to do in the first place! If this is indeed superiority, one must marvel at the male's capacity for self-delusion and shudder at the sight of his awesome insecurity (page 76).

Influences on Masculine Identification

As the young man seeks patterns for his masculine role behavior he may look for guidance from his peer group. But as Hartley (1959b) indicates, the peer groups are not any better informed than the youth himself as to what masculinity is. They define the role in terms of black and white, with no greys in between. This becomes a distorted and oversimplified view with overemphasis on physical strength and athletic skill, and with limited attention given to the expression of tender feelings or the acceptance of responsibility toward those who are weaker.

Often inaccurate conceptions are formed as the peer group encourages adherence to certain stereotypes, which Klein (1950) describes as "false classificatory concepts to which, as a rule, some strong emotional-feeling tones of like or dislike, approval or disapproval is attached. It is a popular means to simplify a complex social reality" (page 3).

Benson (1968) comments on the male peer group:

The boy culture, passed on from generation to generation in male peer groups, revels in masculine striving and transmits strong sentiment against feminine ways in general, as well as against the particular girls who happen to live in the neighborhood (page 191).

Mussen (1961) has found that adolescent boys who have a masculine person to show them an interest will possess more strongly developed personal qualities that are considered to be characteristic of males in our culture.

As males tend to have relationships with women similar to those expressed by their fathers, Benson (1968) suggests that the father can help the boy become independent from his mother and help him establish

his masculinity, but he (the father) must promote emancipation from women in general and the characteristically feminine style of life without loss of fundamental respect for it.

Differences in the Sexes

In our society differences may be observed between the typical personality characteristics of the two sexes. The sex differences in personality are believed to result in part from the differences in the way boys and girls are reared (Barry, Bacon, and Child, 1953).

It would be logical to assume that part of the animosity that exists between the sexes is due to a lack of understanding of why the differences exist (i.e., socialization differences due to culturally defined norms) and a lack of appreciation for many complementary differences.

Didato and Kennedy (1956) found that value systems are closely related to more basic elements of personality. MMPI scores are significantly related to personal values and discriminate between values of males and females.

Differences in values, as examined by Garai and Scheinfeld (1968), were indicated when the findings showed that men aim at achievement in a sphere of work and creative endeavor, while women aim at achievement in love and affiliative roles. Also, social success as determined by wealth, prestige, and vocational advancement dominates the lives of male adolescents, whereas sentimental or emotional success as demonstrated by the ability to make friends and enjoy a satisfying relationship is more frequently mentioned as important by adolescent girls.

With their development of the Masculinity-Femininity test, which

is an index of a subject's mental masculinity and femininity, Terman and Miles (1936) showed that the factual repertoires of men and women are not the same. One would naturally infer that this would inevitably result in sex differences with respect to opinions and perceptions in general.

When Bennett and Cohen (1950) studied the values of men and women, they found:

1. By comparison to women, men feel a greater value in being uncompromising, with a strict, formal, orthodox approach.
2. By comparison to women, men feel a greater value for ruthlessness, excitability, and daring.
3. By comparison to women, men feel a greater value in wary distrust.

This study seems to indicate that masculine values are built around a picture of the world as rather hostile and demanding. The male value suggests high competition in an environment that is none too pleasant. Efficient and competitive defensive and offensive actions are the best safeguards against the dangers of a hostile world.

Another area of differing opinions expressed by males and females concerns the professional or occupational realm. Goldsen and her associates (1960) conclude that the American society, by inculcating the recognized and accepted roles appropriate to the sexes, encourages men and women to want different things from their work. Women today may seek equality of opportunity in professional life, but this by no means implies that the needs and goals of their occupational lives correspond, or need correspond, to those of men.

In examining motives of men and women, Bennett and Cohen (1950)

found evidence of an obvious masculine motive in only one area. Men desire success, both with absolute intensity and with relatively greater intensity than do women. The two additional fairly dominant motives for men, the need to be loved and to be secure, are thought to be more characteristically feminine.

It is interesting to note that in this study there is evidence that the feelings which are more characteristically female are also the feelings that are strongest for both male and female. Differences between the sexes and their thinking may not be as great as it is perceived.

Summary

In speaking of males and females in the cultural roles, Margaret Mead (1949) has said:

Externally at some given period in history and in some set of social arrangements, it may often look as if one sex gained and the other lost, but such gains and losses must, in the end, be temporary. To the extent that women are denied the right to use their minds, their sons suffer as well as their daughters. An over-emphasis on the importance of virility will in the end make the lives of men as instrumental as an over-emphasis on merely their reproductive functions makes the lives of women. If our analysis is deep enough...it is possible to say that to the extent that either sex is disadvantaged, the whole culture is poorer, and the sex that superficially inherits the earth, inherits only a very partial legacy... Each sex is shaped from birth by the presence and behavior of both sexes, and each sex is dependent upon the other (page 369).

It has been discussed that in the socialization process boys are constantly reminded that they must avoid feminine behavior and must show signs of being able to cut themselves loose from the world of women that surrounds them. They develop hostility toward girls and things feminine in very early childhood, and the hostility recurs

throughout their lives (Benson, 1968). There is evidence that animosity thus created early in life tends to persist, to a degree, affecting the interpersonal relationships between men and women.

The degree to which the "hostility toward the enemy" still exists in the minds of young college males of the present day has not been investigated to any great extent. If there does, in truth, remain a misconception of females and a hostile feeling toward them, it would be advantageous to be able to detect and measure these feelings. Thus, it is the goal of this study to contribute to the body of knowledge in this area of human behavior.

Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of college fraternity men concerning women, and to relate these perceptions to certain personal and social factors.

