THE RELATIONSHIP OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, ALEXITHYMIA, AND UNIVERSAL-DIVERSE ORIENTATION, TO GENDER ROLE CONFLICT

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Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
August, 2003

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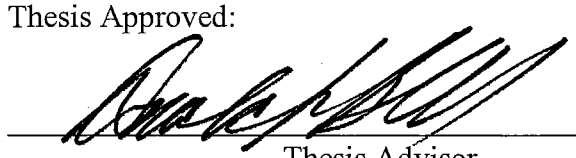
Thesis Approved:



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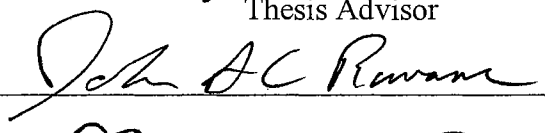

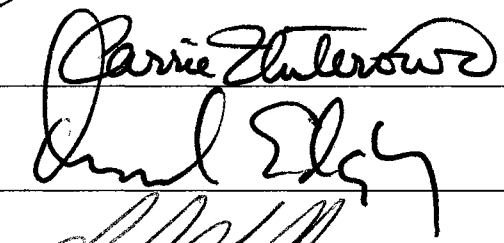

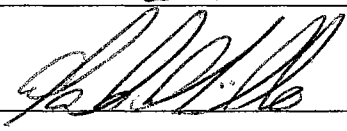

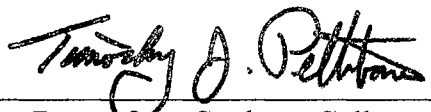

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

During my Ph.D. and the writing of this dissertation, I received a lot of valuable assistance from those who were willing to help me to identify what was wrong, and to move toward fixing it. I would like to express my thanks to the faculty of the Oklahoma State University Counseling Psychology Department, and especially my advisement committee, for their help in creating a new identity as a Psychologist.

I would especially like to thank my dissertation advisor, Dr. Donald L. Boswell. The working relationship we had during the construction of this dissertation was exactly what I needed. The mentoring relationship I received from him in becoming a therapist was, and is, invaluable. Most importantly, the personal friendship he has shown me enabled me to grow in ways I had not expected.

In addition I would like to thank my family for encouraging my efforts, and understanding my distance during the process. Nicholas, Al, and my parents: Denise, and LeRoy, have been of more support than they can know.

This work is dedicated to a special kind of help. It is dedicated to those who asked: "What is good, and right, and how can we nurture and help it grow"? This kind of help is rare, healing, and without it I would have been unable to complete my dissertation, or my Ph.D.

This work is dedicated to Angela, Jeff, Peggy, Jennifer, Rex, and Lesley. Your blessing was always there; right when I needed it. Thanks everyone.

Ah'Sha'na.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

We live in an era of rapid change. In 1998 the United Nations estimated the global population at 5.9 billion, twice what it was in 1960. At that time they projected, the population in 2000 to be 6.3 billion persons. Estimates of how quickly the body of knowledge is growing vary widely. It is said that the body of human knowledge will have doubled four times between 1998 and 2000 (Emrick, 1996). It is astonishing to think that more books have been published during our lifetime, than in the rest of the entire recorded history of mankind. Our numbers and knowledge are beginning to outpace our thinking. For example, advances in medicine and genetics are presenting us with ethical dilemmas we aren't ready to solve.

It is quite possible that the pressure of this rapid change is felt nowhere more powerfully, and at the same time more subtly, than in our socially constructed notions of gender, and the resulting patterns of interaction with each other. Women, in opposition to centuries of oppression, have advocated for many changes in the role of femininity. Consciousness raising work in the 1960's and '70's gave us new understanding of sexual harassment, rape, child abuse, the realities of patriarchy, and gave women the opportunity to enter the work force (Brown, 1994). The homeostasis of relationships between men and women has been upset, and some would say that it threw masculinity into a crisis

(Levant, 1995). Men have not been active in working toward changing masculinity, because they have not felt the sting of oppression that motivates women. As Women's roles have evolved, and thus changed our culture, men are surprised at expectations that masculinity should also change. The resulting pressures on men to behave in ways that conflict with various aspects of traditional masculinity ideology have never been greater. New pressures to commit to relationships, communicate one's innermost feelings, nurture children, share in housework, integrate sexuality with love, and curb aggression and violence, have shaken traditional masculinity ideology (Levant, 1996). Just as women in the '60s began to struggle with the feminine gender role, men are now trying to create a new way of being masculine, one that will meet their needs as individuals, in relation to others, and in a swiftly changing culture.

The dominant culture in North America places a high emotional value on gender role. Evidence for this can be found weekly in the evening news, as we hear of violence against those trying to live outside prevailing gender definitions, and in the necessity of legislation to try to protect them. This emotional investment is what demands that men be more flexible in the way they experience and carry out masculinity, as well punishes them for trying to do so. Being successful in navigating these conflicting standards requires sophisticated emotional skills. For example, balancing the traditional pressure to establish both a successful career, as well as a newer desire to nurture our children, necessitates that men be able to manage the feelings that come up, not only due to each of these aspirations, but also due to the conflict of resource allocation they represent. Should a man work overtime to please his employer, or should he go home to take care of his children? Not only does the man have to manage his own emotions, there is an

advantage to being able to help manage those of the people around him (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). In this case the man is likely to disappoint either his boss, or his family. Being able to help calm the disappointed party would be very helpful to the man. There is some reason to suspect that these kind of emotional management skills are more socially constructed within the feminine gender role, than in the masculine (Levant & Pollack 1995). Moreover, the traditional masculine gender role, which is still the norm, is designed to eschew these kinds of skills. Men may be poorly equipped to make the changes that our society would like to see.

Another reason these changes are difficult to make is that masculinity may have a low tolerance for differences among people. Competition is thought to be one of the cornerstones of traditional masculinity (Levant & Pollack 1995). At best, men may not be interested in people who are different from them; more likely, men see people of difference as competitors. Economic status and social discrimination place men of color in a foreigner role within the dominant culture. Many men of color face both economic castration, and political trauma. While adaptation is an individual process, each cultural subgroup provides techniques to help protect men against feelings of inferiority and oppression. For example, African-American men adopt "cool pose", Latino men live by machismo, and Native American men struggle to maintain contact with a way of life and traditions of tribal elders (Lazur & Majors, 1995). Homosexual, or bisexual men are also seen as different, and are not accepted. They are considered to have failed to fulfill the masculine role, and are not considered "real" men (Harrison, 1995). In general, masculinity comes with a belief that people of difference are to be dominated (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo 1994).

Masculinity

Masculinity ideology refers to the importance of men adhering to culturally defined standards for male behavior. To one degree or another, each individual endorses and internalizes cultural beliefs about masculinity and the male gender. There are clearly many masculinity ideologies. For example, a group of pro-feminist men will probably have a different collection of component beliefs about masculinity than will a group of career military men (Pleck 1991). Despite the diversity in what it means to be masculine, our culture holds a group of standards and expectations that can be thought of as traditional masculine ideology. Four components of traditional masculinity ideology have been proposed: that men should not be feminine (labeled "no sissy stuff"); that men should strive to be respected for successful achievement ("the big wheel"); that men should never show weakness ("the sturdy oak"); and that men should seek adventure and risk, even accepting violence if necessary ("give 'em hell") (David & Brannon, 1976). Other efforts to define traditional masculinity have largely been expansions to this basic paradigm.

Because men are socialized to subscribe to traditional masculinity ideology it is at the heart of stress men feel due to their gender. It is the yardstick that men get measured by, and swatted with, when they try to behave differently, or add a new dimension to their personality. For example, in order for men play with dolls, advertisers had to rename them 'action figures'. It doesn't matter how big a doll's machine gun is; a masculine person seen with a 'doll' would be subject to ridicule. Pressure to behave differently than one would like is sure to lead to stress. Stress due to the difference

between the way a person wishes to experience their gender, and pressure from external sources to behave differently is Gender Role Strain (GRS).

Gender Role Strain was hypothesized by Joseph Pleck in 1981 in his book *The Myth of Masculinity* and was later updated in *A New Psychology of Men,* from which the following review comes (Levant & Pollack, 1995). Three concepts are central to GRS. First is the idea that in the long term, most males fail to fulfill masculine role expectations. The gap between a man's characteristics and these social expectations is called *gender role discrepancy* and can result in poor self esteem and other negative psychological consequences. Failing to conform to the expectations of being a young, married, white, urban, heterosexual father of college education, fully employed and having a recent winning sports record results in gender role discrepancy (Pleck, 1995). The second idea central to GRS is that even successful fulfillment of male role expectations has negative consequences because masculine ideology has inherent negative side effects. This is called gender *role dysfunction.* Measures of masculinity have been correlated with aggressiveness, drug use, low self-esteem, anxiety, and depression. Men also engage in poor health practices, which are an overall prognostic indicator of heart attack severity (Pleck 1995).

The third concept is *gender role trauma,* so called because the socialization process men go through while internalizing gender role ideation is thought to be inherently traumatic. Gender role trauma is central to this research and compels some expiation. Some men experience gender role trauma as a function of existing within a society that is abusive to them. These include professional athletes, veterans, and non-

heterosexual men. Re-socializing men who have been temporarily dislocated from their culture, Viet Nam vets, for example (Brooks, 1989), can also result in gender role trauma.

More commonly, gender role trauma comes about during the process of socializing boys, as they become men. Researchers have found that until the age of 6 months boys exhibit significantly more joy and anger, more positive vocalizations, fussiness, and crying, and more gestural signals directed towards the mother than girls. The socialization process begins as mothers work harder to manage their more excitable sons, and continues as fathers become interested in children, when they interact with them along gender-stereotyped lines. Both parents participate in the process by teaching gender-differentiated language of emotion, and finally sex segregated peer groups consummate the process (Levant, 1996). This is a swift operation. At two years of age girls refer to feeling states more than do boys, and 6 years of age mothers can no longer identify boys emotion from facial expression (Levant & Pollack, 1998). Along with this blunting of affect comes a shame enforced restriction from all things feminine; including mother's nurture. Pollack (1995) has called this a "gender-specific vulnerability to traumatic abrogation of the early holding environment". It can be said that not only are emotional skills not taught to boys, they are actually repressed.

Elizabeth Gilbert is a writer who in the August 2001 issue of GQ tells of living as a man for a week. In learning to behave as a man, she inadvertently describes masculine gender role socialization, and trauma saying:

". . . I find myself shutting down my entire personality, one degree at a time. It's very similar to the way I had to shut down my range of physical expression, pulling in my gestures and stiffening up my body. Similarly, I must not budge emotionally. I feel as if

I'm closing down a factory, silencing all the humming machines of my character, pulling shut the gates, sending home the workers. All my most animated and familiar facial expressions have to go, and with them go all my most animated and familiar emotions. Ultimately, I am left with only two options for expression – boredom, and aggression. Only with boredom and aggression do I truly feel male. It's not a feeling I like at all, by the way. In fact I'm amazed by how much I don't like it. We've been laughing and joking and relating all morning, but slowly now, as I turn into Luke, I feel the whole room chill."

There are four main results from gender role trauma. They are over-development of anger, and aggression, suppression and channeling of tender feelings into sexuality, action empathy, and normative alexithymia. Over-development of anger and aggression comes about because anger and aggression are two of the only emotions that are seen as legitimate for masculine boys and men to have (Levant, 1995). Hurt, disappointment, fear, and shame must be funneled into anger. The suppression and channeling of tender feelings into sexuality is the second result of gender role trauma. Sharp limitations on the expression of caring or connecting feelings encourage men to transform these emotions to sexual energy. Action empathy is the ability to put ones' self in another's position, and be able to predict what the other will do, as opposed to emotional empathy, which allows us to predict feeling. Normative Alexithymia is a reduced ability to describe or experience emotion (Levant & Pollack 1998). The common theme among these results of gender role trauma is a reduction of the ability to manage emotion, or adapt to the emotional stimuli in the environment.

The effect of GRS is that men constantly walk a tight rope; balancing the need to conform to traditional masculine ideology, with the desire to respond to the world in a way that offers them a wider choice of behavior. Men hear the call to spend more time with their family, and children, and yet employers' family and potential mates want them to be successful and drive impressive cars. Men want to be more emotionally expressive, but not only do they often not have the skills and words, they risk being labeled un-manly if they talk about their feelings. Homophobia keeps men from making appropriate intimate connections with each other, and striving for success and power keeps our relationships hierarchical. The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) has been developed to measure how much conflict people experience due to their struggle with traditional gender role. Both a masculine (O'Neil, Helms, and Gable, 1986), and a feminine (Borthick, et. al., 1997) version of the scale have been developed.

