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GENDER ROLE CONFLICT AND COPING: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION OF COLLEGE MALES

by

David John Bergen

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of The Graduate School at
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Approved by

L. DAnne Borders

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This study investigated differences in coping strategies between college males with high and low gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS). Emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies of men, as assessed by the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ), also were examined across gender role conflict-specific and gender role conflict-neutral stressful encounters. Traditional age college males living on-campus at two small private colleges located in southeastern United States completed the GRCS, the WOCQ, and a demographic questionnaire. Responses were received from 247 students.

Comparisons were completed to examine the coping profiles between men with high and low gender role conflict. Selection of coping strategies was investigated to compare high and low gender role conflict men in response to scenarios characterized by high and low gender role conflict. Coping profiles were not found to differ significantly in either analysis. Examination between the factors of the GRCS and subscales of the WOCQ revealed no direct significant relationships.

Results of the study suggest that gender role conflict does not influence the selection of coping strategies in college males. This remains true for men with various levels of gender role conflict as well as in situations that are characterized by different levels of gender role conflict.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Committee Chair

L. DiAnne Borders, Ph.D.

Committee Members

James M. Benshoff, Ph.D.

Lloyd Bond, Ph.D.

William L. Tullar, Ph.D.

December 4, 1996
Date of Acceptance by Committee

December 4, 1996
Date of Final Oral Examination

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Men in the United States are much less likely to utilize professional counseling services when compared to women (Wills & DePaulo, 1991). This pattern remains true even on college campuses, where female students use professional counseling services twice as often as male students (Research Consortium of Counseling and Psychological Services in High Education, 1992). A substantial body of literature has investigated reasons why women more readily enter into a counseling relationship, offering numerous psychological and sociological explanations (Collier, 1982). Much less attention, however, has been directed toward traditional aged college and adult men and their respective difficulty entering into a professional helping context (Collier, 1982; Prosser-Gelwick & Garni, 1988; Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989). Exploration of the reluctance of men to seek and utilize professional counseling is significant to professional counselors in identifying and addressing the mental health needs of this overlooked, yet substantial, population.

Some researchers have investigated the traditional male role as an explanation of the difficulty college men experience in seeking professional support (David & Brannon, 1976; Good et al., 1989; Good & Mintz, 1990, 1993; Good & Wood, 1995; O'Neil, 1981a). According to these researchers, the traditional male role, as characterized by instrumentality, strength, aggressiveness, and emotional inexpressiveness, is incongruent to the nature

of seeking counseling (David & Brannon, 1976; O'Neil, 1981a). Desirable characteristics of counseling clients, such as identification and acceptance of personal problems, willingness to self-disclose, tolerance of interpersonal vulnerability, and emotional insight are often counter to the traditional male role (Eisler & Blalock, 1991; Good, Gilbert, & Scher, 1990; O'Neil, 1981a) Indeed, there is empirical support for the theory that adherence to the traditional male role is significantly related to negative help seeking behaviors and attitudes (Good et al., 1989).

Emerging from these investigations is the concept of "gender role conflict" (O'Neil, 1981a). Gender role conflict is when "... rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self" (Good, Robertson, O'Neil, Fitzgerald, Stevens, DeBord, Bartels, & Braverman, 1995, p. 3). Thompson, Pleck, and Ferrera (1992) described the construct of male gender role conflict as "providing an important link between societal norms scripting traditional masculinities and individuals' adaptation" (p. 598), and indicated that instruments measuring this construct permit more accurate predictions of men's actual behaviors than do other masculinity assessment instruments. Men with higher levels of gender role conflict experience greater restraint in the roles society has taught and reinforced as acceptable for them. As a result of masculine socialization, these men suffer negative psychosocial and somatic consequences (Eisler, Skidmore, & Ward, 1988; Lash, Eisler, & Schulman, 1990), and their potential as human beings is restricted (O'Neil, 1981a; O'Neil, 1990; Stillson, O'Neil, & Owen, 1991). The disadvantage of endorsing societally taught male gender role beliefs and behaviors and

experiencing the respective conflict circumscribes the psychological functioning of these men, with negative outcomes. Both theoretical explanations and empirical investigations of gender role conflict indicate that adherence to the unattainable expectations of traditional male gender roles harms college aged and adult men's mental health (Goldberg, 1976; Good & Mintz, 1990; Harrison, 1976; Leafgren, 1990; O'Neil, 1981a; O'Neil, 1981b; Scher, Stevens, Good, & Eichenfield, 1987).

The clinical significance of male gender role conflict for traditional aged college men on college campuses has been amply evidenced in the literature employing the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986), which was developed to assess men's thoughts and feelings about their gender role behaviors. Masculine gender role conflict in college men has been positively associated with greater levels of psychological distress (Good et al., 1995), increased depression (Good & Mintz, 1990), lower social intimacy (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), greater sexual aggression (Kaplan, 1992), greater somatic complaints (Stillson et al., 1991), and more negative attitudes toward the use of counseling services (Good et al., 1989; Good & Wood, 1995). In other words, college men with higher levels of gender role conflict are significantly less likely to utilize professional counseling resources even when they are experiencing psychological distress and are functioning lower psychologically. As a result, men with high gender role conflict exhibit poor physical and psychological health and experience isolation from and lack of intimacy with significant others.

Although previous research provides a fairly consistent picture of high gender role conflict males, several questions remain unanswered. One

primary unanswered question pertains to how these men are coping with their internal conflict, particularly in light of their lower psychological well being and unwillingness to utilize counseling services available on campus. Research concerning male gender role conflict offers overwhelming evidence indicating the need for investigations resulting in information college-level professional counselors can utilize in making counseling a more viable option for college men. Although research has empirically substantiated college men's resistance to utilize professional counseling resources in the context of gender role conflict and the psychological strain resulting from this conflict, none propose explanations of coping processes employed by males in the absence of direct psychological support. In other words, a critical unanswered question is how these high gender role conflict college men are coping in the empirically supported state of increased psychological distress and without professional psychological intervention.

Coping, as defined by Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, Delongis, and Gruen (1986), is "the person's constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific internal and/or external demands, that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources" (p. 993). Coping is how a person adapts to demands or expectations the world places on him or her through selecting and employing a strategy of action or, at times, inaction. The selection of a coping strategy depends upon individual characteristics and skills influenced by societal norms and experiences, including those relating to gender. The efficacy of a particular strategy is dependent upon a specific stressor and variables relating to the individual involved. Although it has yet to be investigated as a process variable, gender role conflict in men has

been identified as a significant factor when examining outcomes of the coping process (O'Neil, 1990). For example, male gender role conflict is hypothesized to be a critical factor in the coping process when this construct is related to the identified stressor, such as relating emotionally to other men (O'Neil, 1990). Male gender role conflict is not hypothesized to have an important function in the coping process when gender roles are not involved (O'Neil & Egan, 1992).

Theoretically, an individual may employ a primarily emotion-focused approach in one situation and a problem-focused approach in another, or a combination of the two in a third situation (Scherer, Wiebe, Luther, & Adams, 1988). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) differentiated between these two coping strategies. Emotion-focused coping strategies direct energy toward regulating the emotional distress caused by a stressor. In employing this coping approach, a person seeks to avoid dealing with the stressor directly. Problem-focused coping strategies direct energy toward modifying the stressor. For example, an individual utilizing a problem focused coping strategy focuses on the source of the stress, such as poor use of time, and seeks to modify that stressor through improving time management skills. Use of an emotion focused coping strategy emphasizes altering internal response while avoiding the source of stress, such as not believing one has poor time management and doing nothing to change poor use of time. More frequent use of problem-focused coping strategies has been associated with better adjustment, while emotion-focused responses have been associated with poorer outcomes in terms of managing stress and conflict (Ebata & Moos, 1991; Glyshaw, Cohen, & Towbes, 1989; Holohan & Moos, 1987; McCrae &

Costa, 1986). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) considered emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies to be situationally dependent on perceived or achieved outcomes, rather than on being inherently better than the other. Lazarus (1993) stated that the ability to cope effectively is paramount to a sense of well-being.