The specific purposes of this study were to:

1. Develop an instrument, the Positive Regard Scale, to measure the degree of positive regard for women expressed by college aged men.
2. Compare the differences in Positive Regard Scale scores according to: (a) age, (b) classification in school, (c) number of sisters, (d) social class, (e) dating status, (f) religious preference, (g) church attendance, (h) perception of mother's femininity, (i) perception of mothers' authority role, (j) perception of own masculinity, (k) degree of femininity preferred in dating partners, in order to ascertain whether these factors are related to regard

for women.

It is believed that such a study will provide information which will be useful to those specialists who have responsibilities for education for family relationships. If, as Benson (1968) suggests, males are taught to develop from early childhood hostility toward girls and things which are feminine, and if this hostility continues throughout their lifetime, a greater understanding of the perceptions and attitudes of men toward women is needed in order to provide the basis for education for sound relationships.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As Montagu (1968) has observed, "Our culture has managed to produce a complex separateness and lack of understanding between the sexes" (page 20). Indicative of the difficulties in communication between the sexes is a finding by Blood (1965) that students on a university campus were unable to perceive ideals expressed for dating partners by the opposite sex.

It has been suggested that men have more problems with the lack of understanding between males and females than do women. This may be related to the findings that Jourard (1964) presents in his discussion of self-disclosure:

Men generally don't reveal as much about themselves as do women. They seem to be less willing and less able to let their inner secrets come out into the open and become a part of their relatedness to other persons. White males tell things to parents and to male friends about the same, but to female friends significantly less... Women are hence the recipients of more disclosures than men. Perhaps this is a reason why men's concepts of the subjective sides of others--especially women--is often naive, crude, or inaccurate (pages 13, 51).

Concerning this lack of understanding between the sexes, Benson (1968) states that there are many aspects of boys which girls know nothing about and vice-versa.

When Smith (1939) attempted to ascertain some of the things that eight- to fifteen-year-old boys and girls did know about each other, he found that perceptions and opinions varied with age and, of course,

sex. With increasing age, boys have a progressively poorer relative opinion of girls and the girls have a progressively better opinion of the boys. Both boys and girls are more likely to assign good traits to their own sex than to assign bad traits to the other sex. In other words, they show more humility in judging themselves on the basis of bad traits and less humility in judging themselves on the basis of good traits.

McKee and Sherriffs (1957), in a study using an adjective checklist, found that both men and women expressed a systematic preference for males. A significantly greater number of women expressed more favorable attitudes toward men than toward women, as the women ascribed a significantly larger number of unfavorable adjectives to females than did the men. Most subjects did not have an unfavorable regard for women, just a less favorable regard. Most subjects, given the chance, deny partiality for either sex. This may be a "veneer of equalitarianism overlying their more firmly established beliefs" (page 366).

This study also found evidence for the idea that the content of the self conceptions of men and women will very likely reflect the differences in the esteem with which the two sexes are regarded.

In 1963 Steinmann studied the concept of the feminine roles expressed by the members of 51 middle class families with college age daughters. Some of the findings were:

1. The fathers' ideal woman is significantly more other-oriented (i.e., the counterpart of the man and children in her life) than his concept of the average woman.
2. There is a marked difference in the girls' concept of what they consider their role to be and what they think

are their fathers' expectations of them.

In actuality, the men see the women as made up of equal amounts of nurturing and achieving elements. In picturing the ideal woman they ask that she retain this basic orientation, but that she be slightly more nurturing. Even though there is considerable agreement among mothers, daughters, and fathers as to what the woman's role should be, there is a discrepancy between what men want in their ideal woman and what women think men want.

Another study by McKee and Sherriffs (1959) was concerned with men's and women's beliefs and ideals about the sexes, as well as their self-concepts. They found that the women's conception of the ideal male corresponds to men's beliefs of what women want them to be. Significantly more is asked of him than he asks of women, it might be added. Men select a larger number of favorable adjectives than women when indicating their belief about what the other sex wants. Men believe that women want them to have the favorable qualities of both sexes and about equally. Women believe that men want them to possess favorable feminine characteristics to a much greater extent than favorable masculine characteristics. Women think men wish to restrict them from characteristics that are thought to be masculine. In a sense, the men do restrict women to some extent, but women's beliefs exaggerate this degree of restriction.

Though professional success is characteristically somewhat "masculine," respondents of a Fortune survey said that of equally attractive girls, one who had been successful in business would be an overwhelmingly better choice for marriage than one who had never worked. Evidently men are not as afraid of capable girls as women might think

they are. However, very few of the respondents said that they thought her intelligence would be an asset, and practically none said she would be easier to get along with (Fortune, 1946).

Other perceptions of men concerning women that were indicated in the survey were:

1. Men thought that women were more polite and well-mannered and slightly more unselfish.
2. Men perceived women as less even-tempered and more extravagant in spending.
3. The greater percentages of the responses on almost all of the items of the entire survey were indicative of a negative regard for women.
4. If one thought his sex superior in any one respect, he was likely to be anti the opposite sex in all matters.

A study of adolescent boys by Walters and Ojemann (1952) was concerned with the position i.e., subordinate, partnership, superordinate, in which the males would place females given specific situations. The data suggest that the partnership role is quite popular. However it was found that wives do not, evidently, occupy the same status as sisters. A higher percentage placed sisters in a superordinate position than placed wives in a superordinate position. Boys tend to place girls in a superordinate position in the area of education, but in very few other realms.

Smith (1939) concluded that among the most compelling of objective conditions under which human beings operate is the opinion of others concerning them. But there is a separateness between the sexes that precludes the forming of opinions based on real facts, in many

instances. As Montagu (1968) has indicated, there is a great deal to learn and unlearn; there needs to be an education of the sexes for each other, not in opposition to each other.