It is important to note that this is not only a problem for men and boys. Males only experience masculinity from the within, as they express it, and thus only have half of the experience of masculinity. Women and girls experience masculinity as it is expressed toward them, and so have the other half of the experience. These are problems for everyone. William Pollack (1998) says:

"The Boy Code puts boys and men into a gender straitjacket that constrains not only them, but everyone else, reducing us all as human beings, and eventually making us strangers to ourselves and to one another - or, at least, not as strongly connected to one another as we long to be".

Emotional Intelligence

In 1958 Weschler defined intelligence as a global concept that involved an individual's ability to act purposefully, think rationally, and deal effectively with the environment. We most often think of this in terms of cognitive ability, but Weschler did not intend his description of intelligence to be so narrow. He emphasized that general intelligence cannot be equated with intellectual ability alone, but must be regarded as a product of the personality as a whole (Groth-Marnat 1990). It is now recognized that emotion plays a part in how successful people are in managing their environment. Emotional intelligence has been defined as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

It is theorized that emotional intelligence is comprised of four components; 1) Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self, 2) Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, 3) Regulation of Emotion in the self and others, and 4) Use of emotion to facilitate performance (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) has been developed to measure emotional intelligence (Schutte, et al, 1998). From the preceding discussion about masculinity, it would seem obvious that emotional intelligence skills are not encouraged in men in the way that they are in women. Men who are struggling against traditional masculinity may have higher emotional intelligence.

Alexithymia

Alexithymia is predicted by GRC theory, and highly correlated with emotional intelligence. The term was coined in the early 1970's in the field of psychiatry. Its Greek roots mean without words for emotion. Psychiatrists noticed that patients with "classical" psychosomatic illnesses had difficulty identifying and describing feelings verbally, reduced ability to create fantasy, and were preoccupied with bodily symptoms, and/or external events. Emotion theorists ascribe autonomic nervous system, cognitive-experiential, and motor-behavioral components to emotional responses. In addition, an interpersonal regulation that can be either supportive or disruptive has been suggested. Alexithymia reflects deficits in the cognitive-experiential, and interpersonal regulation domains of emotional response. Often this also results in lack of facial expression, and gesture, which reflects the motor-behavioral domain. Alexithymia has been associated with many physical, and psychiatric illnesses, conceptualized as disorders of emotional regulation (Taylor, 1994).

Gender role strain theory proposes that socialization will lead boys to develop normative male alexithymia. Normative is an important word in this usage of the term alexithymia. It is intended to note that this is **not** a pathological form of the condition. Since boys are socialized to restrict expression of their vulnerable or caring emotions, and to be stoic, they do not have the opportunity to learn an emotive vocabulary, and associate feelings with the words. In addition, when the boy is made to feel ashamed for having, or expressing these emotions, trauma is likely. In some measure, all boys experience this and do not have the same opportunity to learn the language of emotion, as

do girls. Since this experience, and the resulting alexithymia, is more or less pervasive among men it is a normative skill deficit, rather than pathological. Alexithymia has been shown to increase in men as does gender ideology. It is thought that some of its' results are restricted intimate emotional exchanges, fear of intimacy, and troubles maintaining healthy interpersonal relationships. The Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20) was developed to measure alexithymia (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1993).

Universal Diverse Orientation

Universal-Diverse Orientation (UDO) is a construct that describes a human beings capacity to appreciate both the differences between people, as well as the similarities. People who value variation between people, and at the same time feel a connectedness to the experience all humans have in common are said to have a universal-diverse orientation. This orientation represents a complexity that transcends the one dimensional constructs of resemblance (similarity or "one-ness"), and difference (prejudice or racism). UDO represents a persons' capacity to integrate, and value, both of these seemingly contradictory positions simultaneously (Miville, Gelso, Pannu, Liu, Touradji, Holloway, & Fuertes, 1999). Traditional masculinity is thought to promote hierarchy, and social dominance toward out-group people. Sidanius, Pratto, and Bobo (1994) found that men are more interested than women in maintaining a hierarchical social system, which dominates people of difference. One would expect them to score lower on scales of UDO than women. In general men have been found to score lower on scores of UDO than do women (Miville, et al., 1999; Fuertes, & Gelso, 2000). GRC theory would lead us to

believe that men who are in conflict with traditional masculinity would score higher on measures of UDO, than men who experience little gender role strain.

Statement of Problem

In the dominant culture of North America the socialization of boys to become men seems to be a process that represses the development of emotional intelligence skills. Some reports have correlated emotional intelligence with gender (Petrides, & Furnham, 2000; Saarni, 2000). Little is known about those men who are in conflict with the traditional expectations of masculinity. Masculinity Theory (Levant, & Pollack, 1995) would suggest that they might experience more emotional intelligence than those who are comfortable with traditional gender roles. Additionally, it would seem that an investment in dominance and hierarchy would keep men from appreciating difference. One study has shown that men are more interested in dominating others, than are women (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1994). It is not known if men who are struggling with the traditional definition of masculinity might appreciate universality and difference more than men who endorse traditional masculinity ideology. In addition to the emotional management components of GRC that may be explained by EI, there are competition factors involved. This could mean that UDO and EI may combine to predict a greater proportion of GRC than either of the measures alone.

It has also been postulated that GRC may be experienced by both men and women, and that different situational contexts produces it for each gender (McCreary, Wong, Wiener, Carpenter, Engle, & Nelson, 1996). It has not been determined if GRC is

a useful construct for conceptualizing both men and women, or if GRC is experienced differently by men than it is by women.

Significance of the Study

There are some social implications for the results of this research. In his 1993 book The Myth of Male Power, Warren Farrell points out that feminism has challenged the role of women in our culture, and he points out that it is time to do the same for men. Having more information about the social construction of masculinity will enable us to make choices about how we want to go about teaching our boys to be men in the future. While comparison between genders often leads to criticism, and then unhelpful conflict, understanding difference reveals things that each gender has to offer the other.

There are also treatment issues that this research may speak to. It has been suggested that alexithymic clients are boring and (Taylor, 1984), a treatment plan for alexithymic men has been suggested (Levant, 1998). It has also been suggested that emotional intelligence is not only a motivator for the use of mental health services, but is related to outcome (Parker, 2000). Understanding how these factors fit with the ability to appreciate the similarities and differences with others (UDO) may have some implications for new modes of treatment.

Finally this research is important from a theoretical standpoint. It has been long theorized that masculinity is socially constructed to be emotionally restrictive. The ways that men are emotionally restricted are traditionally studied through the factors inherent in masculinity literature. Correlation with emotional intelligence could provide a much

broader theory for the study of these factors. In the same way, correlation with UDO may give us an additional context for the understanding of the way men interact with others. Both of these correlations may provide many rich research questions. In detailing previous research Chapter 2 of this study will illustrate that a few of these independent variables have been related to each other. In addition, it will note that many of these variables have been correlated with gender. However, with the exception of alexithymia, none of these factors have been related to the dependent variable, GRCS. We currently have little, or no idea, how these variables interact when human beings of either gender struggle with their gender role.

Research Questions

1) What is the relationship between scores on the EI, UDO and TAS-20 to GRC for men?
2) What is the relationship between scores on the EI, UDO and TAS-20 to GRC for women?
3) Are relationships for the above research questions different for men, and women?

Assumptions. This research assumes that EI, UDO, alexithymia, and Gender Role, are at least in part socially constructed, and culturally transmitted. If these constructs are genetically transmitted traits not altered by environmental conditions, the findings of this study will be invalid. It is beyond the scope of this study to determine

whether these are inherited traits, learned behaviors, or a combination of both. In addition, this study assumes that the self-report scales used to gather this data accurately reflect the constructs being measured. It will be hard to tell, from this data, if the subjects are able to accurately report answers to the scale questions, or if their perceptions of reality seriously interfere with accuracy of reporting.

Limitations. There are some limitations to this study. While the population of students is convenient, it is neither random, nor does it contain a great deal of variability. It is possible that the sample population may not have a wide range of race, ethnicity, cultural, or age variation. The study may be restricted in how widely it can be generalized. The age variable is important. It is possible that there is a developmental component to all of these variables. Not only is it expected that this sample will not capture enough variability in age to determine a developmental component; that is also beyond the purview of this study.

This study is based on masculinity theory. Literature review suggests that few gender studies attempt to determine if the research question is appropriate for only one gender, or if all human beings experience the phenomena in question. Women are included in this study in order to determine if the research questions are best placed within masculinity theory, or if some other framework is more appropriate. To be more specific, if the regression equations for men are not different than those for women, future study based on theory that is not gender specific is indicated.

In addition, psychology has been historically criticized for conducting expensive research, using mostly male subjects, and making sweeping statements about

generalization to the entire population. Since it is based on masculinity theory, this research will be empirically, rather than theoretically based for women. On the other hand, it is hoped that the study will provide archival data for future researchers who may wish to conceptualize the information from a feminine or gender-neutral perspective. It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to study the research questions from more than one theoretical position.

Definition of Terms

Alexithymia. Alexithymia is defined as a condition characterized by difficulty identifying, and describing, emotions. Alexithymic people are sometimes unable to distinguish between affective, and somatic feelings. For this study, Alexithymia will be operationalized by scores on the 20 Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20) (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994).

Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence has been defined as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). For the purposes of this research emotional intelligence will be operationalized as scores on the Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998).

Gender Role Conflict. "Gender role conflict is a psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences on the person or others. Gender Role

conflict occurs when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles result in personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self. The ultimate outcome of this kind of conflict is a restriction of the human potential of the person experiencing the conflict or a restriction of another's potential" (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). This research will rely on scores on the Gender Role Conflict Scale to operationalize Gender Role Conflict.

Gender Role Ideology. Gender Role Ideology is defined as: "a variety of component beliefs that may be endorsed to different degrees and related to each other in varying ways, both in different individuals and in different social subgroups. (Pleck, 1995)". In other words it is comprised of a set of cultural norms, or beliefs about each gender, and each individual to some extent endorses those beliefs. Gender Role Ideology represents the internalization of gender role beliefs, or attitudes. For example; Masculinity Ideology is the name for that set of beliefs held by an individual about the masculine gender.

Gender Role Strain. Stress due to the difference between the ways a person wishes to experience their gender, and pressure from external sources to behave differently (Pleck, 1981).

Traditional Masculinity Ideology. It must be stressed that masculinity ideology is defined within each cultural context. There is no single set of rules for masculinity. For the purposes of this study, however, traditional masculinity ideology will be considered

that set of expectations for the male role, held by the majority of the dominant North American culture.

Universal Diverse Orientation. UDO is "defined as an attitude toward all other persons that is inclusive yet differentiating in that similarities and differences are both recognized and accepted; the shared experience of being human results in a sense of connectedness with people and is associated with a plurality or diversity of interactions with others" (Miville et al. 1999). UDO will be operationally represented in this study by scores on the Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale-Short Form (M-GUDS-S).

Investigator Orientation

Worldview can affect, not only the results we report, but also the very questions we ask. It is important to announce that the principal investigator of this study is a white, middle class, middle-aged, heterosexual male from a protestant, urban, Midwestern upbringing. The investigator would like to think of himself as a pro-feminist, and recognizes that much of the language and theory of this study comes from that stance. Alternative interpretations of this data from differing worldviews may be as appropriate as the one presented here.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This review, although not exhaustive, will place this research in the context of the literature. Major works, which defined each variable, will be presented, as well as publications that clarified the variables and constructs in this current study. Studies that are similar to this one, and studies that relate the current research variables will be reviewed. First presented will be the variable of concern, Gender Role Conflict, then the independent variables, Emotional Intelligence, Universal-Diverse Orientation, and Alexithymia.

Masculinity

The study of gender role gained momentum with the acceleration of the women's movement in the late 1960's and early '70's. Some measure of gender was needed, and in a landmark study the Bem Sex Role Inventory was introduced (Bem, 1974). The Bem Sex Role Inventory was proposed to measure Masculinity and Femininity, by convention, subtracting Femininity from Masculinity gave an Androgyny score. The Bem Sex Role Inventory was used for years, and it is not yet out of circulation. One of its shortcomings was that it is scored on a continuum. In order to score higher on "masculinity" one has to

score lower on traits considered "feminine". Another instrument, developed around the same time as the Bem Sex Role Inventory, the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) does not force subjects to choose among masculine and feminine traits, but instead, let's them endorse each item on a 0 to 4 scale. This provides both masculinity and femininity scores for each subject (Robinson, Shaver, & Wrightsman, 1991).

Since then, studies of gender role have fallen into one of two general theoretical camps, characteristic and normative. A characteristic perspective of gender roles would indicate that people acquire personality traits or behaviors culturally defined as masculine or feminine. This approach focuses on the differences between men and women. Instruments used to evaluate gender role from this position typically categorize attitudes or behaviors as masculine or feminine. Test takers are asked how often they display gender specific behaviors, or how strongly they ascribe to gender attitudes. Persons who often display such behaviors, or have attitudes that are normatively gender specific, are said to belong to a specific gender. The results suggest how much masculinity or femininity an individual feels they possess.