Being able to cope effectively with life's challenges translates into improved adjustment, which in turn leads to more effective coping (Ebata & Moos, 1991; Glyshaw et al, 1989; Holohan & Moos, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 1986). It may be that the poorer adjustment in high gender role college men is related to their use of less effective coping strategies (Good & Mintz, 1990; Good et al., 1995; Good & Wood, 1995). To date, however, the possible relationship between coping strategies and high gender role conflict has not been explored. Expanding what is known of male college student coping builds a bridge between two bodies of literature: adjustment and coping research and male gender role conflict research.

Purpose of the Study

The mental health needs of college men are not being met in the delivery of psychological support services by counseling centers on today's campuses (Good & Mintz, 1990; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). With consideration of gender role conflict issues, an understanding of how men cope in the context of psychological distress is vital to developing gender appropriate services. This study will investigate differences in coping strategies between college males with high gender role conflict and college males with low gender role conflict. Coping strategies of men also will be examined across gender role conflict-specific and gender role conflict-neutral

stressful encounters. The ultimate purposes of this research are a greater understanding of the psychological well-being of those men who adhere to a more restrictive male ideology, and initial insight in designing and implementing mental health services acceptable to these men.

Need for the Study

Mental health professionals have professional and ethical responsibilities to understand and competently deliver services that meet the specific needs of college men. Numerous researchers have provided strong evidence that college males with high gender role conflict experience significantly higher levels of a variety of concerns that ultimately result in greater psychological distress (Good et al., 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Kaplan, 1992; Stillson et al., 1991; Good & Wood, 1995). At the same time, they do not utilize professional counseling services (Good et al., 1989). Knowledge of the coping patterns of this group of men will enable professional counselors to offer more appropriate psychological services to male college students. This can be accomplished through helping high gender role college men learn more psychologically beneficial coping strategies in gender related situations. As mental health providers strive to understand and meet the psychological needs of an ever increasing spectrum of individuals, the goal of the present research is to expand what is known of the psychological needs of college males and to bridge the gap between this knowledge and implementation of psychological support services.

Statement of the Problem

This study will explore the coping strategies utilized by college men with consideration of gender role conflict. The following research questions will be investigated:

1. Does the level of gender role conflict in college men influence their selection of specific coping strategies in gender role conflict specific stressful situations and gender role conflict neutral stressful situations?
2. Are college men with high gender role conflict different from college men with low gender role conflict in utilization of coping profiles categorized by emotion-focused coping strategies and problem-focused coping strategies when in gender role conflict specific stressful situations and gender role conflict neutral stressful situations?

Definition of Terms

Coping-- "consists of cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Monat & Lazarus, 1991, p. 2). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping to include those activities, effective and ineffective, an individual exerts in effortful or purposeful reaction to a stressful encounter, thereby excluding reflexive responses.

Coping strategy--refers to the process of coping with a specific stressful encounter. Eight coping strategies presented by Folkman and Lazarus (1985) will be investigated in this study, as measured by the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). These include: confrontive coping, distancing, self-controlling, seeking social support,

accepting responsibility, escape-avoidance, planful problem solving, and positive reappraisal. These coping strategies can be subgrouped into two areas: problem-focused and emotion-focused strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Emotion-focused coping-- a type of coping strategy that directs energy toward regulating the emotional distress caused by a stressor rather than dealing with the stressor directly. Coping strategies included here are: distancing, self-controlling, escape-avoidance, and positive reappraisal.

Gender role-- Those nonphysiological components of sex that are culturally regarded as appropriate to males or to females (Unger, 1979).

Gender role socialization-- The process by which children and adults acquire and internalize the values, attitudes, and behaviors associated with either femininity, masculinity, or both (O'Neil, 1982).

Problem-focused coping-- a type of coping strategy that directs energy toward modifying the stressor. Coping strategies included here are: confrontive coping, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, and planful problem solving.

Male gender role conflict-- "rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, that result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self" (Good et al., 1995, p. 3). Gender role conflict is the outcome of endorsing societally taught male gender role beliefs and behaviors that result in a restriction of a man's potential (O'Neil, 1990; Stillson et al., 1991). The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986) will be utilized in the current study to measure levels of gender role conflict in college males.

Sex role-- Those physiological components of sex which determine different behaviors, expectations, and role sets for men and women (Unger, 1979).

Sexism-- Any attitude, action, or institutional structure which subordinates, restricts, or discriminates against a person or group because of their biological sex, gender identity or role, or sexual preference. Personal sexism is the subjective belief in the superiority of one sex, gender, or sexual preference over another and specific behaviors that maintain this superiority. Institutional sexism is the overt, covert, and subtle manifestations of personal sexism through institutional practices, structures, or policies (O'Neil, 1982)

Organization of the Study

The study is presented in five chapters in the following organization. Chapter I is an introduction to gender role conflict in men and the use of coping strategies by college men. Chapter II presents a thorough review of the literature related to both male gender role conflict and coping strategies. Chapter III presents the methodology utilized in completing the study. The research hypotheses are presented, followed by a detailed description of the population and sample. Instrumentation and psychometric consideration are discussed. The procedures for carrying out the study are described in detail and include data analysis procedures. A detailed description of the pilot study also is presented. Chapter IV outlines the results of the project. Chapter V includes a discussion of implications of the findings in the context of the literature on male gender role conflict.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature relevant to this study can be divided into three major sections: etiology and theoretical foundation of the male gender role strain paradigm, gender role conflict, and the coping process. The chapter ends with a summary of the current literature, offering a rationale for the current study.

Gender Role Strain Paradigm

In response to the development and expansion of the new psychological perspectives on women, the late 1970s and early 1980s were marked by an expansion of theory and research on a new psychology of men. These new schools of thought offered a change in the gender role identity perspective that had originated in the 1930s. Within that earlier gender role identity perspective, an individual's adherence to his or her gender identity was considered the foundation of mental health. In other words, boys should think and behave like boys, and girls should be girls. The gender role identity paradigm, tested and weakened by the feminist movement of the 1960s, was narrow and very limiting for men as well as women. As popular literature and empirical research revealed the unhealthy prescriptive nature of the gender role identity paradigm for both sexes, the need for a new theoretical model of men became apparent.

Pleck, in his 1981 seminal book, *The Myth of Masculinity,* integrated the ideas concerning masculinity developing in the professional literature into ten propositions of masculinity. At the time it was published, Pleck's

(1981) book was the hallmark source presenting the gender role strain paradigm as the replacement for the gender role identity paradigm. His ten propositions of masculinity present a systematic, theoretical framework of gender role strain. From this perspective, gender roles involve standards, expectations, or norms that individual males fit or do not fit within a variety of degrees or magnitudes, resulting in gender role strain (Pleck, 1995). Pleck utilized the work of Hacker (1957) and Hartley (1959) and their respective analyses of the dynamics of masculinity. Pleck's writing also encompassed the formulation of role strain as a shared sociological and social-psychological concept, based in Turner (1970) and Komarovsky (1976). In other words, gender role strain originates and develops within a process of gender socialization. Pleck (1981) integrated the work of these and other theorists to formulate ten propositions of masculinity that would serve as the foundation for a conceptual framework for a new psychology of men. Slight changes in vocabulary have updated Pleck's propositions from the original 1981 version to a more current version that is in line with today's language in the area of male gender role strain (Pleck, 1995). The current ten propositions of masculinity as presented by Pleck are the following:

1. Gender roles are operationally defined by gender role stereotypes and norms.
2. Gender role norms are contradictory and inconsistent.
3. The proportion of individuals who violate gender role norms is high.
4. Violating gender role norms leads to social condemnation.

5. Violating gender role norms leads to negative psychological consequences.
6. Actual or imagined violation of gender role norms leads individuals to overconform to them.
7. Violating gender role norms has more severe consequences for males than females.
8. Certain characteristics prescribed by gender role norms are psychologically dysfunctional.
9. Each gender experiences gender role strain in its paid work and family roles.
10. Historical change causes gender role strain. (Pleck, 1995, p. 12)

These propositions reveal the high potential for negative effects of gender role strain on individual males (Pleck, 1995). The above ten propositions represent three categories, or "arguments," of male gender role socialization and the resultant societal standards for masculinity.