Implications for the Present Study

There appears to be a scarcity of research dealing with the perceptions of men concerning women. Most projects investigating males' perceptions of the opposite sex have been done with kindergarten or primary school children, but few during the last decade have used college subjects. Even fewer have been concerned with a sample of the Greek social fraternity members who comprise a distinctive segment of the campus population.

Goldsen and associates (1960) studied many aspects of college students, including fraternity life:

It begins to become clear that fraternity membership implies a certain style of life... Fraternity membership is linked to economic status. There is a marked tendency for the fraternities to recruit and to appeal to students who can better afford the fixed charges (fees, pins, lodging, and so on) as well as the style of life (page 75).

It was also found that members of fraternities and sororities are more likely than non-members to have active dating lives; fraternities are influential in determining dating patterns. Further, fraternity men are more likely than independents to say that they feel dating is an important part of college life. Only six per cent of the fraternity men said they had no dates, while ten per cent of the independent men reported no dates. While 19 per cent of the fraternity men had fewer than one date a month, 25 per cent of the independents reported dating this infrequently. In view of these facts, an analysis of the effects of socio-economic status and dating patterns on men's perceptions of

women was undertaken in the present study.

Religion is another aspect of the college student's life that affects his interactions and perceptions. Other investigators have shown that:

1. Religious attendance of students of eleven universities (N = 2975) was as follows: (a) at least once a month - 53 per cent; (b) holidays and important occasions only - 21 per cent; (c) never or almost never - 25 per cent.
2. Religious students are more likely than others to express conformity to prevailing values of their major social roles, and are most likely to express their faith in the cooperative and trustworthy aspects of human nature (Goldsen et al., 1960).

Landis (1960) found that males and females reporting no religious preference more often reported having the greatest difficulties in making friends with others. The present study includes comparisons of religious affiliation and activity concerning men's perceptions of women.

Family background and interaction patterns are known to influence one's perception of his environment. With younger children, Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1964) found the following relationship between number and sex of siblings and self-concept:

1. Presence of like siblings tends to reinforce self-sex preference in two and three children families.
2. Presence of opposite sex siblings tends to decrease self-sex preference.
3. In three children families, the male child with two female

siblings shows heightened masculinity and anxiety.

4. As the family size increases, anxiety in the male child decreases.

Authority patterns in the family can also have a bearing on self-concepts and interpersonal relationships. Again, with younger children, in grades 3-6, Burton and Whiting (1961) observed that boys from mother-dominated homes are aggressive, impulsive, unfriendly, and unsuccessful in influence attempts. Aggressiveness is more often expressed toward girls than boys. The boys disliked girls and tended to rate themselves more powerful, while the girls rated them low on power. In the present investigation, the effects of siblings and mother dominance in relation to college men's regard for women was noted.

Mussen and Rutherford (1963) found that there is no evidence that high masculinity of fathers or high femininity of mothers had significant effect on boys' masculinization. However, it has been shown that when boys identify strongly with their fathers they ascribe more than average femininity to their mothers (Beier and Ratzeberg, 1953). The degree to which a man subscribes to the traditional masculine stereotypes dictates in part the attitude he has regarding women and the world he must share with them (Brenton, 1966). Too, the present study was designed to measure to what degree the femininity of the mother and the perceptions of one's own masculinity affect men's regard for women.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Selection of Subjects

The 122 Caucasian male subjects of this study were students at Oklahoma State University and were predominantly sons of middle-class families. They ranged in age from 18-23 years.

The sample represents members and pledges of four of the social Greek fraternities at Oklahoma State University. Care was exercised in choosing the groups that would make it possible to obtain responses from a cross-section of all the fraternities.

Cooperation in administration of the questionnaire was secured from the respective presidents of each fraternity. A brief explanation of the project was given and plans were made for the distribution and completion of the questionnaires during the weekly chapter meetings. Each of the presidents was asked to encourage maximum participation from his group. The data were collected in March of 1970.

In the original sample there were five fraternities represented, but due to the low percentage of returned questionnaires from one group, their questionnaires were excluded from the analysis.

Data Sheet

The first section of the instrument was composed of items concerned with background information of the respondents, including:

(a) age; (b) class in school; (c) number of brothers; (d) number of sisters; (e) dating status; (f) religious preference; (g) church attendance; (h) social status.

The McGuire-White (1955) Index of Social Status (short form) was used to assess the status of each respondent, based on the criteria of the subjects' fathers' occupation, source of income, and level of educational attainment.

Also included in the general information section of the instrument were the following items concerning the respondent's perceptions concerning himself and others:

1. I would consider my mother _____.
(very feminine, not very feminine)
2. In my own family my mother is _____.
(very domineering, not very domineering, rather submissive)
3. I would consider myself _____.
(very highly masculine, highly masculine, of average or low masculinity)
4. I prefer to date girls who are _____.
(highly feminine, not highly feminine)

Positive Regard Scale

The Positive Regard Scale consisted of 47 statements which were developed as a result of an extensive review of the literature and utilized to assess perceptions of men concerning women. The items were concerned with economic, social, intellectual, and emotional characteristics of women.

Selected items were adapted from older instruments (McKee and

Sherriffs, 1957; Komarovsky, 1946) and others were constructed around a basic concept or trait.

A panel of five family life specialists were given the items and were asked to evaluate them in the following manner:

1. Indicate beside each statement the response that would reflect the highest regard for women.
2. Give suggestions for modification of the items to improve clarity.
3. Indicate those items which should be deleted from the questionnaire due to their lack of relevance to the concept being studied.