A normative theory would see gender role development as a social ideology to which an individual is invited to subscribe. From this viewpoint and individual may feel that he or she should have a specific characteristic, because that attribute is seen by most people as gender appropriate. The individual may, or may not, have the quality. This normative perspective measures how participants experience their gender role, rather than how masculine or feminine they feel they are. Under this theory and masculine gender role is an external invitation to conform, rather than in internalized set of attributes.

Results of tests designed under this paradigm show how well test takers conform to gender ideologies (Thompson, Pleck & Ferrea, 1992).

The dependent variable in this study, GRSC, falls into the normative category. Development of the scale began in the mid 1970s. Researchers incorporating feminist literature into their classroom materials discovered that they didn't understand how patriarchy worked, and entertained the possibility that men may also be oppressed by gender role expectations (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995). In his 1981 book, The Myth of Masculinity, Joseph Pleck described sex role strain, later to become known as gender role strain. This theory suggested that rather than seeing sex roles as a cluster of inherent traits, it might be better to consider them socialized behavior. Gender role strain then, is the difference between the way a person would like to experience their gender, and the way a society pressures them to conform to a gender role.

The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) was published in 1986 to measure gender role conflict, which is the conflict resulting from gender role strain. At that time the reliability and the validity of the gender role conflict scale was established and work started on the factor analysis. In these early stages an eight factor solution emerged. It was later refined to four factor model we have now. The GRCS was compared to the PAQ and it was found that men who had differential scores on the PAQ, also scored differently on the GRCS. Two patterns were significant. First, men who scored neither instrumental nor expressive on the PAQ reported higher scores on both restrictive emotionality, and lack of emotional response in the GRCS. Secondly, men who saw themselves as instrumental (masculine) on the PAQ reported significantly higher scores

on restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and homophobia, than did expressive (feminine) men (O'Neil, Helms, & Gable, 1986).

The GRCS has been correlated with a number of variables. Physical illness and poor self-care have been related to the GRCS subscales of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and conflict between work and family. In the same study men's class (socioeconomic status), race, personality, and strain variables predicted GRCS. (Stilson, O'Neil, & Owen, 1991). Another study related GRCS to measures of well-being in men. In general it found that gender role conflict is negatively related to psychological well-being. The study also discovered that the PAQ, and the GRCS have little overlap. The study also replicated previous work that correlated to higher PAQ scores with positive psychological well-being in men (Sharpe, & Heppner 1991). More specifically, all of the GRCS factors, save Success, Power, and Competition, were correlated with measures of self-esteem, anxiety, depression, and intimacy.

The GRCS has also been correlated with measures related to relationship difficulty. The GRCS factor of Restrictive Emotionality, has been negatively correlated with attachment to father, and attachment to mother. The GRCS factor of success power and competition has been correlated with a negative attachment to father. In general the study showed that as GRCS increases in men they desire more traditional women, and they experience attachment, separation, and problems with individuation (Blazina, & Watkins, 2000). The authors of that study concluded that:

"Men who held less traditional gender-bound thinking about women and who were less emotionally restrictive tended to experience less differentiation and relationship problems" and: "They may be more accepting of characteristics such as emotional

expressiveness, emotional intimacy, and have developed a sense of self in the context of relationships".

In 1992 Thompson, Pleck, and Ferreira, reviewed several scales for measuring masculinity related constructs. They reported four important conclusions. The first is that gender orientation, and gender ideology, are separate constructs, and instruments based on these two ideas are for the most part unrelated. For example, the M and F scales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the PAQ are measures of gender orientation, and have been found to correlate with gender ideology in only one study. Secondly, these investigators discovered that there is reason to believe that masculinity ideologies are distinct from ideologies composed of standards for women, or gender in general. Third, the authors felt that scales measuring the conflict that men feel because of their gender role is likely to be a more proximal predictor of men's behavior in gender situations that masculinity ideology. Finally, it was found that existing instruments which measure attitudes toward men, or standards for masculinity, focus attention to narrowly to a single masculinity definition. This definition is based on a conventional division of labor, in contrast to the feminine role, and presumed heterosexual. It is recommended, however, that the scales may be useful in assessing how different male populations view masculinity standards (Thompson, Pleck, & Ferreira, 1992).

At least one study has been done specifically to address the psychometric properties of the GRCS. It was found that the GRCS has excellent factor stability, internal consistency, and freedom from socially desirable response bias. Construct validity was established for three of the four GR and subscales. Concerns about the fourth, Conflict between Work and Family Relations (CBWFR) could be due to one or

more of several possibilities. The suggestions were: gender role conflict of theory may be an accurate; GRCS scale construction may be a problem; the scales it was correlated with may be faulty; and sampling problems may have caused little correlations. Researchers suspect that CBWFR taps a construct slightly different from the rest of GRCS. While the factory is a significant contributor to links between GRCS and psychological distress, GRCS still predicts distress when CBWFR is not taken into account (Good, et al., 1995). It is important to note that the authors felt that their study gave strong support that men's restrictive emotionality is associated with the detrimental results of distress in close relationships. In a more recent study factor structure of the GRCS was reanalyzed and found to be "quite appropriate" in its original four factors (Moradi, Tokar, Schaub, Jome, & Serna, 2000).

Another study (Walker, Tokar, & Fischer, 2000) also expressed concerns about the CBWFR subscale of the GRCS. It is thought that this may not reflect a construct unique to men. In addition, these authors noted that the Success Power And Competition (SPC) subscale seems to be more closely tied to measures of masculinity ideology than GRCS. While these investigators found that some of the scales they tested were factor pure, they confirmed that the GRCS is measuring a multidimensional masculinity domain. On a theoretical note, the purpose of this study was to determine how the factors of 8 masculinity instruments combined to form overall masculinity constructs. They found four, and labeled them: Masculinity Ideology, Liberal Gender Role Attitudes, Masculine Gender Role Stress, and Comfort with Emotionality and Affectionate Behavior between Men. In general, these factors seem to be in line with the gender role stress theory that is the basis for the GRCS.

The GRCS has been studied in populations other than the college sample of convenience. One study compared to college age and middle-aged men. It was found that gender role conflict related to psychological well-being for both groups, but in different ways. Middle-aged men were found to feel less pressured to have a successful career, compete, outperform others, or feel their personal worth is determined by success. On the other hand, middle-aged men felt more conflict between work and family responsibilities. Both college age, and middle-aged men, experienced restrictive emotionality which correlated highly, and negatively, with measures of well-being. For both groups, lower scores on restrictive emotionality, which correlated with lower scores on anxiety, depression, and higher scores on self-esteem and intimacy (Cournoyer, & Mahalik, 1995). At least in part, this would seem to explain difficulties with the Conflict between Work and Family subscale of the GRCS. The studies are generally done on college-age men, who are very concerned with establishing a career, and have no family of their own.

Acculturation in Asian American men has been related to GRCS. Surprisingly, no differences between Chinese-American, Japanese-American, and Korean American men were found. The authors reported more commonality than difference in acculturation and GRCS for these groups. However, acculturation did predict variance in subscales of GRCS. High scores on acculturation predicted high scores on success power and competition, and low scores on restrictive emotionality. The authors felt that Americans have more liberal views about expressing emotion and do Asians who remains stoic to protect the family name (Kim & O'Neil, 1996).

A recent study investigated the relationship of GRCS to psychological distress in Mexican American men. Restrictive Emotionality, and Success Power and Competition were positively correlated with levels of stress. Restrictive Emotionality was positively correlated with depression. The authors of this study were surprised to find that machismo does not appear to be related to gender role conflict. They speculated that the construct included in the machismo scale did not match those in GRCS (Fragoso, & Kashubeck, 2000).

GRCS and Women

With the exception of the GRCS the measures in this study come from gender neutral theory, and the literature review applies to both sexes. The construct of gender role conflict comes from the theory of masculinity. The use of the GRCS for women (GRCS-F), however, is empirically supported. With permission of the author, Borthnic (1997) changed the pronouns of the original GRCS to make it applicable to women, and gave it to a sample of 426 women, between the ages of 18 and 24, from four Mid-Southern Universities. Internal consistency ranged from .81 to .86 (as compared to .77 to .82 in the original sample of men). Factor analysis revealed the same 4 factor structure as has been found in previous studies with men. The only difference was a slightly different order of factors. The GRCS-F was used by Borthnic along with the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and the Suicide Probability Scale (SPS) in her 1997 study. She concludes:

"These initial results support the construct validity and reliability of gender role conflict in an undergraduate female sample, 18 to 24 years of age. The implication is that an individual's sex role type (Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, Undifferentiated) will encompass characteristics pertinent to the development of gender role conflict regardless of biological sex."

While the use of the GRCS-F is empirically rather than theoretically supported, the construct has been applied to women in other studies. Miller and Heinrich (2000) studied Gender Role Conflict in middle school and college female athletes, and non-athletes. The authors noted that sports are a traditionally masculine activity, and women participating in athletics violate traditional gender roles. Previous studies had discovered unexpectedly low levels of GRC in female athletes. These authors hypothesized that many women athletes who experience the pressure of gender role conflict, discontinue their participation in sports as a result. They hoped to explain low levels of GRC by comparing female middle school athletes and non-athletes with college athletes and non-athletes. To their surprise, and contrary to previous research, the study discovered that female non-athletes experience more GRC than do athletes. Various explanations were offered, including findings that female athletes have significantly more positive athletic competence self-concept. Authors were not satisfied with any of their hypothesized explanations.

While this research supports the use of the construct of GRC with women, the measurement of it was limited to the athletic context. Items relating to GRC were taken from the Sex Role Conflict Scale and the Athletic Sex Role Conflict Inventory. The selected items from these scales asked questions such as: "If you were to join a football

team would you feel..." subjects were asked to respond on a scale between absolutely no conflict, through a great deal of conflict. The construct of GRC, then, has been applied to women, and in this case seems to apply most directly to the GRCS factor of Success, Power, and Competition.

One study noted that a literature review indicates that women must compete for authority in the workplace and in the general labor marked gain less authority than men with equivalent education and work experience (Kraus & Yonay, 2000). That study went on to demonstrate that the intensity of competition for authority is different in predominantly male occupations, mixed occupations, and predominantly female occupations. It has also been shown that women in medical school experience psychological distress related to dissonance between their perceptions of gender and their role as women in a predominantly male endeavor (Ribner, 1989).

Results indicated that the competition for authority between men and women is weaker in male dominated occupations; therefore men have less reason to discriminate against women. Men have similar chances for authority in any occupation. This report confirms historical findings (Hotchkiss, & Borow, 1996) that women struggle with many of the same success, power, and competition issues, as do men, perhaps in different ways, and in some situations to a greater degree. These findings support older research which indicate that men have greater access to resources of power, and describe women's path to power as an obstacle course (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Other research indicates that women feel the effects of additional GRCS factors.

Conflict between work and family may be the most often and thoroughly researched GRCS factor for women. One recent example studied the relationship

between job satisfaction and care giving in the sandwich generation. Results indicated that the effects on job satisfaction of providing care to elders vs children, are additive, and consistent with traditional gender role expectations. Women take on more of the responsibilities of childcare, leaving them less satisfied with leave benefits. While less job satisfaction exists for both men and women, who have children the decrease is much more dramatic for women (Buffardi, Smith, O'Brien, & Erdwins, 1999).

These studies, and the ones they are based on, indicate that the construct of GRC is well studied in women, although often under different names, and theoretical frameworks. As noted previously in this chapter the reason GRC is framed in masculinity literature is that research indicates that the consequences for stepping out of traditional gender roles is greater for men than it is for women. Even this notion has been challenged.

In a 1996 study McCreary, Wong, Wiener, Carpenter, Engle, and Nelson explored the notion that both men and women experience GRC, and the strain it ultimately produces. They gave the Masculine Gender Role Stress (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987) and the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List-Revised (Zuckerman & Lubin, 1985) to 105 male, and 114 female students. Consistent with current theoretical expectations they found that males experience significantly more masculine gender role stress. Further exploration of the data, however, showed that gender was not a moderator in between the relationship of masculine gender role stress and hostility, anxiety, or depression. In other words, while men experience greater gender role stress, this study showed that both men and women experience its' negative results. The authors postulate that GRC and its'

associated strain may be context specific and it may be different contexts that produce strain for men and women.

Emotional Intelligence

Research into emotional intelligence began to appear in academic journals in the early 1900s, and was popularized in Daniel Goleman's 1995 book entitled Emotional Intelligence. The construct has been defined as: "the ability to perceive and express emotions, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Traditionally emotions were thought to work against cognition and the antithesis of reason. Current thinking, however, is that emotion works hand-in-hand with cognition by providing important information about people, memory, and the environment (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Theories of emotional intelligence generally take one of two stances: a) that emotional intelligence is a mental ability, or; b) that emotional intelligence is a broader construct which includes a mental ability and personality traits and dispositions (Schutte, & Malouff, 1999).