The first category, termed gender role discrepancy, acknowledges how a significant proportion of males experience long term failure to meet male role expectations. The discrepancy between reality and perceived social role expectations results in lowered self-esteem and other negative psychological characteristics. The second category, named gender role trauma, speaks to the socialization process of attempting to meet male role expectations. Long term negative side effects are realized as a male strives to meet societal gender roles, even if role expectations are satisfied. The third category, referred to as gender role dysfunction, addresses the inherent negative side effects of the successful fulfillment of male role expectations (e.g., low emotional

disclosure), either for the man himself or significant others. Reference here is to personal characteristics deemed as desirable for men, but which are instead intrinsically damaging to them. These three theoretical types of male gender role strain (i.e., discrepancy-strain, trauma-strain, and dysfunction-strain) (Pleck, 1995) are considered individually below, with a focus on the research related to each.

Male Gender Role Discrepancy

Male gender role discrepancy results when individual males do not meet gender role expectations defined societally and, as a result, experience negative consequences (e.g., lower self-esteem). Often, these psychologically damaging side effects are the outcomes of negative social feedback and internalized negative self-judgments (Pleck, 1995). One only has to imagine the difficulty of growing up male unskilled in athletic abilities or homosexually oriented to understand this type of strain. Margaret Mead, in her classic 1935 book, *Sex and Temperament in Three Primitive Societies,* revealed the societal context upon which appropriate gender roles are defined and evaluated. The essence of her writing points to an individual male's adaptation in one culture and his "misfit" within another. In other words, his male gender role appropriateness is primarily dependent upon societal or cultural norms, and is much less associated with individual characteristics or traits.

Two lines of research have examined male gender role discrepancy, or the discrepancy-strain phenomenon. In the first, the two sides of this issue have been investigated by comparing an individual male's characteristics to the gender role standards for his particular culture, then assessing the

discrepancy between the two. Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) compared adjective self-ratings of men through measuring ideal self- and actual self-ratings, and operationally defining the resulting discrepancy score as gender role strain. The resulting gender role strain score was then analyzed as an influence on self-esteem. These researchers found significant effects of gender role strain on males' self-esteem, with higher gender role strain being associated with lower levels of self-esteem.

Three theoretical challenges have arisen in this line of study, resulting in limited research (Pleck, 1995). One challenge concerns the level of psychological salience of gender role norms for a specific individual. According to this line of argument, the significance of gender role strain is dependent upon the relevance or importance of gender roles to a particular male. Validation of this intermediate or moderating factor of salience was not validated in research by Garnets in 1978 and Suslowitz in 1979. A second theoretical concern about the discrepancy-strain issue is the stability of this construct. From this viewpoint, discrepancy-strain is a process rather than a static outcome variable. In other words, the strain is temporary and is resolved through coping or adaptation, thus making examination of this process difficult. Gender role strain is relieved through altering one's perception of gender role norms, changing one's reference group, or disengaging from gender role norms (Pleck, 1995). The third concern is the feasibility that not meeting the standards of masculinity may have positive outcomes in addition to the negative. Positive benefits do occur when, by not meeting the standards, a male avoids the negative outcomes for men inherent in the gender role norm. As Pleck (1995) stated, "The process of

confronting and disengaging from traditional gender role standards may actually confer psychological benefits" (p. 14). This two-sided perspective of male gender role discrepancy, then, illustrates the difficulty of correlating the discrepancy between same-sex ideal and self-concept with lower levels of self-esteem.

A second line of investigation involves the discrepancy-strain theory and personal perceptions of gender role strain, along with the resulting stressful outcomes due to not meeting gender role expectations. In this research, individual males report whether gender role discrepancy exists for them, the degree to which this exists, and the degree to which this would be perceived as stressful. This line of research is different than the one discussed above in that gender role discrepancy is assessed directly, rather than indirectly as above. This approach has been investigated utilizing O'Neil's (1986) Gender Role Conflict Scale-II and Eisler and Skidmore's (1987) Masculine Gender Role Stress instrument. Respondents are asked on each of these scales to relate their level of gender role strain to a series of created situations designed to elicit potential sources of gender role strain. The relevant, yet limited, research for this approach provides more specific individual information concerning gender role strain and offers a direct connection to outcomes variables.

Male Gender Role Trauma

Pleck (1995) identified a second type of gender role strain in men as trauma-strain. Male gender role trauma refers specifically to the traumatic socialization process males encounter as they strive to meet gender role expectations. This construct has been a central element in qualitative

research investigating the effects of male socialization on men, including Messner's (1992) study of professional athletes and Fine's (1987) study of little league baseball players. In both of these studies, male gender role reinforcement was examined through the often psychologically brutal socialization process that is present within male athletic teams.

Levant (1992) examined gender role trauma and the resulting effects on the male emotional experience as a combination of social learning and psychoanalytic development. Levant concluded that much of male psychopathology, such as over-reliance on aggression and difficulties with emotionality and intimacy, arise from male socialization to become alexithymic, the inability to verbalize emotions. Pollack (1992) hypothesized that the early process of boys separating from their mothers contributes to an emotional wound inherent in this process. His theory of separation is founded in boys' recognition of being a different gender than their mother and working towards independence. The significance of gender role trauma in Pollack's hypothesis involves the different processes individual's experience based on their gender. This process of gender role socialization, while traumatic for some males, is significant in examining outcome characteristics, such as limited emotionality or diminished intimacy in relationships.

A central concept in gender role trauma involves the construct of shame (Pleck, 1995). Research involving shame in men (Krugman 1987, 1995; Osherson & Krugman, 1990) has revealed significant connections between shame and gender role strain and the resulting trauma. The process of shame socialization, shame commonly experienced by men as a typical part of

becoming a man, can be adaptive when boys develop skills in managing themselves in relation to authority, peers, and intimate others. This process can be disrupted by developmental and gender role pressures or by psychological trauma, resulting in difficulties with the integration of shame experiences (Krugman, 1995). In other words, the experience of shame can lead to feelings of vulnerability, difference, exposure, and loss of control. "In discussing shame in male development, it is useful to recognize that (a) shame is an innate response tendency that (b) has the adaptive function of sensitizing the individual to his status/connection with others; that (c) shame functions in normal and pathological development; and that (d) shame plays a formidable and problematic role in normative male development" (Krugman, 1995, p. 93). Here, the normative male stance is interpreted through reference to common and nonpathological tendencies in men in response to socialization expectations. Krugman (1995) believed that normative male socialization significantly depends on the aversive power of shame to shape acceptable male behavior and attitudes. The cost of this normative male socialization process is an overdeveloped sensitivity to shame, and a loss of positive maturation and integration of shame responses. Krugman (1995) portrayed the outcomes of shame socialization in men as "...tendencies toward social and emotional isolation, patterns of compulsive work and substance abuse, and an alarming growth in the use of aggression to handle social and emotional conflict" (p. 94). This perspective on gender role strain lacks an adequate empirical foundation, but offers a theoretical basis for research investigating gender role strain in men.

Male Gender Role Dysfunction

A third type of gender role strain, and one that has driven a substantial body of research, is male gender role dysfunction, or strain-dysfunction. Male gender role dysfunction pertains to the process of meeting gender role standards that can have negative consequences because of the inherent dysfunctional nature of these behaviors and characteristics. In addition, meeting gender role standards not only can have adverse outcomes for men, but also for their significant others (Pleck, 1995). An illustration of the negatives effects of gender role dysfunction on significant others for men includes their emotionally-limited relationships with partners, children, and friends.

One line of research involving gender role dysfunction has utilized gender role orientation assessment instruments in relation to specific negative outcomes (e.g., inability to express emotions). Gender or sex role orientation was initially assessed by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). The drawback of these instruments was that they uncovered socially desirable traits associated with masculinity. Research utilizing these instruments failed to reveal consistent negative consequences associated with a male orientation (Pleck, Sonenstein, & Ku, 1993). Spence and Helmreich (1979) did redevelop the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire to differentiate positive (e.g., independence) and negative (e.g., dominance) components of masculinity. Resulting research did reveal negative correlates with the negative masculine components of the Extended PAQ (Snell, Belk, & Hawkins, 1987; Spence, Helmreich, & Holahan, 1979).