Of the original number of items, 22 were rejected by the specialists. In view of the recommendations of these judges, corrections and modifications of the remaining items were made, resulting in the final form of the questionnaire which was submitted to the respondents. (See Appendix.)

A five point Likert-type scale was utilized on which respondents indicated one of the following responses for each statement: strongly agree, mildly agree, undecided, mildly disagree, or strongly disagree. The following is an example of the statements: "Women, in general, seem less capable of logical thinking than men."

A numerical value of two was given when the most favorable response toward women was indicated by the subject, a value of one for the next most favorable response, and a zero value for negative or undecided responses. The ratings of the family life specialists were utilized in determining the most favorable response toward women for each item. The sum of the numbered values represented the score of

each respondent on the Positive Regard Scale.

Analysis of the Data

The chi-square test was used in an item analysis of the Positive Regard Scale to test for internal consistency. A Spearman-Brown Correction formula was employed to measure the reliability of the items utilizing the split-half technique.

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the following null hypothesis:

1. There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores according to: (a) age; (b) class; (c) number of sisters; (d) social class; (e) dating status; (f) religious preference; (g) church attendance; (h) mother's authority role; (i) perception of own masculinity.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to test the following null hypothesis:

2. There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores according to (a) perception of mother's femininity (b) degree of femininity preferred in dating partners.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of Subjects

A detailed description of 122 college men who served as subjects of this study is presented in Table I.

The respondents ranged from 18 to 24 years of age, with the greatest proportion in the age category 18-20 years (64 per cent). There were approximately the same number of students in each of the four undergraduate classifications. The social class status of most of the subjects was upper-middle class (70 per cent), with very few (6 per cent) in the upper lower class. The greatest percentage of the men (56 per cent) had either one or two sisters, though 43 per cent had no sisters. While 67 per cent of the subjects reported casual dating status, there were 20 per cent who indicated that they were pinned or engaged. Most of the subjects were Protestant (87 per cent). Church attendance at least once a month was reported by 62 per cent of the subjects, though 12 per cent said they did not attend services at all. For the most part, the men perceived their mothers as very feminine and not very domineering. The greatest proportion (62 per cent) of the subjects considered themselves to be of average masculinity, while 28 per cent considered themselves highly masculine, and 10 per cent felt that they were very highly masculine. Most of the men preferred to date highly feminine girls.

TABLE I
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS

Variables	Classification	No.	%
Age	18-20	78	63.93
	21-23	43	35.24
	24-26	1	.83
Class	Freshman	30	24.71
	Sophomore	32	26.45
	Junior	29	23.97
	Senior	29	23.97
	Graduate	1	.83
Number of sisters	None	43	35.25
	1 or 2	68	55.74
	3 or more	11	9.01
Social class	Upper middle	70	58.33
	Lower middle	43	35.83
	Upper lower	7	5.83
Dating status	Casual dating	83	67.21
	Steading dating	15	12.30
	Pinned or engaged	24	19.67
Religious preference	Protestant	104	86.67
	Catholic	9	7.50
	Other	7	5.83
Church attendance	At least once a month	75	61.98
	On special occasions	31	25.63
	Not at all	15	12.39
Perception of mother's femininity	Very feminine	95	87.61
	Not very feminine	20	17.35
Perception of mother's authority role	Very domineering	26	22.41
	Not very domineering	70	60.34
	Rather submissive	20	17.26
Perception of own masculinity	Very highly masculine	12	9.92
	Highly masculine	34	28.10
	Average masculinity	75	61.98
Preference for dating partner	Highly feminine	77	66.96
	Not highly feminine	38	33.04

The Item Analysis

In order to obtain an index of the validity of the items in the Positive Regard Scale, a chi-square test was utilized to determine which items significantly differentiate those subjects scoring in the upper quartile and those subjects scoring in the lower quartile on the basis of total scores. Table II indicates that of the 47 items in the questionnaire, 35 were found to be significantly discriminating at the .05 level or beyond.

A split-half reliability coefficient, computed with the Spearman Brown Correction formula, of .97 was obtained in determining an index of the reliability of the items in the Positive Regard Scale.

TABLE II
 ITEM ANALYSIS REFLECTING DISCRIMINATING ITEMS
 ON THE POSITIVE REGARD SCALE

Item	df	χ^2	Level of Sig.
1. Women perform as well as men under pressure.	2	13.59	.01
2. The majority of women are only interested in a man in terms of what they can get from him.	2	6.27	.05
3. Women are usually more sincere than men.	2	4.82	n.s.
4. Women are more easily deceived by a charming line than men.	2	4.39	n.s.
5. Most women have more emotional control than men.	2	3.00	n.s.
6. In general, women complain more than men.	2	10.05	.01
7. Most women are usually supportive of men.	2	4.06	n.s.
8. Most women are more difficult to get along with than men.	2	14.12	.001
9. Professional women have as much right as men to be treated as equals by the men with whom they work if they are as qualified.	2	7.16	.05
10. Women, more often than men, tend to talk too much.	2	3.00	n.s.
11. In general, women are more able to cope with criticism than men.	2	3.18	n.s.
12. Women, in general, seem less capable of logical thinking than men.	2	10.09	.01
13. Women have as much right as men to get involved in politics.	2	3.70	n.s.