The construct of emotional intelligence is not without controversy. Some researchers, setting out to investigate the psychometric status of emotional intelligence, have come to the conclusion that even though the set of skills theorized to constitute the emotional intelligence domain are conceptually distinct from other types of measured intelligence, many of the critical components have been previously conceptualized in terms of personality dimensions. However, even these critics determined that emotional

awareness and emotional clarity did not correlate with any personality variables (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). Other scientists have seen emotional intelligence as a viable construct, and have used it in many important investigations.

Schutte, Malouff, hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, and Dornheim published the 33 item Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) in 1998. It was based on the emotional intelligence model proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). This model proposes that emotional intelligence consists of three categories of adaptive scales: 1) appraisal and expression of emotion, 2) regulation of emotion, and finally three) utilization of emotion in solving problems. Higher scores on the EIS were shown to be associated with less alexithymia, greater attention to feeling, greater clarity of feelings, and more mood repair. Greater EIS scores were also associated with greater optimism, less pessimism, less depression and less impulsivity. The test showed good test -- retest reliability and predictive validity (Salovey, & Mayer 1990).

Factor structure of the EIS has been somewhat problematic. In the aforementioned original study the authors failed to establish a factor structure for the EIS. Petrides and Furnham (2000), disagreeing with the statistical derivation of the original scale, feel that it is a multidimensional measure. They cautioned against using this scales total score and recommend that researchers factor analyze their results. On the other hand, these authors stated that the scale has face validity, and evidence of construct, predictive, and discriminate validities. In another study published that same year the same authors found four factors for the EIS and labeled them Optimism/Mood Regulation, Appraisal of Emotions, Social Skills, and Utilization of Emotion (Petrides & Furnham, 2000a).

Using the EIS, a link has been found between emotional intelligence in the ability to solve problems on cognitive tasks subject were given three sets of anagrams. Sets No. 1 and 3 were of similar difficulty. Sets No. 2 was very difficult and intended to be frustrating. It was found that subjects with higher emotional intelligence, as measured by the EIS, were able to do better on the third set of problems, than where subjects who scored lower on EIS. The authors felt that they were better able to manage the frustration brought about by the second set of anagrams (Schutte, Schuettpelz, & Malouff, in press).

The EIS has been used to demonstrate that emotional intelligence is connected to interpersonal relations. It has been found that higher EIS scores are related to greater impact that prospective taking. EIS scores have been positive related to self-monitoring, which reflects the ability to understand others emotions and behavior, understand environmental context, and modify self presentation based on these understandings. In this report emotional intelligence was related to greater social skills, and individuals with high EIS scores also showed more cooperation with partners. The last study in this report indicated that individuals with higher emotional intelligence desired, as well as experienced, more relationship connections and more infection within those relationships. They did not desire more control and relationships. In addition, it was found that higher EIS was associated with greater marital satisfaction (Schutte, Malouff, Bobik, Coston, Greeson, Jedlicka, Rhodes, & Wendorf, in press).

Of particular interest to this study are findings in gender scores on ESI. The original development and validation study found that women score higher than men (Schutte et al., 1998). In a study using a factor analysis on the EIS, Petrides and Furnham (2000) found no significant difference between males and females on the EIS. They did,

however, find a significant difference in a factor they titled "social skills". Many of the studies on the emotional intelligence construct simply do not reported gender differences. This seems unusual in light of the fact that in his original 1995 work Emotional Intelligence Daniel Goleman talks about an "emotional gender gap" and suggests that "women come into a marriage groomed for the role of the emotional manager, while men arrive as much less appreciation of the importance of this task for helping a relationship survive".

Universal-Diverse Orientation

Universal-Diverse Orientation (UDO) is based in the theory that all humans have common experience. A specific example of this theory is found in Carl Jung's (1968) theory of personality. Jung postulated that all humans inherited universal images, or archetypes, that connect them to one another. Similarly, Yalom (1985) in his descriptions of group therapy, notes that one of the most therapeutic experiences is discovering that group members often share similar problems. Disclosing these universal problems and the shared experience and feelings that go with them often helps group members feel less isolated.

Understanding both these universal human similarities, as well as differences between people, is very important to the client/counselor relationship, especially in multicultural contexts (Vontress, 1968, 1996). This simultaneous appreciation for difference and similarity, human beings is the theoretical basis for UDO. The Miville -- Guzman Universality -- Diversity Scale (M-GUDS) was developed to measure UDO,

Which was defined as *"an attitude toward all other persons that is inconclusive yet differentiating in that similarities and differences are both recognized and accepted; the shared experience of being human results in a sense of connectedness with people in his associated with a plurality or diversity of interactions with others"* (Miville, Gelso, Pannu, Liu, Touradji, Holloway, & Fuertes, 1999). In that study the M-GUDS was correlated with racial identity, empathy, healthy narcissism, feminism, androgyny, and correlated negatively with homophobia, and dogmatism. It has been found that subjects low in UDO rated Hispanic counselors without accents higher in attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise than they did counselors with accents (Fuertes, & Gelso, 2000).

UDO has also been found to correlate with variables indicating healthy personality functioning (Miville, Romans, Johnson, & Lone, 1998). In addition results from Miville et al. (1998) imply the UDO is related to adaptive attitudes and behaviors such as self-efficacy, positive thinking, optimism, and self-esteem. Low UDO scores were indicative of high scores in areas around unhealthy coping skills, denial, mental disengagement and drug and alcohol use.

There is some evidence that UDO is related to the other variables in this study. One study found that EIS, along with spirituality and openness to experience, significantly predicts UDO (Anderson, 2001). Another study examined the relationship between Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) and gender. The construct of SDO is very nearly the opposite of UDO. SDO is a general orientation expressing antiegalitarianism, the desire for hierarchical relationships between social groups, and in-group dominance over out-groups. The study showed that there was a difference between gender's on SDO

regardless of such demographic variables as age, religion, and ethnicity. Men consistently scored higher than women on SDO. Other research has investigated the relationship between men's masculine ideology, reference group identity dependence, and attitudes toward racial diversity and women's equality (Wade, & Brittan -- Powell, 2001). In general it was found that endorsement of traditional masculinity and dependence on a reference group for gender role self concept, is correlated to negative attitudes about racial diversity. The authors felt that masculinity ideology may contain exclusion of others. "Without being able to identify with and integrate other images of masculinity into one's gender role self concept -- as this might present a threat to one's sense of manhood -- the consequence is perhaps a lack of tolerance for difference, be it based in race or gender" (Wade & Brittan Powell, 2001).

Alexithymia

The term alexithymia comes from the Greek meaning: A (without) -- Lexus (words) -- Thymos (emotions), or without words for emotions. First described in the 1960s the term has been primarily used in the discipline of psychiatry. Introduced in 1985, the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS) has undergone several revisions, and still remains the most popular measurement of alexithymia (Taylor, Bagby, & Parker, 1992). Psychometric work on the TAS has been extensive. In 1992 the scale was revised and published along with reliability validity and normative data (Taylor, Bagby, & Parker, 1992). The 20 Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20) was created in 1994. The authors where responding to the fact that some of the factors of the revised TAS were

highly correlated, and perhaps not independent. In addition, there were findings that suggested that some of the factors were not consistent with alexithymia theory. Using a sample of 965 undergraduate students the authors selected a new set of items, cross validated the factor structure, and reassessed the conversion, discriminant, and concurrent validity of the new scale (values reported in Chapter 3). They identified three factors: factor one, the capacity to identify feelings and distinguish them from bodily sensations; factor to his key inability to communicate feelings to other people; and factor 3 assesses externally oriented thinking (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994).

In another study the authors provided further evidence that the TAS -- 20 has good convergence, discriminant, and concurrent validity (Bagby, Taylor, & Parker, 1994). The construct validity of the scale has been investigated in the college student population at Oklahoma State University (Eiden, 1998). In that study five factors were identified and labeled: Confusion, Communication, Description, Externalization, and Internalization. Eiden found evidence that the confusion factor was related to trait anxiety, psychological mindedness, depression, and anger turned inward. The communication factor was related to psychological mindedness, and anger expression turned inward. The factor labeled as Description was found to relate to anger turned inward, and trait anger. The Externalization factor was found to correlate with need for cognition, trait anxiety, and to psychological mindedness. Psychological mindedness was also associated with Internalization. Confusion of Emotion was correlated with long-term anxiety, psychological mindedness, depression, and the tendency to turn anger inward.

In the psychiatric discipline much of the work on the alexithymia as centered around correlating it with physical illness. For example, people with hypertension were found to have alexithymia at greater rates than either a psychiatric or a normal control group. This led the investigators to conclude that alexithymia is prevalent among people who have disorders that in the past were called classical psychosomatic diseases (Todarello, Taylor, Parker, & Fanelli, 1995). In other examples alexithymia has been associated with inflammatory bowel disease (Porcelli, Zaka, Leoci, & Taylor, 1995), and functional gastrointestinal disorders (Porcelli, Taylor, Bagby, & DeCarne, 1999). Taylor (1994) noted that there seems to be a general assumption that alexithymia is associated specifically with psychosomatic disorders. He went on to note that it is also found associated with some types of psychiatric disorders specifically eating disorders, panic disorder, substance abuse, and even in some healthy people. Taylor postulates that alexithymia is a risk factor for many medical and psychiatric disorders, but may be normally distributed in the general population.

Alexithymia has also been studied with variables of often found in the psychological literature. For instance it has been discovered that individuals with high levels of alexithymia are often more interpersonally avoidant after the provocation of anger that are individuals with low alexithymia. The same study also found that highly alexithymic individuals displayed more nonverbal anger after being provoked (Brenbaum, Irvin, 1996). In another study, alexithymia did not correlate with attitudes and behaviors related to abnormal eating and body weight or shape, but it was associated positively with psychological traits characteristic of eating disorder to people. For example, interpersonal distrust and effectiveness, and maturity fears were correlated with

alexithymia, as well as found in eating disorder to people (Taylor, Parker, Bagby, & Bourke, 1996).

There is some evidence that the alexithymia construct, as well as TAS -- 20, is Cross culturally robust. The scale has been translated into Hindi and showed good internal consistency, test -- retest reliability, and the same three factor structure of the original scale (Pandey, Mandal, & Taylor, 1996). Alexithymia has also been compared to defense mechanisms. The TAS -- 20 were associated with an immature defense style and negatively with immature defense style. In addition, alexithymic students scored higher on emotion -- oriented coping scales and on the distraction component of the avoidance -- oriented coping scale of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations. These findings led the investigators to determine that alexithymia is not an adaptive defense mechanism (Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 1998).

Alexithymia has been closely associated with one of the other variables of this study, emotional intelligence. It has been found that the TAS -- 20 and the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory are strongly and negatively correlated. The authors of that study concluded that alexithymia and emotional intelligence are strongly overlapping, and inverse constructs (Taylor, Parker, & Bagby, 1999). Of special interest in this study is that alexithymia and gender role conflict have been correlated.

Fischer and Good (1997) studied 208 undergraduate men using the TAS -- 20, the GRCS , the Fear of Intimacy Scale, and the Masculine Gender Roles Stress Scale. Their overall findings were that alexithymia, and fear of intimacy, are strongly related to more traditional masculine gender roles. They went on to control for socially desirable responses and found that the correlations were still significant. These authors also

discovered that the restricted affectionate behavior between men factor of GRCS predicted unique variance in both the identifying, and describing feelings factors of the TAS – 20, although it appeared to act as a suppressor relationship. These authors are quick to point out that this research contains a sociocultural value judgment. Labeling a person, or men in general, as alexithymic implies that there is an appropriate mode of expression and behavior, and that somehow men are falling short (Fischer, & Good, 1997). As stated in Chapter 1 this research is not interested in pathologizing either gender, rather its goal is to investigate differences of experience.

"A study in the Washington Post says that women have better verbal skills than men." I just want to say to the authors of that study: "huh?" - Conan O'Brien

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In chapter 3 the method for conducting this research will be detailed. The subject pool will be described, and each procedure listed. The instruments, and their psychometric properties will be explained, and hypothesis, as well as the null statement for each, will be listed. Finally the anticipated statistical treatment as well as expected results will be discussed.

Participants

The sample consisted of 355 students from a large midwestern state university. There were 179 male, and 176 female volunteers. 45 (12.7%) were graduate students, and the remainder undergraduates. The mean age was 21.87, median age was 20.0, and age ranged from 18 to 54. White students comprised 75.8 % (n = 269) of the sample 4.5% (n = 16) were Black, 3.1% (n = 11) Hispanic, 1.4 % (n = 5) Asian, and 5.6% (n = 20) Native American. 2 subjects reported to be of "other" races, and 32 students did not report their racial heritage. 349 students reported heterosexual orientation, 2 said that they were bi-sexual, and 4 reported being gay or lesbian. 314 of the subjects were single,

28 married, and 8 were living with a partner. A more comprehensive table of demographics is presented in Appendix 4.