Negative outcomes associated with gender role dysfunction in men have been linked to poorer physical health. For example, Helgeson (1990) investigated men with coronary heart disease using the masculinity scale of the Bem Sex Role Inventory. In this study negative outcomes associated with Bem's masculine orientation included Type A behavior, poor health practices, and impaired social networks. Findings such as these reveal significant health correlates associated with orienting in a masculine direction with a respective costly health expense. This same study revealed that male patients disclosed less information and reported fewer functional limitations when visiting a male doctor than when visiting a female doctor, offering support of limited intimacy between men.

Gender role dysfunction also has been investigated in relation to social roles, particularly those related to family roles. One variable related to gender role dysfunction occurs when men place greater emphasis on career roles than family roles. For example, in a longitudinal study of fathers, Snarey and Pleck (1993) found that fathers who reported less involvement with their children's social-emotional development expressed lower levels of marital success and psychosocial generativity. These same men also experienced lower occupational mobility, contradicting the argument for trading family attention for career success. Snarey (1993) investigated outcomes for children living in families with low involvement fathers. Lower involvement by fathers predicted lesser academic achievement and lower career mobility for male and female children when they became adults. Thus, negative consequences of gender role dysfunction for men and for their families were revealed.

The most significant line of research within the area of gender role strain dysfunction involves the concept of gender role conflict, which is discussed in the next section.

Gender Role Conflict Theory

The construct of gender role conflict is derived from Garnets and Pleck's (1979) sex role strain analysis. These researchers defined sex role strain as an intrapsychic process that leads to poor psychological adjustment, including low levels of self-esteem. Sex role strain for men is characterized by a discrepancy between a person's perception of his personal traits and his standards for himself derived from sex role norms (Garnets & Pleck, 1979). In other words, sex role strain occurs when an individual experiences a gap between real-self perceptions and ideal-self expectations founded in sex role norms. The concept of sex role strain implies that negative psychological consequences follow the failure to meet gender role expectations; however, this theory did not provide the operational definitions and structure necessary for empirical examination or validation of the construct (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995).

In 1981, James O'Neil published two major works representing reviews of the psychological and sociological literature on sex role strain in men (O'Neil, 1981a, 1981b). O'Neil concluded that very limited research involving sex role strain in men was available and that operationally defined patterns of sex role conflict in men did not exist. O'Neil was searching for a model that offered an explanation of how men's socialization affected their personal and work lives. O'Neil's work also revealed a large void between literature that identified men's problems (David & Brannon, 1976; Farrell, 1974; Fasteau,

1974; Goldberg, 1977; Nichols, 1975; Pleck & Sawyer, 1974) and empirical investigations involving sex role strain that served to interpret these problems.

Within O'Neil's (1981b, 1982) writing, the term "sex role conflict" was changed to "gender role conflict" based on Unger's (1979) differentiation between sex and gender role. Unger (1979) defined sex roles as those physiological components of sex which determine different behaviors, expectations, and role sets for men and women. In contrast, gender roles were defined as those nonphysiological components of sex that are culturally regarded as appropriate to males or to females. (Unger, 1979). Seventeen psychological patterns of men's sex role conflicts and 24 psychological effects were proposed in O'Neil's writing, including the interpersonal, career, family, and health areas of men's lives (O'Neil, 1981a). O'Neil (1981b, 1982) later reduced the 17 patterns of sex role conflict to six major patterns of gender role conflict. Based on a man's fear of femininity created through the male socialization process, the original six patterns of gender role conflict included: (1) restrictive emotionality; (2) socialized control, power, and competition; (3) homophobia; (4) restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior; (5) obsession with achievement and success; and (6) health care problems (O'Neil, 1981a, 1981b, 1982). These six patterns of gender role conflict in men were later modified into four patterns through a process of empirical validation (explained later in this chapter) (O'Neil et al., 1986). The four empirically derived patterns of gender role conflict include: (1) success, power, and competition; (2) restrictive emotionality; (3) restrictive affectionate behavior between men; and (4) conflict between work and family relations (O'Neil,

1986). Figure 1 depicts the gender role conflict theory and related constructs. The theoretical significance of the patterns of gender role conflict defined by O'Neil (1981a, 1981b, 1982) include an emphasis on a man's experience when gender role discrepancies occur and related negative outcomes are revealed.

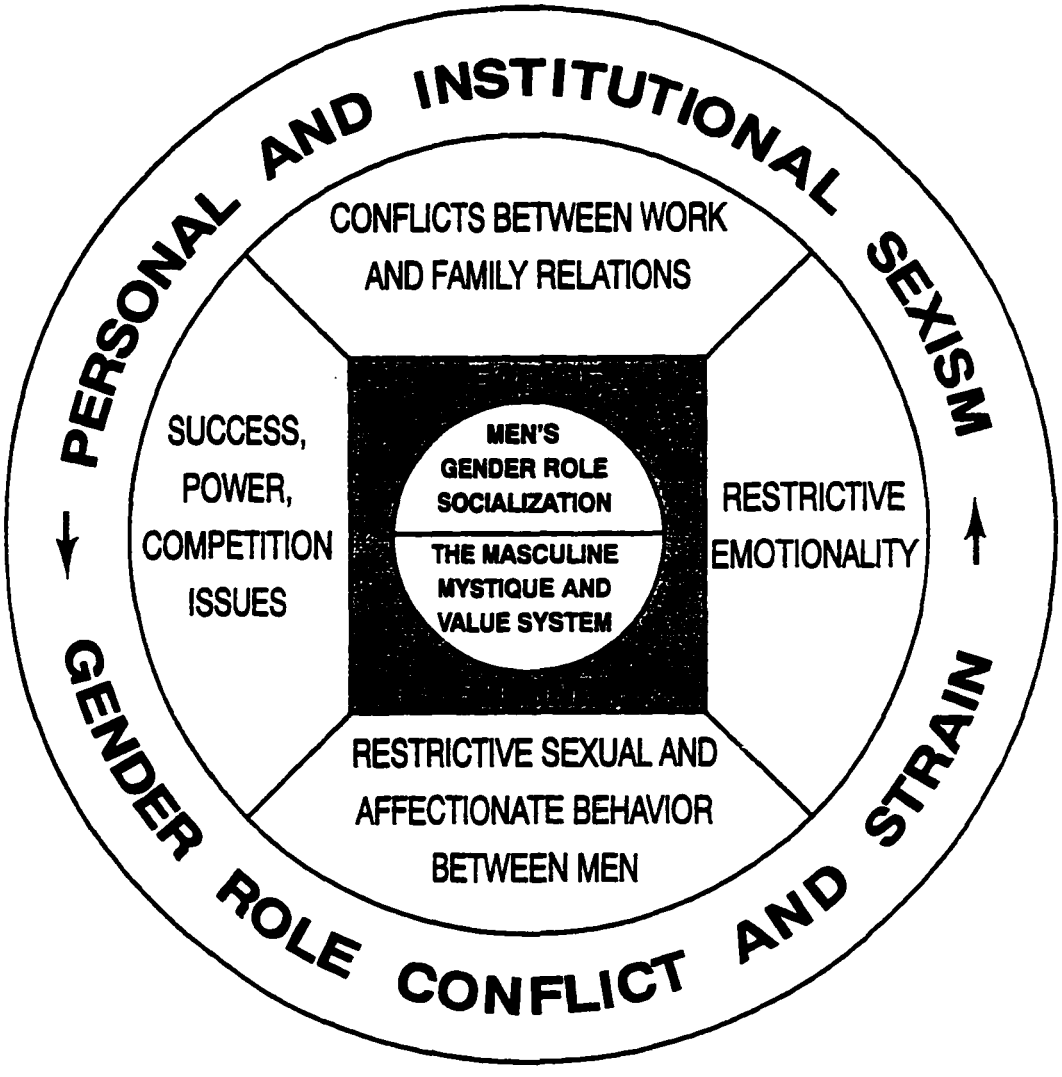
The negative aspects of the masculine stereotype were defined by O'Neil (1981a, 1981b, 1982) as the Masculine Mystique and Value System. The Masculine Mystique and Value System is composed of a complex set of values and beliefs, based on rigid sex and gender role stereotypes, that define masculinity (O'Neil, 1982; O'Neil et al., 1995). From these stereotypes arise assumptions, expectations, and attitudes that define what the American man should embody (O'Neil, 1982).