TABLE II (Continued)

Item	df	χ^2	Level of Sig.
14. Women are more vain than men.	2	2.08	n.s.
15. Most women are often more vicious than men in speaking of others.	2	9.87	.01
16. Women have the right to compete with men in every sphere of economic activity.	2	15.65	.001
17. Women cannot achieve as satisfactorily as men in a number of professional roles because they are too high strung.	2	12.28	.01
18. Women are usually as responsible as men.	2	17.60	.001
19. Most women are usually more unreasonably jealous than men.	2	11.63	.01
20. Most women are as able as men to base actions on objective facts rather than on irrational personal feelings.	2	13.28	.01
21. Most women are more selfish than men.	2	19.88	.001
22. Most women are as punctual as men.	2	8.88	.05
23. Women are usually more ungrateful than men for the kindnesses rendered them.	2	17.98	.001
24. Most women are more considerate of others than are men.	2	7.33	.05
25. Women generally show less poise in awkward situations than men.	2	25.76	.001
26. General intelligence is as high in women as in men.	2	9.82	.01
27. Women are often more preoccupied with keeping up with the Joneses than are men.	2	20.23	.001

TABLE II (Continued)

Item	df	χ^2	Level of Sig.
28. Women are not as likely as men to dwell upon and exaggerate personal difficulties	2	1.50	n.s.
29. Women are as imaginative as men.	2	14.92	.001
30. Women are usually more interested than men in promoting the welfare of others.	2	13.86	.001
31. Women remain loyal to friends more often than men.	2	5.69	n.s.
32. Generally, women are less capable of financial management than are men.	2	7.34	.05
33. Women are more likely than men to give up principle in order to gain social status.	2	9.22	.01
34. Women tend to exaggerate the truth more than men.	2	10.96	.01
35. Women are less critical of others than are men.	2	3.30	n.s.
36. More women than men make selfish demands on their dating partners.	2	12.02	.01
37. Greed for material possessions seems less common in women than in men.	2	3.26	n.s.
38. Women more than men lack the persevering qualities that are necessary for success in the business world.	2	28.26	.001
39. Women are more unstable than men.	2	13.77	.01
40. Women possess more common sense than men.	2	3.18	n.s.

TABLE II (Continued)

Item	df	χ^2	Level of Sig.
41. Women have fewer meaningful goals than men.	2	14.93	.001
42. Men are generally more emotionally mature than women.	2	5.60	n.s.
43. Women communicate more honestly with others than do men.	2	1.71	n.s.
44. Women do not behave as reliably as men.	2	27.26	.001
45. Men are more likely to overestimate themselves than are women.	2	8.18	.05
46. Women are more stubborn than men.	2	7.97	.05
47. Women demand more attention than men.	2	7.96	.05

Responses to the Positive Regard Scale Items

The subjects agreed that women, if equally competent, should be treated as equals in professional circles by the men with whom they work. As Table III indicates, this particular item (number 9) elicited a greater percentage of favorable responses than any other item on the questionnaire. As further evidence of high regard for women, almost 80 per cent of the men agreed that general intelligence was as high in women as in men, and that women were as imaginative as men.

As might be expected, the men perceived women as more likely than men to possess the emotional-supportive qualities. Most respondents (at least 60 per cent) said that women were more considerate of the feelings of others, more concerned for the happiness of others, while they were less ungrateful, and less likely to make selfish demands on their dating partners than men. The subjects also agreed, for the most part, that women had as much poise as men in awkward situations.

More than half the subjects considered women as responsible as men and thought that women had the right to compete with men in all spheres of economic activity.

Approximately one-half of the college males expressed positive regard toward women in perceiving them capable of performing as well as men under pressure. In 47 per cent of the cases the men thought that women had at least as many meaningful goals as men, which would seem to indicate that women's ambitions are being recognized as meaningful, even though they are different than those of men. Indications of such differences were reported by Turner (1964), who showed that adolescent girls look forward to careers that are "eminence-" or "culture-oriented" (i.e., intrinsic rewards); whereas boys look to

TABLE III
 PERCENTAGES OF FAVORABLE AND UNFAVORABLE RESPONSES
 TO ITEMS OF THE POSITIVE REGARD SCALE

Item	<u>Percentages of Favorable and Unfavorable Responses</u>		
	Most Positive	Least Positive	Negative
1. Women perform as well as men under pressure.	6	42	52
2. The majority of women are only interested in a man in terms of what they can get from him.	37	30	39
6. In general, women complain more than men.	6	14	80
8. Women are more difficult to get along with than men.	10	30	60
9. Professional women have as much right as men to be treated as equals by the men they work with if they are as qualified as the men.	58	31	11
12. Women, in general, seem less capable of logical thinking than men.	14	21	64
15. Most women are often more vicious than men in speaking of others.	4	19	76
16. Women have the right to compete with men in every sphere of economic activity.	23	37	40
17. Women cannot achieve as satisfactorily as men in a number of professional roles because they are too high strung.	13	20	67

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	<u>Percentages of Favorable and Unfavorable Responses</u>		
	Most Positive	Least Positive	Negative
18. Women are usually as responsible as men.	21	47	31
19. Most women are usually more unreasonably jealous than men.	10	25	65
20. Most women are as able to base actions on objective facts rather than on irrational personal feelings.	8	25	67
21. Most women are more selfish than men.	15	31	54
22. Most women are as punctual as men.	4	27	69
23. Women are usually more ungrateful than men for the kindnesses and services rendered them.	29	39	31
24. Most women are more considerate of others than are men.	13	38	49
25. Women generally show less poise in awkward situations than men.	19	46	34
26. General intelligence is as high in women as in men.	34	39	27
27. Women are often more preoccupied with "keeping up with the Joneses" than are men.	9	14	77
29. Women are as imaginative as men.	34	44	22

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	<u>Percentages of Favorable and Unfavorable Responses</u>		
	Most Positive	Least Positive	Negative
30. Women are usually more interested than men in promoting the happiness of others.	16	42	42
32. Generally, women are less capable of financial management than men.	8	20	71
33. Women are more likely than men to give up a principle in order to gain social status.	6	14	79
34. Women tend to exaggerate the truth more than men.	11	22	67
36. More women than men make selfish demands on their dating partners.	22	31	46
38. Women more than men lack the persevering qualities that are necessary for success in the business world.	5	28	67
39. Women are more unstable than men.	7	13	80
41. Women have fewer meaningful goals than men.	12	34	53
44. Women do not behave as reliably as men.	10	20	70
45. Men are more likely to overestimate themselves than are women.	14	38	47

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	<u>Percentages of Favorable and Unfavorable Responses</u>		
	Most Positive	Least Positive	Negative
46. Women are more stubborn than men.	12	24	64
47. Women demand more attention than men.	6	11	83

more extrinsic rewards, such as monetary considerations.