Procedure

After review by the Internal Review Board of the University, course instructors were contacted for permission to conduct the study during class time. The majority of the data was collected from World Of Work, and Total Wellness classes that contain undergraduate students from a variety of disciplines. The researcher read an informed consent script describing the voluntary nature of student participation in the study, and their right to discontinue the process at any time prior to turning the survey in. Participants were also be told that their information, and answers to the instruments will be held confidential, and the process for doing so was explained. That process will include putting identifying information (signatures) only on the informed consent page, separating it from the survey packet, and returning it independently from the packets. One page of the packet, intended for students to keep, will contain a copy of the informed consent agreement, and a written debriefing statement informing them of the purpose of the study, and of the investigators identity and contact information.

Since the study used five instruments and a demographics sheet, true counterbalancing was not practical. Instead, five random orders for packet assembly were drawn. An ANOVA indicated that there were no significant differences in total scale scores between these five random packet orders (ρ ranging from .561 to .198), thus there were no order effects.

Instruments

All participants completed a Demographic Survey, the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS), the 20-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20), Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS), the Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale-Short Form (M-GUDS-S), and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ).

Demographic Survey. Demographic information, including age, race, gender, sexual orientation, raised with father/mother in home, if not at what age did he/she leave, student status, GPA, size and ethnic composition of childhood neighborhood, as well as high school, will be collected.

Gender Role Conflict Scale. The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) has 37 items that use a 6-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). It was designed to assess personal dimensions of gender role conflict. The GRCS has four factors: Success, Power, and Competition (SPC); Restrictive Emotionality (RE); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (RABBM); and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (CBWFR). Internal consistency scores for the GRCS and its' four factors produced Cronbach alphas of .75 to .85. Four week test-retest reliabilities ranged from .72 to .86 for each factor (O'Neil, Helms, & Gable, 1986). A later study (Good, et al 1995) re-explored the psychometric properties of the GRCS. Their confirmatory analysis replicated the four-factor model identified by O'Neil et al. (1986) and internal consistency alphas for the whole scale, and it's factors ranged from .74 to

.89. With the exception of the CBWFR factor the GRCS showed good construct validity by correlating significantly with both the Brannon Masculinity Scale (GRCS r = .60 $p<0.001$), and the Fear of Intimacy Scale (GRCS r = .29 $p<0.01$). CBWFR correlated in the theoretically expected direction, but did not achieve significance. The population of this sample was 535 undergraduate students with a mean age of 19. While the non-significance of CBWFR is of concern it is also possible that the age of the population indicates that they had no family of their own, nor careers to be in conflict with. In a comparison of college aged and middle aged men, Cournoyer and Mahalik (1995) found that middle aged men were considerably more conflicted between family and work. In addition it's high internal validity and face validity provides some additional support for the CBWFR factor as a unitary construct. It is interesting to note that the GRCS did not correlate with a measure of social desirability indicating that it does not reflect a tendency to provide socially desirable answers (Good, et al 1995).

20-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale. Measuring the construct of alexithymia, the TAS-20 is a twenty item instrument asking subjects to respond to stimuli on a 5 point Likert like scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree). Subjects respond to sentence stimuli; for example: "I am often confused about what emotion I am feeling". Five items have reversed scoring. Higher scores on the TAS-20 indicate more alexithymia. The TAS-20 has been shown to have a three factor structure. Factor number one has been named difficulty identifying feelings, number 2 is difficulty describing feelings to others, and number 3 is externally oriented thinking. The TAS-20, and it's factors, demonstrated good divergent validity by correlating negatively with

measures of psychological mindedness such as the Psychological Mindedness Scale (r = -0.68 $p<0.01$; Factor 1 r = -.44; Factor 2; r = -.51 Factor 3; r = -.54 $p<0.01$) and many of the factors of the Need for Cognition scale. In the same study discriminate validity was evident in that the TAS-20 did not correlate significantly with all of the factors of the Need for Cognition scale. It's convergent validity is shown by correlating with three clinicians scores on the Beth Israel Hospital Psychosomatic Questionnaire (BIQ) and it's two subscales (Total BIQ and TAS-20 r = 0.53 $p<0.01$) (Bagby, Taylor, & Parker, 1994). In another study internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .81) and test-retest reliability (r = .77 $p<0.01$) were established (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994). In another study a five-factor structure, rather than the traditional 3-factor structure was found, but the factors were consistent with descriptors found in alexithymia literature (Eiden, 1989).

Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS). The Emotional Intelligence Scale is a 33 item Likert type instrument asking subjects to respond on a 1 through 5 scale labeled: 1= Disagree, and 5= Agree. Three of the items are reverse scored. It's authors (Schutte, et al., 1998) report that the three theoretical concepts that make up emotional intelligence (regulation, utilization of emotion, and appraisal and expression of emotion) are represented in the EIS.

The initial internal consistency analysis of the EIS revealed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90. Validity was established through correlation with the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (r = -0.65, $p< 0.0001$), the attention subscale of the Trait Meta Mood Scale (r=0.63, $p<0.0001$), the clarity subscale of the Trait Meta Mood Scale (r= 0.52, $p<0.0001$), and the mood repair subscale of the Trait Meta Mood Scale (r=0.68, $p<0.0001$). Two week test-

retest reliability is reported at 0.78. Discriminate validity has been established by comparing EIS scores to self reported SAT scores. The authors felt that the EIS does not overlap with a pure cognitive function because the negative correlation (r= -.060) with SAT (Schutte, et al., 1998).

Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale-Short Form. The Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale-Short Form (M-GUDS-S) is a 15 item scale measuring acceptance of both similarities, as well as differences that exist between people. The higher the M-GUDS-S score, the more able the subject is to be appreciative of other people's likeness to, and divergence from, the subject's group of identity. Three factors have been identified within the M-GUDS-S; Diversity of contact, Relativistic Appreciation, and Comfort with Differences (Fuertes, Miville, Mohr, Sedlacek, & Gretchen, 1999; Miville, et al., 1999).

Reliability of the M-GUDS-S is demonstrated by internal consistency ranging from .89 to .94. and test-retest correlations of .84 to .94 (Miville et al., 1999). An internal validity score of .85 (Chronbach's alpha) has been shown, and construct validity confirmed by positive correlations with racial identity, healthy narcissism, empathy, feminism, and androgyny; as well as negative correlations with dogmatism, and homophobia (Miville et al., 1999). The M-GUDS-S was shown not to correlate with self-reported SAT scores, indicating discriminate validity (Miville et al., 1999).

Personal Attributes Questionnaire. The GRCS, which measures the trouble people have with their gender, comes from a social constructionist, or normative,

theoretical stance. It asks "how do people experience their gender role". The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) provides trait, or characteristic information. It asks "How much masculinity/femininity do you feel you have"? This information may be important to answer post hoc theoretical questions. The authors of the PAQ understood that they could not measure the entire concept of gender. Rather than claiming to measure a global masculinity or femininity score the authors labeled the scales self -- assertive -- instrumental (representing masculinity) and interpersonal -- expressive (representing femininity) (Spence, & Helmreich, 1978).

The 24 -- Item PAQ asks respondents to rate themselves on a five item "A" through "E" scale. The scale is situated between opposite ends of a continuum based on a characteristic. For example: "Not at all aggressive A B C D E Very aggressive". Chronbach alpha's for the PAQ have been reported at .85 (M) and .82 (F) providing good internal consistency. Thirteen week test-retest correlations ranged from .65 to .91. Factor analysis supported the bipolar nature of the empirical construction, and the test has been shown to discriminate well between different parts of sample populations (men from women, and heterosexuals from homosexuals) (Robinson, Shaver, & Wrightsman, 1990).

Hypothesis

The hypothesis and null statements for this research are as follows:

1) The EI, UDO, and TAS-20 will predict a significant proportion of GRC for men. H_0 = There is no significant relationship between EI, UDO, and TAS -- 20, and scores on the GRCS for men.

2) The EI, UDO, and TAS-20 will predict a significant proportion of GRC for women. H_0 = There is no significant relationship between EI, UDO, and TAS -- 20, and scores on the GRCS for women.

3) The correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be significantly different for men and women H_0 = The correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be the same.

Analysis of Data

Multiple regression analyses will be used to predict the dependant variable (GRCS) from the independent variables (EI, UDO, TAS-20), for the first two hypotheses. For the third hypothesis, the Fisher Z test will determine if there is a statistical difference between men and woman's correlation coefficients.

Expected Results

Theory predicts that the combination of EI, UDO, and the TAS-20 will predict a significant portion of GRCS. Since alexithymia has been so closely related to emotional intelligence, it is possible that stepwise multiple regression will be necessary to determine if alexithymia accounts for any variation that emotional intelligence does not. Theory would also tell us that men and women are socialized differently, and so the equations predicting gender role conflict will be different.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Presented in this chapter are the results of multiple regression analysis, and an explanation of how the analysis serves to answer each research question. First considered will be global scale scores for each of the independent variables that predict GRCS global scores. Next will be an analysis of how the global GRCS scores are predicted by the factors of the other scales, and finally there will be an analysis of how the factors of each score predict each factor of the GRCS. In addition, post hoc analyses showing significant differences between men and women for each variable is presented. A correlation table for all of the variables in this study can be found in Appendix 2.

Alternative hypotheses and null statements for this research are as follows:

Ha1) EI, UDO, and TAS-20 scores will predict a significant proportion of GRC scores for men. H_0 = There is no significant relationship (alpha = .05) between EI, UDO, and TAS – 20 scores, and scores on the GRCS for men.

Ha2) EI, UDO, and TAS-20 scores will predict a significant proportion of GRC scores for women. H_0 = There is no significant relationship (alpha = .05) between EI, UDO, and TAS – 20 scores, and scores on the GRCS for women.

Ha3) The correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be significantly different for men and women H_0 = The correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be the same.

EIS Factor Analysis

By way of prefacing the analysis section an explanation of the factor analysis of the EIS is necessary. While the EIS has been found to have good internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and discriminant validity (Schutte, et al., 1998), the stability of its factor structure is in question. The original authors felt they had validated a measure that documents a homogeneous and general emotional intelligence score. Petrides and Furnham (2000) found fault with the original analysis. They gave 260 British students the EIS and decided upon a four factor structure that accounted for 40.4% of the variance. In another study (Pongratz, 2001) the EIS was given to 224 students at a midwestern university, and a three factor solution was derived.

The factor analysis of this sample indicates an 8 factor solution, however 28 of the 33 items load on factor #1, and no other factor contains more than 4 items with a factor loading equal to, or more extreme than the absolute value of .40. While acknowledging indications that the factor structure of this instrument seems unstable, the face validity and other psychometrics are not in question. For the purposes of this study, the conservative route seems to be to treat this instrument as a single factor measuring a global approximation of emotional intelligence. The EIS will be treated as a single factor scale for each analysis found in this study.

Hypothesis #1

Hypothesis #1 states that the EI, UDO, and tas-20 will predict a significant proportion of GRC for men. A series of multiple regressions were used to test this hypothesis.

Global Scores. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting total, or global, GRCS scores from the global independent variable scores are summarized in table 1.

Table 1

Global GRCS Predictions: Men

Global Variable	Beta	Significance
TAS-20	.449	.000
M-GUDS	-.012	.861
EIS	-.033	.659
	Adjusted R^2 = .203	

F(3, 174) = 16.037 ρ < .000

Accounting for 20.3% of the variance in GRCS, the equation was significant, F(3, 174) = 16.037 ρ < .000. Of the three independent variables only the TAS-20 explained a significant part of the variance. This provides partial support of hypothesis #1.

Factor Scores Predicting Global GRCS Scores. To determine more specifically which of the factors of the independent variables predicted GRCS a multiple regression using the factors of each independent variable (except EI which is treated here as a univariate instrument) to predict overall GRC was performed. These factor variables are: diversity of contact (M-GUDS F1), relativistic appreciation (M-GUDS F2), comfort with differences (M-GUDS F3), difficulty identifying feelings (TAS-20 F1), difficulty describing feelings (TAS-20 F2), externally orientated thinking (TAS-20 F3), and EIS. Table 2 represents these results.

Table 2

Global GRCS Predictions from Independent Variable Factor Scores: Men

Global Variable	Beta	Significance
EIS	.008	.918
M-GUDS F1	-.101	.190
M-GUDS F2	-.061	.370
M-GUDS F3	.181	.013
TAS-20 F1	.103	.168
TAS-20 F2	.382	.000
TAS-20 F3	.148	.070
	Adjusted R^2 = .268	

$F(7, 170) = 10.234$ $\rho < .000$

Two factors are significant in predicting total GRCS scores from the factor scores of the independent variables. M-GUDS factor 3, comfort with differences, and TAS-20 Factor 2, difficulty describing feelings, both contribute to predicting gender role conflict scale scores. Together they explain 26.8% of the variance in total scores on the GRCS;

$F(7, 170) = 10.234$ $\rho < .000$. In this case factors of both the M-GUDS, and the TAS-20 predict GRCS scores for men. This provided additional partial support for hypothesis 1.