> The values of the Masculine Mystique in this country emerged within our early agrarian society which tamed the wilderness and started the American experiment in democracy. These particular male values were considered necessary to establish our economy before and after the Industrial Revolution, incorporate the principles of capitalism, and establish the nuclear family. These values have changed little as our society has become more urbanized and computerized. The Feminist Movement of the 1970's was the primary stimuli for examining the Masculine Mystique (O'Neil, 1982, p. 16).

Fifteen assumptions of the Masculine Mystique serve as the foundation for gender role conflict in men, and offer a historical view of the socialization experienced by men and women. These assumptions are:

1. Men are biologically superior to women, and therefore men have greater human potential than women.
2. Masculinity, rather than femininity, is the superior, dominant, more valued form of gender identity.

Figure 1. Model of Male Gender Role Conflict



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3. Men's power, dominance, competition, and control are essential to proving one's masculinity.
4. Vulnerabilities, feelings, and emotions in men are signs of femininity (weakness) and are to be avoided.
5. Masculine control of self, others, and environment are essential for men to feel safe, secure, and comfortable.
6. Men seeking help and support from others show signs of weakness, vulnerability, and potential incompetence.
7. Masculine thinking, including rational and logical thought, is always the superior form of intelligence to understand life.
8. Interpersonal communications that emphasize human emotions, feelings, intuitions, and physical contact are considered feminine and should be avoided.
9. Men's success in relationships with women is contingent on subordinating females by using power, dominance, and words to control interactions.
10. Sexuality is a primary means of proving one's masculinity. Sensuality and intimacy are considered feminine and should be avoided.
11. Vulnerability and intimacy with other men are to be avoided because (a) being vulnerable with another male competitor may cause him to take advantage; (b) being intimate with other men may imply homosexuality or effeminacy.
12. Men's work and career success are measures of their masculinity.

13. Self-definition, self-respect, and personal worth are primarily established through achievement, success, and competence on the job.
14. Male power, control, and competition are the primary means to becoming a success and ensuring personal respect, economic security, and happiness.
15. Men are vastly different and superior to women in career abilities; therefore, men's primary role is that of breadwinner or economic provider; women's primary role is that of caretaker of home, children, and men. (O'Neil, 1982, p. 16)

The assumptions that define the Masculine Mystique affect all men to different degrees and in different ways. For example, Tolson (1977) considered masculinity to be institutionalized so that our social, political, religious, and economic systems function on masculine norms. As a result, failing to conform to the Masculine Mystique leads to punishment and negative labeling (O'Leary & Donoghue, 1978). O'Leary and Donoghue (1978) concluded: (1) sex-role deviance is more severely punished when displayed by boys than girls; (2) men are more severely penalized for demonstrating incompetence and failing; (3) men who violate traditional masculine behavior risk devaluation; and (4) early childhood deviation from the prescribed male role results in poor psychological adjustment. Men learn to modify their behavior to adhere to the Masculine Mystique and Value System in their efforts to avoid punishment and devaluation. Additionally, this

construct negatively affects women by subordinating and restricting feminine attitudes, values, and behaviors.

The socialized subordination of femininity in men serves as the foundation for gender role conflict and occurs in two ways. The first refers to the consideration of feminine characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors as inferior when compared to masculine characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors. The second method of how femininity is subordinated is the belief that women, men, and children who display feminine characteristics are inferior, inappropriate, and immature (O'Neil, 1981a, 1981b, 1982). Men strive to embody masculine characteristics, while avoiding and suppressing feminine traits, as part of their development and experience of masculinity. The cost of showing stereotypical feminine qualities could be disrespect, failure, and emasculation, resulting in high personal costs for a male who wants to fulfill the Masculine Mystique (O'Neil, 1982).

Male socialization occurs at a young age, as parents and significant others actively strive to modify a boy's behavior away from stereotypical feminine characteristics and toward the Masculine Mystique (David & Brannon, 1976). In fact, male socialization was found to be more intense for boys, yet less clearly defined than that experienced by girls (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). According to David and Brannon (1976), the male socialization process can produce: (1) a life-long aversion to any quality thought to be feminine; (2) constant striving for the ways to be masculine; (3) an inexpressive male image that prohibits open expression of feelings and feminine characteristics; and (4) an emotional and physical distancing between men because of feared homosexuality. The obvious consequence of this male socialization on

young boys is rejection, if they fail to conform, and repression of aspects of themselves considered feminine.

Gender role conflict is when "... rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self" (Good et al., 1995, p. 3). Thompson et al. (1992) described the construct of male gender role conflict as "providing an important link between societal norms scripting traditional masculinities and individuals' adaptation" (p. 598). The ultimate outcome of gender role conflict is a restriction of the human potential of the male experiencing the conflict or the restriction of another's potential (O'Neil, 1990; Stillson et al., 1991). Gender role conflict is multidimensional and complex, and implies "cognitive, emotional, unconscious, or behavioral problems caused by the socialized gender roles learned in sexist and patriarchal societies (O'Neil et al., 1995, p. 167).

Gender role conflict occurs on four overlapping and complex levels: cognitions, affective experiences, behaviors, and unconscious experiences (O'Neil et al., 1995).

> Gender role conflict experienced on a cognitive level emanates from restrictive ways individuals think about gender roles of masculinity and femininity. Stereotyped attitudes and worldviews about men and women result from this cognitive restriction. Gender role conflict experienced on an affective level emanates from deep emotional turmoil about masculine and feminine gender roles. Gender role experienced on a behavioral level is the actual conflict experienced with masculinity-femininity as we act, react, and interact with ourselves and others. Gender role conflict as an unconscious phenomenon represents intrapsychic and repressed conflicts with masculinity-femininity that are beyond our conscious awareness. (O'Neil et al., 1995, p. 167)

Gender role conflict is experienced within six contexts when men: (1) deviate from or violate gender role norms (Pleck, 1981); (2) try to meet or fail to meet gender role norms of masculinity; (3) experience discrepancies between real self-concept and their ideal self-concept, based on gender role stereotypes (Garnets & Pleck, 1979); (4) personally devalue, restrict, or violate themselves (O'Neil, 1990; O'Neil, Fishman, & Kinsella-Shaw, 1987); (5) experience personal devaluations, restrictions, or violations from others (O'Neil, 1990; O'Neil et al., 1987); and (6) personally devalue, restrict, or violate others because of gender role stereotypes (O'Neil, 1990; O'Neil et al., 1987).

Male gender role conflict is viewed as situational and occurs within a conceptual framework that is based upon the four levels and six contexts presented above. A diagnostic schema for categorizing three personal experiences of gender role conflict in three overlapping situational contexts include gender role conflict within oneself, gender role conflict caused by others, and gender role conflict expressed toward others (O'Neil, 1990; O'Neil & Egan, 1992). In other words, the three contexts indicate that male gender role conflict can be experienced by an individual either internally, stimulated by another person's conflict, or externally directed toward another person. Gender role conflict that is experienced on a personal level is defined as the negative consequences of gender role in terms of gender role devaluations, restrictions, and violations (O'Neil, 1990; O'Neil & Egan, 1992; O'Neil et al., 1987). A man who is personally devalued, restricted, or violated due to

sexism and gender role conflict is at risk for lower psychological and physical health (O'Neil et al., 1995).