Negative regard for women was expressed by at least 60 per cent of the subjects in the following areas:

1. Emotionality: Women were seen as too high strung for certain professions, and lacking in objectivity in decision-making.
2. Perseverance: Women were judged to be not as reliable as men, lacking in the perseverance necessary for success in business, and more likely to give up their principles than men.
3. Specific mental capacity: Women were said to be less capable than men of logical thinking and financial management.

The results of the Positive Regard Scale showed that men found women lacking several of the skills or characteristics necessary for successful interpersonal relationships. The subjects agreed that women complain more than men, demand more attention, and are, in general, more difficult to "get along with" than are men. Women were seen as more vicious, more stubborn, and more likely to exaggerate the truth than men.

Examination of Hypotheses and
Discussion of Results

Hypothesis I(a). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to age.

The Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was utilized in determining if significant differences existed in Positive Regard Scale scores of college males according to age. As shown in Table IV, an H score of 3.33 was obtained, indicating that differences in Positive Regard Scale scores were not significantly related to age. It is noted, however, that those respondents falling in the 21-23 age category expressed more favorable Positive Regard Scale scores than did those in the 18-20 year category.

TABLE IV

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AGE

Age	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
18-20 years	77	56.92		
21-23 years	43	68.69	3.33	n.s.
24-26 years	1	44.50		

Hypothesis I(b). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to class in school.

The Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance revealed that no significant differences existed in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to class in school. There was a difference of 13.02 in the average rank

of seniors and the average rank of freshmen, indicating a greater degree of positive regard for women expressed by seniors. However, it must be remembered that this difference is not significant (see Table V).

TABLE V
H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD
SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO CLASS IN SCHOOL

Class	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
Freshman	30	55.56		
Sophomore	32	63.61		
Junior	29	54.76	3.53	n.s.
Senior	29	69.55		
Graduate	1	44.50		

Hypothesis I(c). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to number of sisters of the respondents.

In examining this hypothesis, the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was utilized to determine if there were significant differences in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to the number of sisters reported by the respondents. Table VI indicates that the H score obtained was not significant. There was a trend, however, though not statistically significant, for those with three or more sisters to have a higher rank than those with one or two sisters or those with no sisters at all.

TABLE VI

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD SCALE
SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF SISTERS

Number of Sisters	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
No sisters	43	61.06		
1 or 2 sisters	68	58.73	3.56	n.s.
3 or more sisters	11	80.36		

Hypothesis I(d). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to social class.

The Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was utilized to determine if a significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores existed according to social class. Table VII shows that there was an H score of .417 obtained, indicating that there was no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores according to social class.

TABLE VII

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SOCIAL CLASS

Social Class	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
Upper Middle	70	62.23		
Lower Middle	43	58.15	.417	n.s.
Upper Lower	7	57.64		

Hypothesis I(e). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to dating status.

Table VIII indicates that no significant difference was found when the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was applied to the examination of this hypothesis. The results seem to suggest that the degree of involvement in a dating relationship is not a major factor in determining one's positive regard for women.

TABLE VIII

H SCORES REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE
REGARD SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO DATING STATUS

Dating Status	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
Casual Dating	83	59.27		
Steading Dating	15	69.10	1.20	n.s.
Pinned or Engaged	24	64.48		

Hypothesis I(f). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to religious preference.

When this hypothesis was subjected to the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance, no significant difference was found in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to religious preference. Table IX shows that those respondents indicating preference for other than Protestant or Catholic beliefs had the highest average Positive Regard Scale scores.

TABLE IX

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD
SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO
RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE

Religious Preference	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
Protestant	104	60.34		
Catholic	9	58.89	.135	n.s.
Other	7			

Hypothesis I(g). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to church attendance.

In examining this hypothesis, the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was again used. As the H score indicates in Table X, there was no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to church attendance. It is noted that those reporting that they never attend church services have the lowest average rank concerning Positive Regard Scale scores. This finding implies that the extent of one's religious activity does not influence one's regard for women to any significant degree.

TABLE X

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD
SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO
CHURCH ATTENDANCE

Church Attendance	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
At least once a month	75	61.47		
Special occasions	31	64.81	1.65	n.s.
Never	15	50.80		

Hypothesis I(h). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to authority role of respondents' mothers.

In order to determine if there was a significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to the authority role of the mothers of the respondents, a Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was applied. An H score of 1.43 was obtained, indicating that the differences were not significant. Contrary to what might be expected, those men who perceived their mothers as being very domineering had the highest average rank, indicating more positive regard for women. The findings for these college age men seem to contradict the results of the studies done with children by Burton and Whiting (1961) who found that 9- to 12-year-old boys from mother-dominated homes were unfriendly and disliked girls more than did boys from father-dominated homes. Though the differences in the present study are not significant, they suggest that perhaps the rather submissive mothers do not foster respect for the abilities and positive assets of women due to their

hesitation to assert their own personalities to as great a degree as the more dominant mothers. There may also be an indication that the college age males no longer value the womanly attributes of bygone eras--reticence, dependency, and frailty.