GRCS Factor Scores Predicted From Independent Scale Factor Scores. Four additional multivariate regression tests were performed to determine which factors of the independent variables predict GRCS factor scores which are; success, power, and competition (GRCS F1), restrictive emotionality (GRCS F2), restricted affectionate behavior (GRCS F3), and conflict between work and family (GRCS F4). The results of these regression equations are contained in Table 3.

Table 3

GRCS Factors Predicted from Factor Scores: Men

Global Variable	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.
	GRCS F1		GRCS F2		GRCS F3		GRCS F4	
EIS	.207	.012	-128	.056	-.066	.406	-.036	.666
M-GUDS F1	-.083	.333	-.079	.260	-.070	.396	-.063	.469
M-GUDS F2	-.067	.369	-042	.495	-.086	.235	.045	.555
M-GUDS F3	.183	.023	.112	.087	.097	.210	.133	.100
TAS-20 F1	.085	.301	.002	.918	.036	.651	.224	.008
TAS-20 F2	.154	.081	.520	.000	.263	.002	.176	.048
TAS-20 F3	.241	.008	.101	.169	.158	.071	-.166	.069
	Adj. R^2 = .105		Adj. R^2 = .401		Adj. R^2 = .159		Adj. R^2 = .082	

GRCS F1 Factor scores from all three scales are significant in predicting the first GRCS factor, Success, Power, and Competition, $F(7, 170) = 3.967$ $\rho < .000$. Specifically, Emotional Intelligence, M-GUDS F3 (Comfort with Differences), and TAS-20 F3 (Externally Orientated Thinking) contribute to variance in Success, Power, and Competition. These factors account for 10.5% of the variance in GRCS F1. In this case

it can be said that subscales of all three scales predict this kind of gender role conflict. This supports hypothesis #1.

GRCS F2. Only the TAS-20 F2, difficulty describing feelings, significantly predicts restrictive emotionality (GRCS F2), $F(7, 170) = 17.903$ $\rho < .000$. Difficulty describing feelings accounts for 40.1% of the variance in restrictive emotionality in men. This finding partially supports hypothesis #1.

GRCS F3. The TAS-20 F2, difficulty describing feelings significantly predicts restricted affectionate behavior (GRCS F3), $F(7, 170) = 5.775$ $\rho < .000$. The variance accounted for in this equation amounts to 15.9% of the total. Hypothesis #1 is partially supported by this equation.

GRCS F4. Conflict between work and family (GRCS F4) is predicted by two factors of the TAS-20. Difficulty identifying feelings (TAS-20 F1) and difficulty describing feelings (TAS-20 F2) both contribute to explaining variance in GRCS F4, $F(7, 170) = 3.268$ $\rho < .000$. Together these two alexithymia factors account for 8.2% of the variance in conflict between work and family. This partially supports the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis #2

Hypothesis #2 states that the EI, UDO, and TAS-20 will predict a significant proportion of GRC for women. A series of multiple regressions were used to test this hypothesis.

Global Score Predictions. Results of the first regression, predicting global GRCS scores from the total scores of the independent variables, EIS, M-GUDS, and the TAS-20, are shown in table 4.

Table 4

Global GRCS Predictions: Women

Global Variable	Beta	Significance
TAS-20	.577	.000
M-GUDS	.164	.013
EIS	.076	.306
	Adjusted R^2 = .305	

$F(3, 170) = 26.298$ $\rho < .000$

In predicting total, or global GRCS scores from global TAS-20, M-GUDS, and EIS scores, both the TAS-20, and the M-GUDS are significant, $F(3, 170) = 26.298$ $\rho <$

.000. These factors accounted for 30.5% of the variance in gender role conflict scores in women. Partial support for hypothesis #2 is demonstrated by this regression.

Factor Scores Predicting Global GRCS Scores. A regression using the independent variable factor scores {Diversity Of Contact (M-GUDS F1), Relativistic Appreciation (M-GUDS F2), Comfort With Differences (M-GUDS F3), Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1), Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2), Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3), and EIS which was treated as univariate} was used to predict the global GRCS scores. These results are summarized in table 5.

Table 5

Global GRCS Predictions from Factor Scores: Women

Global Variable	Beta	Significance
EIS	.087	.199
M-GUDS F1	-.007	.921
M-GUDS F2	.124	.074
M-GUDS F3	.119	.106
TAS-20 F1	.059	.393
TAS-20 F2	.605	.000
TAS-20 F3	.088	.198
	Adjusted R^2 = .427	

$F(7, 166) = 19.401$ $\rho < .000$

The only significant factor in prediction GRCS scores for women is the TAS-20 F2, Difficulty Describing Feelings, $F(7, 166) = 19.401$ $\rho < .000$. This alexithymia factor accounts for 42.7% of the variance in GRCS scores.

GRCS Factor Scores Predicted from Independent Scale Factor Scores. Four multivariate regression tests were performed to determine which factors of the independent variables predict GRCS factor scores {Success, Power, And Competition (GRCS F1), Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2), Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3), and Conflict Between Work And Family (GRCS F4) } for women. The factors of the independent variables are: Diversity Of Contact (M-GUDS F1), Relativistic Appreciation (M-GUDS F2), Comfort With Differences (M-GUDS F3), Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1), Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2), Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3), and EIS. Results of these regression equations are contained in table 6.

Table 6

GRCS Factors Predicted from Factor Scores: Women

Global Variable	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.
	GRCS F1		GRCS F2		GRCS F3		GRCS F4	
EIS	.183	.027	-.058	.309	.012	.877	.093	.272
M-GUDS F1	-.157	.056	.045	.436	-.063	.434	.238	.005
M-GUDS F2	.142	.092	.077	.187	.129	.113	-.058	.497
M-GUDS F3	.158	.078	.036	.561	.064	.461	.040	.660
TAS-20 F1	.173	.040	-.012	.836	-.079	.332	.042	.625
TAS-20 F2	.246	.006	.756	.000	.264	.003	.259	.001
TAS-20 F3	.024	.773	-.004	.950	.333	.000	-.109	.199
	Adj. R^2 = .154		Adj. R^2 = .588		Adj. R^2 = .198		Adj. R^2 = .111	

GRCS F1. In women two subscales of the TAS-20, and the Emotional Intelligence Scale predict the first Gender Role Conflict Scale factor (Success, Power And Competition). In addition to Emotional Intelligence, Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1), and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) significantly contribute to variance in GRCS F1, $F(7, 166) = 5.494$ $\rho < .000$. These three scales account for 15.4%

of the variance in Success, Power, and Competition. This partially supports hypothesis #2.

GRCS F2. Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2) is predicted by Difficulty Describing Feelings, TAS-20 F2, $F(7,166) = 36.201$ $\rho < .000$. Difficulty Describing Feelings accounts for 58.8% of the variance in Restrictive Emotionality. This equation partially supports hypothesis #2.

GRCS F3. Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3) is predicted by two alexithymia subscales. Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) and Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3) are both significant in the regression equation predicting GRCS F3, $F(7,166) = 7.120$ $\rho < .000$. These factors explain 19.8% of the variance in GRCS F3 scores in women. These findings partially support hypothesis #2.

GRCS F4. Conflict Between Work And Family (GRCS F4) is predicted by Diversity Of Contact (M-GUDS F1), and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2), $F(7,166) = 4.084$ $\rho < .000$. These factors account for 11.1% of the variance in GRCS F4. Hypothesis #2 is partially supported by the findings that factors of the M-GUDS, and TAS-20 predict a factor of the GRCS (F4).

Hypothesis #3

Hypothesis #3 states: the correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be significantly different for men and women H_0 = The correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be the same. The Fisher Z value can be used to compare correlation coefficients. Since the equations used in hypothesis 1 for men and hypothesis 2 for women are the same, the Fisher Z value for each pair was computed. These results are in table 7.

Table 7

R and Fisher Z Values

Equation	R Men	R Women	Fisher Z
Global Scores predicting Global GRCS	.465	.563	1.253
Factors predicting Global GRCS	.545	.671	1.8433
Factor scores predicting GRCS F1	.375	.434	.6636
Factor scores predicting GRCS F2	.651	.777	2.378
Factor scores predicting GRCS F3	.438	.481	.0645
Factor scores predicting GRCS F4	.344	.383	.424
Critical limit is the absolute value of 1.96			

With the exception of the equations predicting GRCS F2 (Restrictive Emotionality) from the factors of the independent variables, all of the Fisher Z values fall below the critical limit of the absolute value of 1.96. This indicates that the amounts of variance explained by the equations are not significantly different. Since the R value in

predicting Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2) is significantly different from that of women, there is partial support for hypothesis #3.

This quantitative result is not the only evidence that men and women experience gender role conflict differently. It is ironic that the very equation that shows a significant difference in the amount of GRCS scores (predicting Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2) scores from the factors of the independent variables) is the only regression that shows the same significant predictors for both men and women. In the rest of the equations different factors of the independent variables predict gender role conflict for men, than are significant in predicting it for women. This indicates that the qualitative experience of gender role conflict is different for men and women. In other words, we have some quantitative evidence that the factors contributing to GRC are different for men, than they are for women. For example, men experience conflict with Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1) due to Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3), Comfort with Differences (M-GUDS F3), and Emotional Intelligence (EIS). The only factor that women share with men in predicting Success, Power, and Competition, is Emotional Intelligence (EIS). The other factors that contribute to conflict in this area for women are Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1), and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2). Both genders experience conflict with Success, Power, and Competition, but it is caused by different circumstances for women, than it is for men.

Post Hoc Analyses

The above analyses indicate how much of the variance in scores is explained by the independent variables contained in the equations. From these statistics we get no information about the actual amount of each variable reported by men and women. In other words, from the analyses so far we can tell which independent variables contribute to the prediction of GRCS scores, and how much GRCS scores they account for, but we can not tell how much of the variables each gender experiences, and if that amount is significantly different. To determine if men and women experience significantly different levels of each variable a series of one way analyses of variance were completed. The results are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8

Variable Differences between Men and Women: Anova

Variable Name	$\bar{x}$ Men	s Men	$\bar{x}$ Women	s Women	F value	Sig.
GRCS Total	128.34	27.13	119.18	24.60	F(1, 353) = 11.081	.001
GRCS F1	51.97	11.17	49.36	11.22	F(1, 353) =4.841	.028
GRCS F2	26.30	9.58	27.69	10.62	F(1, 353) =2.248	.135
GRCS F3	26.96	9.07	19.82	8.03	F(1, 353) =61.55	.000
GRCS F4	20.11	6.62	22.32	6.76	F(1, 353) =9.644	.002
TAS-20 Total	45.15	10.13	42.24	10.53	F(1, 353) =7.054	.008
TAS-20 F1	13.97	5.43	14.43	5.69	F(1, 353) =.592	.442
TAS-20 F2	12.90	4.15	12.27	4.76	F(1, 353) =1.728	.183
TAS-20 F3	20.86	4.66	17.85	4.42	F(1, 353) =38.906	.000
M-GUDS Total	33.08	7.24	33.85	4.79	F(1, 353) =1.394	.238
M-GUDS F1	10.10	2.31	11.02	1.86	F(1, 353) =17.042	.000
M-GUDS F2	10.72	5.61	10.32	2.20	F(1, 353) =.792	.374
M-GUDS F3	12.13	2.33	12.01	2.44	F(1, 353) =.237	.627
Emotional Intelligence	123.01	16.63	129.15	13.10	F(1, 353) =14.836	.000
	n=178		n = 174			

Men report significantly higher total Gender Role Conflict Scale, as well as Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1), Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3), and Conflict between Work and Family (GRCS F4). Men also have higher TAS-20 total scores, and Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3). Women have significantly higher Diversity of Contact (M-GUDS F1) and Emotional Intelligence scores.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Presented in this chapter are a summary of the results, and discussions of GRC predictors in men, followed by a discussion of GRC predictors in women. Next will be a discussion of the differences between men and women's experience of GRC, and some implications of each of these sections. Finally some limitations of this study, and suggestions for future research are listed.

Summary of Results

In beginning the analyses of the data, the instability of the EIS factor structure had to be dealt with. It was determined that it was appropriate, and most conservative to treat it as a univariate instrument. In each of the other analysis the EIS was treated as a single factor variable.

In order to test the alternative and null hypotheses a series of regression analysis were conducted. Two initial regression models showed that Total GRCS scores are predicted by the TAS-20 in men. GRCS scores are predicted by the TAS-20 as well as the M-GUDS in women. Additional regression analyses were performed to determine how the factors of each independent variable predicted not only Total GRCS scores, but

GRCS factor scales as well. Results of these regressions are graphically represented in Appendix 3. The independent variable subscale scores predicting total GRCS scores in men are Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2), and Comfort with Differences (M-GUDS F3). For women total GRCS scores are predicted by only the subscale score Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2).