Until recently, the primary barrier facing researchers interested in investigating gender role conflict in men has been the lack of an assessment instrument that could assess gender role conflict in men. In 1986, O'Neil utilized his propositions concerning male gender role conflict to develop two Gender Role Conflict Scales. The first and primary instrument, the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (O'Neil, 1986; GRCS-I), was designed to assess men's personal gender role attitudes, behaviors, and conflicts. Based on his propositions, O'Neil formulated 85 items to establish an instrument to assess gender role strain in men. Following a psychometric analysis of this preliminary instrument, including item evaluation by raters on the basis of gender role conflict and factor analyses with principal and common factor models, 37 items emerged to comprise the resulting four factors of the GRCS. The first factor, Success, Power, and Competition, refers to persistent worries about personal achievement, competence, failure, status, upward mobility, wealth, career success, obtaining authority, dominance, influence, and striving against others to gain something or the comparison of self with others to establish one's superiority in a given situation. Restrictive Emotionality, the second factor, denotes having difficulty and fears about expressing one's feelings and difficulty finding words to express basic emotions. The third factor, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men, refers to having limited ways to express one's feelings and thoughts with other men and difficulty touching other men. Finally, Conflict between Work and Family Relations refers to experiencing difficulties balancing work-

school and family relations, resulting in health problems, overwork, stress, and lack of leisure and relaxation (Good & Wood, 1995; O'Neil et al., 1986; O'Neil et al., 1995; Thompson & Pleck, 1995). A second instrument, the Gender Role Conflict Scale-II (O'Neil, 1986; GRCS-II), was designed to assess men's degree of comfort or conflict in specific gender role conflict situations. The present study will utilize the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I; thus the research literature presented here will emphasize studies using this scale. The following section offers a discussion of the research that has been completed in the ten years since the GRCS-I was developed.

Gender Role Conflict Research

Much of the research in the area of gender role conflict, due perhaps to the relatively recent development of a gender role instrument, involves comparative studies. As indicated below, many of these studies are based on college students. The following presents a review of the research in the area of gender role conflict.

First, several researchers have looked at the presence of gender role conflict in relation to age. Stillson et al. (1991) examined patterns of gender role conflict across different age groups, utilizing Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee's (1978) life stages. These researchers found no relationship between patterns of gender role conflict and age groups. But Mendelson (1988), also using Levinson et al.'s (1978) life stages, found that men 17 to 22 years old had significantly higher overall gender role conflict than men 22 to 28 years old. Restrictive emotionality was significantly higher for men in the age 28 - 30 cohort as compared to men in the age 22 - 28 cohort. Restrictive affectionate behavior between men was significantly higher for

men 17 - 22 years old as compared to men 22 - 28 years old (Mendelson, 1988). Cournoyer (1994) investigated differences in the level of gender role conflict in undergraduate men (17 - 22 years) and middle aged men (36 - 45 years). Undergraduate men reported significantly more conflict with success, power, and competition concerns than the middle aged men; however, the middle aged men reported greater conflict between work and family relations. These conclusions revealed that gender role conflict affects men in different patterns at various life stages.

The relationship between fraternity status and time on campus with gender role conflict has been investigated. Braverman (1990) examined nonfraternity and prospective fraternity college students in relation to gender role conflict over an 18 month period. He found that prospective fraternity males experienced higher levels of conflict in the area of success, power, and competition when compared to actual fraternity members. Across the study time-frame, both groups reported increased levels of conflict concerning restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family relations. One significance of the Braverman (1990) study lies in the conclusion that all men in the study increased their level of gender role conflict as a function of time on campus.

Other demographic variables also have been investigated. In these studies, race and class have been found to be significantly related to gender role conflict (Stillson et al., 1991). Stillson et al. (1991) found that White, Black, and Hispanic men all reported they experienced problems with success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and conflicts between work and family relations. Lower class Black men were found to have conflict in

the area of success, power, and competition, yet did not experience gender role conflict in the other three patterns as did men of higher classes. Chinese-American, Japanese-American, and Korean-American students were studied using gender role conflict and acculturation as comparison variables (Kim, 1990). Kim found significant differences in the levels of gender role conflict, specifically restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family relations, between Chinese-American and Japanese-American students. A major finding of the Kim (1990) study pertains to the conclusion that higher levels of acculturation in men is significantly related to higher gender role conflict over success, power, and competition, and lower levels of gender role conflict concerning restrictive emotionality. In other words, for this group of Asian-American students, the more immersed they were in the American culture the greater conflict they experienced with success, power, and competition and the lesser conflict they experienced with restrictive emotionality. In 1994, O'Neil studied gender role conflict in American and Russian men. He found that Russian men reported significantly greater gender role conflict than did the American men in the patterns of success, power, and competition and restrictive affectionate behavior between men. Horhoruw (1991) investigated Indonesian men's male friendship and confiding behaviors in relation to gender role conflict. Restrictive affectionate behavior between men was found to have a negative relationship to confiding and expressive behavior between men.

Personality variables that have been examined in relation to gender role conflict include instrumentality-expressiveness, ego identity, and authoritarianism. Spence and Helmreich's (1978) Personal Attributes

Questionnaire (PAQ) instrumentality-expressiveness attributes were utilized by O'Neil et al. (1986) to investigate gender role conflict in men. Expressive men (feminine), instrumental men (masculine), both expressive and instrumental men (androgynous), and neither expressive nor instrumental men (undifferentiated) reported differential degrees of gender role conflict across three factors of gender role conflict: success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and restrictive affectionate behavior between men. Undifferentiated men reported significantly higher scores on restrictive emotionality as compared to all other categories of men, while masculine (instrumental) men reported significantly higher scores on restrictive affectionate behavior between men as compared to feminine (expressive) men (O'Neil et al., 1986).

Higher levels of gender role conflict have been found to be associated with lower ego identity (Chartier & Arnold, 1985). Arnold and Chartier (1984), utilizing Canadian college students, examined the relationship between gender role conflict and ego identity and intimacy. They found high ego identity and low gender role conflict interacted to predict high intimacy, while low ego identity and higher gender role conflict interacted to predict low intimacy. Using American college students, Rounds (1994) found low ego identity scores significantly correlated with overall gender role conflict and restrictive emotionality. Gender role conflict had a significant negative relationship to ego identity. These studies provide evidence that men with high levels of gender role conflict also experience low ego identity.

In a study utilizing airline pilots, Chamberlin (1994) found authoritarian personality attributes to be strongly correlated with gender role

conflict patterns in the areas of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and conflicts between work and family relations. Two attributes of the authoritarian personality, ineffective leadership and interpersonal conflict, were found to be positively related to the four patterns of gender role conflict. In this study, men who experienced high gender role conflict also exhibited an interpersonal communication style characterized by more authoritarian traits.

Examining the relationship between gender role conflict and self-esteem, Davis found (1987) three patterns related to lower self-esteem. His conclusions revealed a negative correlation between self-esteem and restrictive emotionality, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and conflict between work and family. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) found the same three patterns of gender role conflict had a significant negative relationship to self-esteem. Interestingly, Sharpe (1993) reinvestigated the relationship between self-esteem and the four factors of gender role conflict using successful middle age men and found no significant correlations. Thus, it appears that college men with higher levels of gender role conflict do experience lower self-esteem. The relationship between gender role conflict and self-esteem for adult men appears to be less clear (Sharpe, 1993).

Several researchers have investigated intimacy as it relates to gender role conflict. Intimacy for college men was found to have a negative relationship to gender role conflict in the patterns of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and restrictive affectionate behavior between men (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). This study revealed that men experiencing gender role conflict find it more difficult to be intimate with

significant others than do low gender role conflict men. The findings of another study examining the relationship between gender role conflict and intimacy found less consistent results. Sharpe (1993), utilizing the Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS; Miller & Lefcourt, 1982) and the Austin Contentment/Distress measure (ACD; Austin, 1974), found varying relationships between intimacy and gender role conflict. Utilizing the MSIS, Sharpe (1993) found only the pattern of restrictive emotionality to be negatively related to intimacy. However, he did find two patterns of gender role conflict, restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men, to be negatively associated with intimacy using the ACD. Good, Robertson et al. (1995) found identical results when they re-examined these same relationships. Similar results also were reported by Cournoyer (1994) in his study of college students and middle age men. For the college age group, restrictive emotionality was found to be negatively correlated with intimacy, while for the middle age group restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men had a negative relationship with intimacy. Chartier and Arnold (1985) investigated the relationship between gender role conflict and global intimacy and found a negative relationship. Higher gender role conflict men experienced lower global intimacy.