TABLE XI

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD
SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO
MOTHERS' AUTHORITY ROLE

Role of Mother	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
Very domineering	26	65.08		
Not very domineering	70	57.31	1.43	n.s.
Rather submissive	20	54.10		

Hypothesis I(i). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to respondents' perception of own masculinity.

When this hypothesis was subjected to the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance, no significant difference was found between Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to the perception of respondents' own masculinity. However, as Table XII indicates, those who considered themselves very highly masculine had a higher average rank than did those who considered themselves of average masculinity.

TABLE XII

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD
SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO
 PERCEPTION OF OWN MASCULINITY

Perception of Own Masculinity	No.	Average Rank	H	Level of Sig.
Very highly masculine	12	71.88		
Highly masculine	34	67.66	3.77	n.s.
Average masculinity	75	56.24		

Hypothesis II(a). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to perception of mothers' femininity.

In examining this hypothesis, the Mann-Whitney U test was used. As Table XIII indicates, the difference in Positive Regard Scale scores according to femininity of the respondents' mothers was significant at the .05 level. The evidence suggests that highly feminine mothers foster positive regard for women on the part of their sons. This particular finding may lend support to the findings of Mussen and Rutherford (1963) that strong identification with the father usually means regarding the mother as possessing higher than average femininity. It is suggested that if the young man strongly identifies with the masculine role without anxiety over his masculinity, he will be able to relate to others positively, even to members of the opposite sex.

There is an apparent contradiction of these findings with the previously stated conclusion that men with domineering mothers have higher positive regard for women. It would seem logical that the

woman who is considered very domineering would not be considered very highly feminine. However, the data may indicate the disappearance of the traditional definition of femininity (passive, submissive). College men may be recognizing the worth of an assertive, aggressive woman. In this instance, the word "domineering" loses some of its negative connotation.

TABLE XIII

MANN-WHITNEY U SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD SCALE SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FEMININITY OF MOTHER

Femininity of Mother	No.	Median Rank	Level of Sig.
Very feminine	95	64	.05
Not very feminine	20	40	

Hypothesis II(b). There is no significant difference in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to the degree of femininity preferred in dating partners.

The Mann-Whitney U test was again utilized to examine the significance of the differences in Positive Regard Scale scores classified according to the degree of femininity preferred in dating partners. Table XIV shows that the difference was not significant.

TABLE XIV

H SCORE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES IN POSITIVE REGARD SCALE
 SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF
 FEMININITY PREFERRED IN DATING PARTNERS

Preference for Dating Partner	No.	Median Rank	Level of Sig.
Highly feminine	77	66	n.s.
Not highly feminine	38	57	

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to develop an instrument, the Positive Regard Scale, to measure the degree of positive regard for women as reflected by university men, and to relate Positive Regard Scale scores to selected personal and social factors.

The sample was composed of 122 college fraternity men, ranging in age from 18 to 24 years. They were from predominantly upper-middle class, Protestant homes. The data were obtained during March, 1970.

The questionnaire submitted to the subjects consisted of an information sheet for securing background information, and the Positive Regard Scale, designed to measure their positive regard for women.

The chi square test was used in an item analysis of the Positive Regard Scale to determine those items that significantly differentiated the subjects scoring in the upper quartile and the lower quartile groups on the basis of the total scale scores. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was used to determine if Positive Regard Scale scores were independent of: (a) age, (b) classification in school, (c) number of sisters, (d) social class, (e) dating status, (f) religious preference, (g) church attendance, (h) mothers' authority role, (i) perception of own masculinity.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine if Positive Regard Scale scores were independent of: (a) perception of mothers'

femininity; and (b) the degree of femininity preferred in dating partners.

The results and conclusions of the study were as follow:

1. Thirty-three of the forty-seven items of the Positive Regard Scale were significantly discriminating at the .05 level or beyond.
2. A split-half reliability coefficient, computed with the Spearman Brown Correction Formula, of .97 was obtained.
3. According to the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance, only one variable was significant at the .05 level: it was found that femininity of the mother was significantly related to higher scores on the Positive Regard Scale. Factors that were not significantly related to Positive Regard Scale scores were: (a) age, (b) class in school, (c) number of sisters, (d) social class, (e) dating status, (f) religious preference, (g) church attendance, (h) mothers' authority role, (i) perception of own masculinity, and (j) the degree of femininity preferred in dating partners.

Limitations of the Study and Recommendations

It is suggested that repeated studies of the perceptions of men concerning women be conducted, utilizing more heterogeneous samples. For example, it would be desirable to obtain Positive Regard Scale scores from collegiate males in various sections of the country, from different racial and ethnic backgrounds, from independent living groups, and from married college males.

To expand the study even further, it would be interesting to

note the differences in scores on the Positive Regard Scale according to stage in the life cycle, i.e., adolescence, young adulthood, middle age, and later years. Does regard for women increase with age and more extensive interaction?

In the present study data on the level of each respondent's masculinity was obtained simply by asking each respondent to rate the degree to which he considered himself "masculine." The degree to which this is an accurate perception is not known, but perhaps an extensive survey of personality by using such instruments as the MMPI and the Terman-Miles Masculinity-Femininity Test would yield more complete data that would, in turn, result in significant differences in Positive Regard Scale scores according to respondents' own masculinity.

It may be quite possible that the response elicited concerning self-perception of own masculinity is somewhat indicative of the degree of personal adjustment and life satisfaction, especially in the age group being studied. The latter stipulation is made because in the particular stage of development known as later adolescence, in which most of these men would be categorized, identity and self-concept are yet being established, questioned, and modified to a great extent. There may still be vestiges of the anxiety concerning masculine identification (Hartley, 1959), and concern for adherence to the stereotyped and very rigid behavior prescribed by the peer group. Thus, the degree to which the college male sees himself as conforming to the male stereotype may indicate the degree of personal happiness and adjustment. Perhaps future studies will be concerned with isolating the variables of adjustment or life satisfaction and studying them explicitly in relation to regard for women.