The GRCS subscale of Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1) was predicted in men by Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3), Comfort with Differences (M-GUDS F3), and Emotional Intelligence (EIS). In women Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1) was shown to be predicted by Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1), Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) and Emotional Intelligence (EIS). Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2) was predicted only by Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) in both women and men.

The GRCS subscale of Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3) was significantly predicted by Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) in men, and by Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3) and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) in women. The last GRCS (F4), Conflict Between Work and Family, was predicted by Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1), and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) in men. For women Conflict Between Work and Family (GRCS F4) was predicted by Diversity of Contact (M-GUDS F1) and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2).

Fisher Z tests found that the amount of variance explained by Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) for men was significantly different from the amount explained by the same factor for women. The amount of variance explained by the rest

of the equations was not different for men and women. The combination of factors that explain GRCS scores for men and women is different in every case except the prediction of Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2). In addition, a post hoc analysis of variance indicates that men and women experience different amounts of many of the variables in this study. Men report significantly higher total Gender Role Conflict Scale, as well as Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1), Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3), and Conflict between Work and Family (GRCS F4). Men also have higher TAS-20 total scores, and Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3). Women have significantly higher Diversity of Contact (M-GUDS F1) and Emotional Intelligence scores.

GRC Predictors in Men

There are several ways that hypothesis #1 (that the TAS-20, M-GUDS, and EIS will predict GRCS scores in men) gains support. In predicting total, or global gender role conflict, universal-diverse orientation, and emotional intelligence global scores do not account for significant proportions of the variance, but alexithymia does. More support is gained when predicting GRCS total scores from the subscale scores of the independent variables. In this case Comfort with Difference (M-GUDS F3), and Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) positively correlate with Gender Role Conflict Scale scores. As men become increasingly comfortable with people who are different from themselves, they become more conflicted about a gender role that encourages them to compete, and hold power over others, and to restrict their emotional responses toward them. In

addition, the more able men are to describe their feelings, the less GRC they experience. It is possible that being able to describes feelings provides a skill that can be used to reduce gender role conflict.

When predicting GRCS subscales from the subscales of the independent variables, only alexithymia is significant in GRCS factors 2, 3, and 4. Difficulty Describing Feelings is significant in predicting all three of these GRCS subscales. In addition it is the only significant predictor in GRCS factors 2 (Restrictive Emotionality) and 3 (Restricted Affectionate Behavior). These findings are similar to Fisher & Good (1992) who noted that there is an important difference between what men can do, and what they will do. Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1) is only significant in predicting one GRCS factor (Conflict Between Work and Family GRCS F4). Fisher & Good point to research that indicates that men do not have trouble identifying their emotions, and internal states. Their previous alexithymia research, as well as the current study, indicates that men simply don't describe their feelings.

This is conceptually consistent with the Difficulty Describing Feelings subscale of the TAS-20, because of the way it assesses the factor. A sample question is: "It is difficult for me to reveal my innermost feelings, even to close friends." We often assume that there is a vocabulary problem, but the question also allows men to assign safety or value issues to its answer. For example; if a man feels that he should solve his own problems, or would be ridiculed if he talked about his feelings, he is free to interpret this as "difficulty". As this kind of difficulty increases, so do three GRCS factors: Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2), Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3), and Conflict between Work and Family (GRCS F4). Social pressure, or expectations would obviously

make men feel that their freedom to express emotion, or behave affectionately might be restricted. Not being able to express their feelings to supervisors about wanting to spend more time with family may increase conflict between work and family.

All three of the independent measures are significant in predicting Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1). This is the strongest support for hypothesis #1, since factors of all three scales are significantly represented in the regression predicting this kind of gender role conflict in men. This is also an especially interesting combination of predictors; Emotional Intelligence, Comfort with Differences (M-GUDS-F3), and Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20). All three of the beta weights are positive indicating that as each of the predictors rise, comfort with Success, Power, and Competition decreases. As emotional intelligence increases, men become more able to detect their feelings, and use them as information in decision making. Increased conflict may be due to heightened sensitivity to guilt arising from the use of power, or tactics necessary to competition. The M-GUDS F3 (Comfort with Differences) indicates that men may also resent being expected to gain power over others, and compete with them, when they are more able to feel an affinity toward people who are different from themselves. The TAS-20 Factor of Externally Orientated Thinking seems somewhat counter intuitive because as men become less introspective they would seem to think less about the results of Success Power, and Competition. Perhaps Externally Orientated Thinking might encourage men attend to both the pressure to conform to traditional masculinity and reactions of others. The double bind of feeling cultural pressure to be successful, compete, and wield power, while sensitive to other's reactions to the results of those same characteristics could increase feelings of conflict.

GRC Predictors in Women

Hypothesis #2, that the TAS-20, M-GUDS, and EIS will predict GRCS scores is partially supported by several of the equations listed in chapter 4. Global GRCS scores for women are predicted by both the TAS-20 and the M-GUDS. As alexithymia increases, so does the conflict that women feel about traditional gender role. Women who have difficulty identifying, and expressing feeling may be stuck in traditional gender roles. The externally orientated thinking component of alexithymia may encourage them to be sensitive to external pressure to conform. Women who are extrinsically motivated are more aware of pressure to conform to traditional gender roles, and as a result are more aware of areas in which they would like to be free to behave differently. In addition, women who are more able to celebrate and enjoy difference in others are conflicted by cultural expectations that their gender should behave in narrowly defined roles. It is possible that as women are more open to difference among others, they would like the freedom to experience difference in themselves. In other words, women who are more tolerant with others who are different are less tolerant of being pressured into restrictive feminine gender roles.

When global GRCS scores are predicted from the subscales of the independent variables, only Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) is significant. It seems that women feel a similar set of restrictions to disclosing intimate feelings as do men. At first glance this seems counter intuitive to current thinking about gender role and alexithymia. However, intimate feelings may also include frustration, rage, and other assertive or

aggressive affective states. Women may feel restricted in expressing feelings that don't conform to the culturally acceptable feminine image.

The TAS-20 Factor of Difficulty Describing Feelings is significantly present in predicting all four of the GRCS factors from the factors of the independent variables. The theme of feeling restricted in describing, or talking about emotion is a contributor to all of the four kinds of gender role conflict measured in women. It is joined in predicting Success, Power, and Competition (GRCS F1) by Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1) and the Emotional Intelligence Scale. This is the only GRCS factor for which Difficulty Identifying Feelings (TAS-20 F1) is significant in women. While it seems somewhat contradictory that EIS and Difficulty Identifying Feelings would both be significant in the same equation, it's important to remember that the factors do not necessarily act together. In other words woman with high EIS scores may not be the same women as the ones with high Difficulty Identifying Feelings scores. Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) is the only significant factor in predicting Restrictive Emotionality, (GRCS F2).

Difficulty Describing Feelings is also significant in the remaining two equations. In predicting Restricted Affectionate Behavior (GRCS F3) Externally Orientated Thinking (TAS-20 F3) is also significant. Women who are more extrinsically attentive are sensitive to pressures to conform, and thus become more conflicted about adopting a socially sanctioned restrictive affectionate demeanor. In predicting Conflict Between Work and Family (GRCS F4) Diversity of Contact (M-GUDS F1) joins Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20) in significance. As women enjoy more contact with others who make varied life decisions it appears that they become more dissatisfied with having

to choose between work and family. Contact with others of difference may increase awareness of the narrow restrictions of gender roles, thus bringing conflict to the forefront.

The Experience of Women and Men are Different

Hypothesis #3 is that the correlation coefficients for hypothesis #1 and #2 will be significantly different for men and women. The Fisher Z test (Table 7 Chapter 4) did not indicate significant differences between men and women in the amount of variance in GRCS accounted for by these predictor variables, except for GRCS F2 Restrictive Emotionality. It is ironic that there is a difference in the amount of variance accounted for in men and women in the only GRCS factor that is predicted by the same variables for men and women. It is also a good reminder that the Fisher Z evaluates only the amount of variance accounted for in these equations, not the way in which the variance is explained. Restrictive Emotionality (GRCS F2) is predicted by Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) in both men and women. The Fisher Z indicates that the amount of variance in GRCS F2 explained by TAS-20 F2 is significantly different between men and women in this equation. GRCS F2 and TAS-20 F2 are highly correlated: $r = .603$ in males; $r = .766$ in females, and $r = 695$ in the total sample. It could be that these two factors of gender role conflict and alexithymia are measuring much the same thing, in different ways. Never the less, according to these results in this area the experience of men and women appears to be very similar. Men and Women are similar in that both

groups experience gender role conflict, and a prevalent theme in predicting it appears to be culturally constructed restrictions in expressing emotion.

These results help clarify both similarities and differences among men and women. While the Fisher Z test does not support hypothesis #3, there is other evidence that the experience of GRC is different for men and women. First of all, a post hoc ANOVA indicates that there are significant differences between men and women's levels of: GRCS total scores, GRCS F1, GRCS F3, GRCS F4, Total TAS-20 scores, TAS-20 F3, M-GUDS F1, and the EIS (see Chapter 4, Table 8 for F and significance values). While the Fisher Z scores do not show any difference in the amount of variance explained by these predictors, these findings replicate previous research indicating differences in the relative amount of each factor that men and women experience.

More importantly, the only identical combinations of factors that predict GRC for both men and women is in predicting Restricted Emotionality (GRCS F2). In this case the only significant factor is Difficulty Describing Feelings (TAS-20 F2) and it is the same, and only, factor for both men and women. In all other cases, variance of GRC is made up of different components for men and women. (See Appendix 3 for a graphic representation.) Some things that lead to gender role conflict for men, do not trouble women and vice versa.

It is important to note that the GRCS does not pretend to capture all of the factors that lead to gender role conflict. Since the scale was based on masculinity theory and literature, and then extended to women, this situation may be even more exaggerated for females. Many of the gender role conflicts women face may not be represented in the scale. Glass ceiling effects in the workplace may be one example. Even for men, the

scale does not assess all aspects of gender role conflict. For example there are no questions asking how men might feel about expected military service in combat roles. Differences in men's and women's experience may be even more pronounced than these results indicate.

Implications

These findings indicate that men suffer from more gender role conflict (as measured by the GRCS) than do women, perhaps because the consequences for stepping outside of traditional gender roles are greater for men. This may also be due to limitations of the instrument. (In interpreting these results it must be taken into account that the GRCS was theoretically derived from masculinity study. While the feminine version has been empirically verified, it is entirely possible that important aspects of gender role conflict in women are not being measured.) The current research also provides evidence that gender role conflict is not just a masculine problem. It is no surprise that women are also conflicted by the narrow cultural specifications of their gender role. Although different factors of life contribute gender role conflict in men and women, in general it remains a problem for both sexes.

Of the three constructs represented by the independent measures in this study, alexithymia is the most prevalent in predicting gender role conflict for everyone. It seems possible that being able to describe and express emotions may be a moderator in gender role conflict. The ability to identify and describe feelings, and be somewhat introspective may provide skills that allow men and women to mediate the effects of

gender role conflict. This could either function by providing a way to relieve stress caused by GRC or these skills could be important in helping change life circumstances that lead to conflict. Among the TAS-20 Factors that predict gender role conflict, Difficulty Describing Feelings (F2) appears most often for everyone. There is some conjecture about why it is difficult to describe feelings. Regardless if the etiology involves a skill deficit, or a social restriction against intimacy, it appears that this is not a characteristic, or value, fostered by our culture.

Emotional Intelligence Scale scores are significant in predicting GRCS F1 scores for both men and women. As EIS increases both men and women suffers from conflict with Success, Power, and Competition. As affect becomes a tool for decision making, people become uncomfortable with wielding power in order to compete for success. It appears that as individuals become more aware of the affective consequences of Success, Power, and Competition, they would like a more cooperative culture. To date Gender Role Conflict has been thought of as a stress leading to negative consequences. In this case it might be considered a positive invitation to growth, abet a painful one.

These findings present some implications for treatment. Success, Power, and Competition is often associated with the work place. It may be beneficial to explore both the state of the client's comfort with people who are different from themselves, and level of emotional intelligence. Clients who enjoy people of difference may be more sensitive to issues of power, and competition in the workplace. Likewise persons who take into account emotional issues when making decisions are likely to be conflicted about expectations to succeed, gain power, and compete in high pressure job markets. Unlike cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence is theorized to be teachable, and varies

through the life span. Comfort with difference is also variable. Increases in either of these factors, due to changes in the client's life situation, might cause clients to experience conflict with power, and competition.

Because Difficulty Describing Feelings is so pervasive in these findings, exploring contexts and appropriate means of emotional expression may be helpful to many clients. The inability to, or social restrictions from, expressing personal feelings could complicate a whole host of presenting problems. The TAS-20 F2 prediction of Restrictive Emotionality suggests relationship problems, and it's relationship to Conflict between Work and Family, and Success, Power, and Completion may indicate workplace trouble.