Research also has revealed a strong relationship between gender role conflict and anxiety. In a study utilizing college students, Davis (1987) found all four factors of the Gender Role Conflict Scale to be significantly related to anxiety. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) found the patterns of restrictive emotionality, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and conflict

between work and family to be positively correlated with anxiety in college students. In another study comparing college age and middle age men, patterns of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and conflict between work and family for college age men, and restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family were significantly related to anxiety for middle age men (Cournoyer, 1994). In his study of successful men, Sharpe (1993) concluded that only the gender role conflict pattern of conflict between work and family was related to anxiety. The relationship between gender role conflict and anxiety, then, while exhibiting different patterns at various life stages, is one that is related positively and has significant psychological implications for men.

Depression is a significant psychological illness among college students and several studies have examined the relationship between depression and gender role conflict in men. Good and Mintz (1990) investigated gender role conflict as it related to depression in male college students. They found a significant relationship between all four patterns of gender role conflict and depression. In another study involving college students, only restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family were found to be significantly related to depression (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). College men's depression was significantly related to the patterns of gender role conflict of success, power, and competition and conflict between work and family (Cournoyer, 1994). Good and Wood (1995) found similar results, with success, power, and competition and conflict between work and family being highly predictive of depression in college men. Research has demonstrated, then, that gender role conflict in college men has a strong relationship to

depression. For adult middle age men, the single gender role conflict factor that has been correlated with depression is restrictive emotionality (Cournoyer, 1994).

The level of strain and the amount of stress experienced by men has been shown to have a significant correlation to a high level of gender role conflict. The relationship between men's level of strain (i.e., vocational, psychological, interpersonal, and physical) and gender role conflict was investigated by Stillson et al. (1991). Three different races of adult men, White, Black, and Hispanic, who reported low vocational but high physical strain, expressed significant levels of gender role conflict in the factors of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and conflict between work and family. Black men who were lower class, highly instrumental, inexpressive, and low on psychological strain reported high success, power, and competition conflicts while concurrently reporting low conflict with restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family (Stillson et al., 1991). Sharpe (1993) investigated the relationship between stress level and gender role conflict. He found a significant relationship between the gender role conflict pattern of conflict between work and family and level of reported stress. Good, Robertson et al. (1995) utilized a clinical sample to investigate the relationship between gender role conflict in students receiving counseling in a counseling center and psychological distress. This team of researchers concluded that there is a significant correlation between psychological distress and gender role conflict. Findings revealed gender role conflict to be significantly related to depression, anxiety, somatization, interpersonal sensitivities, paranoia, psychoticism, and

obsessive-compulsivity. The presence and experience of high gender role conflict, then, seems to be a significant component of poor psychological health in men.

While research has provided evidence on the poor psychological outcomes related to high gender role conflict, the willingness to utilize mental health services also lacked positive support. Good et al. (1989) investigated the relationship between gender role conflict and help-seeking attitudes. They found negative help-seeking attitudes were significantly and positively related to the patterns of gender role conflict of restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men. Robertson and Fitzgerald (1992) examined gender role conflict as it relates to negative views of seeking help. A significant relationship was found between success, power, and competition and restrictive emotionality and negative views toward help-seeking. The strong relationship between gender role conflict and negative attitudes toward help-seeking also were supported in Good and Wood's (1995) study. These researchers were able to account for one-quarter of men's attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help with three patterns of gender role conflict, namely, success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and restrictive affectionate behavior between men. Interestingly, the Robertson and Fitzgerald (1992) study also revealed that high gender role conflict men were significantly more likely to prefer a nontraditional counseling brochure (i.e., promoting workshops, classes, etc.) over a brochure that portrayed a more traditional counseling center helping orientation (i.e., direct personal counseling). In another study, undergraduate men with lower levels of gender role conflict were found to be more willing

to seek psychological help than men with higher levels of gender role conflict (Wisch, Mahalik, Hayes, & Nutt, 1993). In addition, high gender role conflict men expressed greater willingness to seek psychological help after viewing a cognitively oriented counseling session as compared to viewing an affectively oriented counseling session (Wisch et al., 1993).

Chamberlin (1994) concluded, in a study examining problem solving and gender role conflict in airline pilots, that a significant positive relationship exists between higher levels of restrictive emotionality and difficulties with problem solving confidence and problem solving approach/avoidance. Greater gender role conflict in men was associated with less effective problem solving appraisal for men. High gender role conflict men experienced greater difficulties appraising problems, as well as implementing problem solving skills, in response to a specific conflict or obstacle.

Research has demonstrated that the presence of high gender role conflict in men indicates poor relationship and marital satisfaction. Campbell and Snow (1992) investigated gender role conflict as it relates to marital satisfaction. They found that married men's restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family had a negative relationship with marital satisfaction. Sharpe (1993) utilized married men and found similar results, with the gender role conflict factor of restrictive emotionality correlating negatively with relationship satisfaction. Sharpe and Heppner (1991) examined relationship satisfaction in college students in comparison to gender role conflict. Their findings revealed a negative correlation between conflict between work and family relations and relationship satisfaction.

Additionally, their study uncovered the restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family relations factors of gender role conflict in college and adult men to have a negative relationship to marital happiness and relationship satisfaction.

Relatedly, two studies investigated men's attitudes toward using contraceptives in relation to gender role conflict. The results of both studies revealed higher levels of restrictive affectionate behavior between men to be related to negative attitudes toward using contraceptives (Berlin, 1988; Rhoades, 1985). Both marital and relationship satisfaction and attitudes toward contraceptive use were negatively related to gender role conflict. It appears that high gender role conflict men have lower potential for more satisfying relationships, and expose themselves and their partners to greater risk to pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases.

In a study investigating the relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward women, Chartier, Graff, and Arnold (1986) found positive correlations between overall gender role conflict level and total scores on a measure of hostility toward women. The highest gender role conflict men reported significantly higher levels of lack of trust and anger at women. Kaplan (1992) and Kaplan, O'Neil, and Owen (1993) examined the relationship between college men's gender role conflict and their sexually aggressive experiences with women and the likelihood of their forcing rape or sex. Gender role conflict patterns of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and restrictive affectionate behavior between men were correlated significantly with self reported sexually aggressive experiences and likelihood of forcing sex across the previous year. Men with high gender

role conflict, then, seem to be at greatest risk for acting violent or committing sexual assault with an intimate partner.

In addition, less positive views toward gay men and lesbian women are held by men with high gender role conflict. In 1994, Ducat studied the relationship between gender role conflict and attitudes toward homosexuals. The gender role conflict patterns of success, power, and competition and restrictive affectionate behavior between men were found to have a significant relationship to negative attitudes toward lesbians and gay men. Ducat (1994) also investigated men's political ideology in relation to gender role conflict and found success, power, and competition and restrictive affectionate behavior between men to be correlated with prowar attitudes, antienviromentalism, and opposition to gays in the military. Rounds (1994) also investigated college men's gender role conflict and attitudes toward homosexuals. Finding similar results, the gender role conflict patterns of success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; and restrictive affectionate behavior between men were significantly related to negative attitudes and intolerance toward homosexuals.