A study comparing the regard for women expressed by fathers and that expressed by their sons, and analyzing the differences in terms of selected family and child-rearing background variables may indicate more significant differences in scores.

A further investigation of perceptions of women might be concerned with the regard for women expressed by men in the business world who work with women of professional status as compared to the positive regard for women expressed by men who do not work with women.

It is suggested that there is a need for clarification of the concept of women and femininity in relation to present values and changing conditions in society. There is also a need for freedom from inflexibility of role definitions that have evolved. It is hoped that, as Montagu (1968) observes, "the more we talk about the relations of the sexes, the greater will be our progress toward establishing better relations between them" (page 201).

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APPENDIX

Fraternity_____

FACE SHEET DATA

1. Age (check one) 18-20 _____
21-23 _____
24-26 _____
 2. Class (check one) Freshman _____
Sophomore _____
Junior _____
Senior _____
 3. How many brothers? _____
 4. How many sisters? _____
 5. If the head of your household is one other than your father,
indicate which one: mother _____
sibling _____
step-father _____
legal guardian _____
self _____
 6. In school, your father completed grades:
_____ none
_____ 1-4
_____ 5-7
_____ 8-11
_____ 12 or high school equivalent
_____ 1-3 years of college
_____ college graduate
_____ graduate work
 7. Your father's work is: (describe fully) _____
-

8. The main source of your father's income is:
 wages, hourly wages, piece work, weekly checks
 salary, monthly checks
 profits or fees from business or profession
 savings and investments
 inherited savings and investments
 private relief, odd jobs, seasonal working, share cropping
 public relief
9. Dating status:
 casual dating, not too often
 casual dating, go out frequently
 dropped
 pinned
 engaged
10. Religious preferences:
 Protestant
 Catholic
 Jewish
 Other
11. Church attendance:
 at least two times a month
 at least once a month
 once every three months
 special occasions (Christmas, Easter, etc.) only
 not at all
12. I would consider my mother:
 very feminine
 not very feminine
13. In my own family, my mother is:
 very domineering
 not very domineering
 rather submissive
14. I would consider myself:
 very highly masculine
 highly masculine
 of average masculinity
 low masculinity
 very low masculinity
15. I prefer to date girls who are:
 highly feminine
 not highly feminine

QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: Indicate your response to each statement by placing in the blanks provided the letters that correspond to your opinions about the statements. (This is not a test with right and wrong answers, but merely a survey of your own beliefs.)

Key: Strongly Agree - SA
 Strongly Disagree - SD
 Mildly Agree - MA
 Mildly Disagree - MD
 Undecided - U

- _____ 1. Women perform as well as men under pressure.
- _____ 2. The majority of women are only interested in a man in terms of what they can get from him.
- _____ 3. Women are usually more sincere than men.
- _____ 4. Women are more easily deceived by a charming line than men.
- _____ 5. Most women have more emotional control than men.
- _____ 6. In general, women complain more than men.
- _____ 7. Most women are usually supportive of men.
- _____ 8. Women are more difficult to get along with than men.
- _____ 9. Professional women have as much right as men to be treated as equals by the men they work with if they are as qualified as the men.
- _____ 10. Women, more often than men, tend to talk too much.
- _____ 11. In general, women are more able to cope with criticism than are men.
- _____ 12. Women, in general, seem less capable of logical thinking than men.
- _____ 13. Women have as much right as men to get involved in politics.
- _____ 14. Women are more vain than men.
- _____ 15. Most women are often more vicious than men in speaking of others.
- _____ 16. Women have the right to compete with men in every sphere of economic activity.

- ___17. Women cannot achieve as satisfactorily as men in a number of professional roles because they are too high strung.
- ___18. Women are usually as responsible as men.
- ___19. Most women are usually more unreasonably jealous than men.
- ___20. Most women are as able as men to base actions on objective facts rather than on irrational personal feelings.
- ___21. Most women are more selfish than men.
- ___22. Most women are as punctual as men.
- ___23. Women are usually more ungrateful than men for the kindnesses and services rendered them.
- ___24. Most women are more considerate of others than are men.
- ___25. Women generally show less poise in awkward situations than men.
- ___26. General intelligence is as high in women as in men.
- ___27. Women are often more preoccupied with "keeping up with the Joneses" than are men.
- ___28. Women are not as likely as men to dwell upon and exaggerate personal difficulties.
- ___29. Women are as imaginative as men.
- ___30. Women are usually more interested than men in promoting the happiness of others.
- ___31. Women remain loyal to friends more often than men.
- ___32. Generally, women are less capable of financial management than are men.
- ___33. Women are more likely than men to give up a principle in order to gain social status.
- ___34. Women tend to exaggerate the truth more than men.
- ___35. Women are less critical of others than are men.
- ___36. More women than men make selfish demands on their dating partners.
- ___37. Greed for material possessions seems less common in women than in men.

- 38. Women more than men lack the persevering qualities that are necessary for success in the business world.
- 39. Women are more unstable than men.
- 40. Women possess more common sense than men.
- 41. Women have fewer meaningful goals than men.
- 42. Men are generally more emotionally mature than women.
- 43. Women communicate more honestly with others than do men.
- 44. Women do not behave as reliably as men.
- 45. Men are more likely to overestimate themselves than are women.
- 46. Women are more stubborn than men.
- 47. Women demand more attention than men.

VITA

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