It is important to note that in answering research question number 3, which focuses on the differences between men and women, the similarities in experience that the genders share has been entirely over looked. Indeed the unique contribution of this research may lie in the indications that men and women share some troubling aspects of alexithymia, and that gender role conflict can be a useful construct in conceptualizing everyone's struggle with socially constructed gender roles.

Limitations

There are several limitations inherent in this research. First is its use of self report measures. Respondents feel that they are accurately reporting, but we can only assume that these results are reflected in behavior. In addition, the sample is narrowly restricted to the college population, and has little diversity. The sample consists mainly of young,

privileged men and women. The results must be generalized with great care. The use of the EIS as the measure of emotional intelligence is somewhat troublesome. Its lack of a stable factor structure and high correlation with the TAS-20 ($r = -.466$) may limit the results of this study. Finally, although the dependant variable in this study (GRCS), has been shown to be empirically valid for women, it was created from within masculinity theory. It is possible that the scale fails to assess salient, or even the most important areas of gender role conflict in women.

Future Research

This research points to evidence that although men experience more GRC than women, it is a problem for both genders. It also supports the concept that each gender experiences GRC differently, and because of that gender role conflict may be situational in nature. Future research may be able to identify specific situations that produce gender specific GRC. For example, we do not know if men and women experience gender role conflict differently in the workplace, or in the home. A better understanding of the contexts and factors that bring about GRC for each sex may lead to improved gender specific intervention.

Similarly, these findings indicate that both men and women may feel restricted in expressing or describing emotion. It may be important to know if they are different sets of emotions, the repressions are felt in different contexts, or exactly what the mechanism of repression is. For example, men may feel restricted in expressing tender emotions, while women might be constrained in expressing assertive or aggressive feelings. Women

may feel more gender role conflict when at the workplace, and men may experience more in the home. It would be interesting to understand the mechanisms of gender role conflict, starting with the source of pressures to conform. Men may feel pressure from the homophobic reactions of other men; but a different kind of pressure from women. Mate selection opportunities for example. It is possible that by identifying the similarities in men and women's gender role conflict, as well as the differing contexts that produce gender role strain in men and women, it may be possible to construct a unified theory based on gender role strain that explains not only the conflict that people experience because of their gender, but also the strengths provided by socially constructed gender roles.

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APPENDIX 1

Variable Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
	Men		Women	
GRCS TOTAL	128.34	27.13	119.18	24.60
GRCF1	51.97	11.17	49.36	11.22
GRCF2	29.30	9.58	27.69	10.62
GRCF3	26.96	9.07	19.82	8.03
GRCF4	20.11	6.62	22.32	6.76
TAS –20 TOTAL	45.15	10.13	42.24	10.53
TF1	13.97	5.43	14.43	5.69
TF2	12.90	4.15	12.27	4.76
TF3	20.86	4.66	17.85	4.42
M-GUDS TOTAL	33.08	7.24	33.85	4.79
MF1	10.10	2.31	11.02	1.86
MF2	10.72	5.61	10.32	2.20
MF3	12.13	2.33	12.01	2.44
EIS TOTAL	123.01	16.63	129.15	13.10

APPENDIX 2

Pearson Correlation Table

	GRCS T	GRCS F1	GRCS F2	GRCS F3	GRCS F4	TAS-20 T
GRCS T	1.000	.764	.757	.705	.514	.502
GRCS F1	.764	1.000	.342	.354	.305	.282
GRCS F2	.757	.342	1.000	.460	.244	.556
GRCS F3	.705	.354	.460	1.000	.089	.378
GRCS F4	.514	.305	.244	.089	1.000	.131
TAS-20 T	.502	.282	.556	.378	.131	1.000
TAS-20 F1	.314	.211	.331	.130	.197	.783
TAS-20 F2	.547	.243	.695	.352	.199	.767
TAS-20 F3	.340	.205	.329	.424	-.094	.688
MGUDS T	.001	.036	-.042	-.096	.137	-.095
MGUDS F1	.992	.503	.429	.073	.010	.076
MGUDS F2	.014	.043	-.016	-.030	.047	-.040
MGUDS F3	.108	.137	.021	.037	.111	-.050
EI Total	-.227	.006	-.352	-.277	.017	-.466

Person Correlation Table Part II

	TAS-20 F1	TAS-20 F1	TAS-20 F3	MGUDS T	MGUDS F1	MGUDS F2
GRCS T	.314	.547	.340	.001	-.087	.014
GRCS F1	.211	.243	.205	.036	-.095	.043
GRCS F2	.331	.695	.329	-.042	-.073	-.016
GRCS F3	.130	.352	.424	-.096	-.184	-.030
GRCS F4	.197	.199	-.094	.137	.184	.047
TAS-20 T	.783	.767	.688	-.095	-.163	-.040
TAS-20 F1	1.000	.470	.192	.044	.073	-.004
TAS-20 F2	.470	1.000	.386	-.081	-.078	-.047
TAS-20 F3	.192	.386	1.000	-.210	-.383	-.061
MGUDS T	.044	-.081	-.210	1.000	.585	.797
MGUDS F1	.073	-.078	-.383	.585	1.000	.117
MGUDS F2	-.004	-.047	-.061	.797	.117	1.000
MGUDS F3	.031	-.075	-.090	.639	.383	.318
EI Total	-.248	-.385	-.448	.175	.185	.111

Person Correlation Table Part II

	MGUDS F3	EI Total
GRCS T	.108	-.227
GRCS F1	.137	.006
GRCS F2	.021	-.352
GRCS F3	.037	-.277
GRCS F4	.111	.017
TAS-20 T	-.050	-.466
TAS-20 F1	.031	-.248
TAS-20 F2	-.075	-.385
TAS-20 F3	-.090	-.448
MGUDS T	.639	.175
MGUDS F1	.383	.185
MGUDS F2	.318	.111
MGUDS F3	1.000	.089
EI Total	.089	1.000

N = 353

APPENDIX 3

Significant variables in predicting GRCS

Global GRCS Predictions from Factor Scores					
Men			Women		
		Sig			Sig
T2	Difficulty Describing Feelings	.000	TF2	Difficulty describing feelings.	.006
M3	Comfort with Differences	.013			
		R^2 .268			*R^2 .154*

GRCS F1 (Success, Power, and Competition)					
Men			Women		
		Sig			Sig
TF3	Externally orientated thinking	.008	TF1	Difficulty identifying feelings	.040
MF3	Comfort with Differences	.023	TF2	Difficulty describing feelings.	.006
EIS	Emotional Intelligence	.012	EIS	Emotional Intelligence	.027
		R^2 .105			*R^2 .154*

GRCS F2 (Restrictive Emotionality)					
Men			Women		
		Sig			Sig
TF2	Difficulty describing feelings	.000	TF2	Difficulty describing feelings	.000
		R^2 .401			*R^2 .588*

GRCS F3 (Restricted Affectionate Behavior)					
Men			Women		
		Sig			Sig
TF2	Difficulty describing feelings.	.002	TF3	Externally orientated thinking.	.000
			TF2	Difficulty describing feelings.	.003
		R^2 .159			*R^2 .198*

GRCS F4 (Conflict between Work and Family)					
Men			Women		
		Sig			Sig
TF1	Difficulty identifying feelings.	.008	MF1	Diversity of Contact	.005
TF2	Difficulty describing feelings.	.048	TF2	Difficulty describing feelings.	.001
		R^2 .082			*R^2 .111*

APPENDIX 4

Demographics Description Table

Demographic Characteristic	Description	
Age	Range: 18 - 54	
	Mean: 21.87	
	Std. Dev: 5.05	
Gender	Male 179	
	Female 176	
Orientation	Heterosexual: 349	
	Bisexual: 2	
	Gay/Lesbian: 4	
Race	White:	269 (75.8%)
	Black:	16 (4.5%)
	Hispanic:	11 (3.1%)
	Asian:	5 (1.4%)
	Native American	20 (5.6%)
	Other:	2 (.6%)
	Non reporting: 32	
Marital Status	Single	314 (88.5%)
	Married	28 (7.9%)
	Living with Partner	8 (2.3%)
Education Level	Freshman	82 (23.1%)
	Sophomore	94 (26.5%)
	Junior	67 (18.9%)
	Senior	65 (18.3%)
	Masters	45 (12.7%)

Demographic Characteristic	Description	
Father remained in Childhood Home	Yes	265 (74.6%)
	No	90 (25.4%)
Mother remained in Childhood Home	Yes	340 (95.8%)
	No	15 (4.2%)
Ethnicity of High School	Predominantly White	172 (48.5%)
	Mixed	176 (49.6%)
	Predominantly Minority	6 (1.7%)
Ethnicity of Childhood Neighborhood	Predominantly White	258 (72.7%)
	Mixed	83 (23.4%)
	Predominantly Minority	13 (3.7%)

APPENDIX 5

Informed Consent Form
for participation in a research investigation Conducted under the auspices of
Oklahoma State University

This study is entitled **The Relationship Of Emotional Intelligence, Alexithymia, And Universal-Diverse Orientation, To Gender Role Conflict**. The principal investigator is Iverson M. Eicken, as advised by Dr. Donald L. Boswell.

I, _____ (print name), hereby authorize the administration of the following questionnaires.

The study will gather information about individual traits of men and women. The purpose of this study is to gain a greater understanding of the differences between the way in which individuals experience their gender role. The procedure will involve a demographic survey and five paper and pencil instruments. It is expected to take about forty minutes to complete all five instruments.

This form and the questionnaires will be gathered separately. The questionnaires will be collected anonymously to ensure your privacy. None of the instruments have any identifying information. While adverse reactions are not anticipated, some participants may become uncomfortable while thinking about these topics of inquiry. Should this occur, and you feel you need counseling, please contact one of the investigators listed below for a referral. Potential benefits to society include a greater understanding of attitudes and traits held by human beings. This may result in more information that can be used to improve our understanding of gender role.

I understand that participation is voluntary, that there is no tangible reward for participating, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in the project at any time, before the questionnaires are collected, without penalty.

For answers to pertinent questions about research subject's rights, I may contact: Iverson M. Eicken, graduate student, (405) 624-0518; or Dr. Donald L. Boswell, faculty advisor, at (405) 744-9454. I may also contact Sharon Bacher, IRB Executive Secretary, 202 Whitehurst, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078; telephone number: (405) 744-5700. You may also contact Iverson M. Eicken to request the results of this research.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX 6

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 8/16/02

Date: Friday, August 17, 2001 IRB Application No ED028

Proposal Title: THE RELATIONSHIP OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, ALEXITHYMIA, AND UNIVERSAL-DIVERSE ORIENTATION, TO GENDER ROLE CONFLICT

Principal Investigator(s):

Iverson Ekken
211 N. Hoke
Stillwater, OK 74075

Don Boswell
434 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Expedited

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to the IRB, in 203 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, sbacher@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 8/16/02

Date Thursday, December 06, 2001 IRB Application No ED028

Proposal Title: THE RELATIONSHIP OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, ALEXITHYMIA, AND UNIVERSAL-DIVERSE ORIENTATION, TO GENDER ROLE CONFLICT

Principal Investigator(s)

Iverson Eicken
211 N. Hoke
Stillwater, OK 74075

Don Boswell
434 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Expedited

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s) : Approved **Modification**

Please note that the protocol expires on the following date which is one year from the date of the approval of the original protocol:

Protocol Expires: 8/16/02

Signature

Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

Thursday, December 06, 2001
Date

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor's signature. The IRB office MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.

VITA

Iverson M. Eicken

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, ALEXITHYMIA, AND UNIVERSAL-DIVERSE ORIENTATION, TO GENDER ROLE CONFLICT

Major Field: Educational Psychology: Specialization area: Counseling Psychology

Biographical:

Education: Graduated from Homewood-Flossmoore High School, Flossmoore, Illinois in May of 1972; received Bachelor of Science degree in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation from Oklahoma State University, Norman, Oklahoma in 1982, and completed the requirements for the Master of Education with a major in Community Counseling at Central State University, Edmond Oklahoma 1998. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology with a specialization in Counseling Psychology at Oklahoma State University in August, 2003.

Experience: Raised in a suburb of Chicago, involved in Boy Scouts, and high school gymnastics. Completed much of his undergraduate study at U.C. Berkeley on an athletic scholarship, and was a member of the U.C. Berkeley 1975 NCAA Championship Gymnastics Team. Completed a 20 year career as a Police Officer with the City of Moore before entering the Ph.D. program at Oklahoma State University.

Professional Memberships: American Psychological Association: Student Affiliate, APA Division 51: Society for the Psychological Study of Men and Masculinity, Founding Co-Chair: Division 51 Ad Hoc Committee for Social Activism, APA Division 17: Counseling Psychology, APA Division 48: The Society for the Study of Peace, Conflict, and Violence