Summary of Gender Role Conflict Research

Overall, the presence of high levels of gender role conflict in college age and middle age men portrays a broad spectrum of psychologically unfavorable and disadvantageous personal characteristics. To summarize the literature presented above, high gender role conflict in men has been shown to be positively associated with lower ego identity (Rounds, 1994), authoritarian personality characteristics (Chamberlin, 1994), lower self-esteem (Davis, 1987; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), lower social intimacy (Cournoyer,

1994; Good, Robertson et al., 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), higher levels of anxiety (Davis, 1987; Sharpe, 1993; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), increased depression (Cournoyer, 1994; Good & Mintz, 1990; Good & Wood, 1995; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), greater stress (Sharpe, 1993), greater levels of psychological distress (Good, Robertson et al., 1995), less effective problem solving (Chamberlin, 1994), more negative attitudes toward help-seeking (Good et al., 1989; Good & Wood, 1995; Robertson & Fitzgerald, 1992; Wisch et al., 1993), lower relationship and marital satisfaction (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Sharpe, 1993; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), more negative attitudes toward contraceptive use (Berlin, 1988; Rhoades, 1985), greater hostility toward women (Chartier et al., 1986), higher levels of sexual aggression against women (Kaplan, 1992; Kaplan et al., 1993), and more negative attitudes toward homosexuals (Ducat, 1994; Rounds, 1994). The relationship between high levels of masculine gender role conflict and significant psychological and interpersonal problems is well supported through the empirical literature presented above. In fact, for men who experience high gender role conflict, the outlook for their psychological well being is rather bleak.

The methodological comparative study approach to research utilizing gender role conflict, through use of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), has more than adequately demonstrated the relationship between this construct and a host of maladaptive psychological dimensions. This line of research has been characterized by almost exclusively descriptive studies of the state of high (vs. low) gender role conflict men. What is unknown is how these men cope and deal with their internal conflicts, particularly in gender role-related situations. Knowledge of their coping

strategies might reveal some insights regarding the high psychological distress that high gender role conflict men report. Thus, the purpose of this study is to investigate the coping process of college men in relation to their level of gender role conflict. Furthermore, an understanding of the outcomes of gender role conflict in men with knowledge of how they cope, offers a beginning to developing interactions by mental health professionals which will serve to counter the resulting negative psychological effects. In the next section, an overview of coping theory and research relevant to this study is presented.

Student Development Theory

College student development theory is a frequently utilized and accepted framework for interpreting and understanding the developmental stages college students experience while in school. Of the numerous theories available, Arthur Chickering's (1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993) psychosocial theory of seven developmental vectors is the most prominent theory in the literature on student development and is particularly relevant to gender role conflict research at the college level.

Chickering's (1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993) theory of college student development expands upon the identity stage of Erikson's (1950, 1968) theory of psychosocial development. Rodgers (1989) postulates that Chickering's theory addresses three broad issues of identity:

1. Career development: Who am I? What am I to become?
2. Defining one's sexuality and initiating the development of the capacity for intimacy: Whom am I to love? What does mature love mean anyway?

3. Finding and integrating an adult philosophy of life, morality, and values: What am I to believe? Am I to accept my heritage or do I have to decide what I am really going to stand for?

Chickering's theory is comprised of seven vectors or stages of development (1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993). He views developmental change as a series of differentiations and integrations associated with the vectors and challenges and supports appropriate to the tasks within the vectors. According to this model, it is vital to offer challenges and supports that are compatible with the student's developmental level (Sanford, 1967). The seven vectors in sequential order include: developing competence (development of intellectual competence, physical and manual competence, and interpersonal competence), managing emotions (learning to control and understand one's emotions), moving through autonomy toward interdependence (developing emotional and instrumental independence), developing mature interpersonal relationships (developing tolerance and appreciation of intercultural and interpersonal differences), establishing identity (developing a clear sense of self-concept and lifestyle), developing purpose (developing clear goals and interests, and learning to be intentional), and developing integrity (humanizing values, internalizing values, and developing personal congruence) (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Developmental growth within this theoretical stance is achieved through successful mastery of the tasks faced within each vector. Growth is the process of integrating the inherent conflict or crisis between previous ways of living and new more effective and developmentally advanced ways of being. Consideration of student development theory is relevant to the

examination of the coping processes college students as this relates to their management of gender role conflict. Additionally, Chickering's theory provides a framework upon which a college man's coping response to gender role conflict may be viewed, and potentially, interpreted developmentally.

The Coping Process

The conceptualization of coping as an operationalized term for research has been the topic of some debate within the literature on this construct (Carpenter, 1992). Carpenter (1992) contended that the vagueness, or, even worse, failure to clearly define coping serves to weaken much of the writing and research in this area. Within the current study, the definition of coping offered by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) will be utilized as the foundation for investigating and interpreting this concept.

Coping is defined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) as "...the person's constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources" (p. 284). Inherent in this definition of coping are two primary features, process oriented coping strategies (i.e., coping strategies that are dependent upon the interaction between an individual's abilities and the characteristics of a specific situation) and contextual coping strategies (i.e., coping strategies that are dependent upon an individual's appraisal of a specific situation and available personal resources).

Coping has been conceptualized by three major perspectives: ego processes, traits, and contextual strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Research on coping has provided greater empirical support for the contextual process approach because it addresses situational and personal variables

(Folkman, 1984; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). This process approach endorses that people select coping strategies based on both their abilities and on the demands of the situation, and emphasizes what a person actually thinks and does in a specific stressful encounter. This process orientation is contrasted to the trait approach, which focuses on what a person actually does and emphasizes stability over change in the assessment of coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Folkman, Lazarus et al., 1986; Lazarus, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Contextual coping is influenced by the person's appraisal of the demands in the encounter and his or her resources for managing these demands. The contextual approach to coping emphasizes specific person and situation variables in determining the coping efforts put forth by an individual (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Folkman, Lazarus et al., 1986; Lazarus, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, in measuring coping, it is important to specify the context or situation for which coping strategies are being reported.

Coping Strategies

Five roles of coping are presented by Cohen and Lazarus (1979): (1) reducing harmful environmental conditions and enhancing the prospect for recovery, (2) tolerating or adjusting to negative events and realities, (3) maintaining a positive self-image, (4) maintaining emotional equilibrium, and (5) continuing satisfying relationships with others. These five roles interact with the process of coping through two major functions: regulating internal stressful emotions (emotion-focused coping) and modifying the person-environment relationship creating the distress (problem-focused coping) (Folkman et al., 1986). Emotion-focused coping strategies are utilized

more frequently when the individual perceives the situation to be unchangeable (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). In situations where an individual perceives the outcomes as changeable, a problem-focused coping strategy is more likely to be implemented (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). A problem-focused coping strategy, according to Pearlin and Schooler (1978), is more effective when an individual controls some aspects of the situation.

Two studies provide empirical support for the proposition that coping most often includes both functions. For example, both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping were present in 96% of the coping efforts put forth by college students during a stressful examination (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Additionally, more than 98% of the coping efforts in a stressful encounter by men and women were characterized by both coping functions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Several studies have provided evidence that more frequent use of problem-focused coping strategies are associated with better adjustment, while poorer adjustment has been shown to be associated with use of emotion-focused coping strategies (Compas, McIcarne, & Fondacaro, 1988; Ebata & Moos, 1991; Glyshaw et al., 1989). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) considered emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies to be situationally dependent on perceived or achieved outcomes, rather than on being inherently better than the other. Also, gender related differences in preferences for coping strategies have not been found (Compas, 1987; Patterson & McCubbin, 1987).

Cognitive Appraisal

According to Lazarus's (1966, 1984) theory, individual differences in responses to stressful events are characterized through an evaluative process

called cognitive appraisal (Coyne & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1979; Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). In other words, an individual's cognitive appraisal of a stressful situation significantly influences the selection of coping strategies. Lazarus, Kanner, and Folkman (1980) defined three types of appraisal of a stressful situation: harm, threat, and challenge. Harm refers to an event that is characterized by damage that has already been inflicted on the person. Threat refers to the potential for such harm, while challenge possesses some opportunity for an inherent positive outcome through a difficult situation. More successful coping strategies (e.g., problem-focused) are utilized when an individual perceives a challenge than when harm or threat are experienced (Lazarus, Kanner, & Folkman, 1980). Folkman and Lazarus (1980), in a longitudinal study of 100 middle age men and women, found that cognitive appraisal played a significant role in the selection of coping strategies. When these men and women perceived a beneficial outcome to a stressful event, they were significantly more likely to utilize a problem-focused coping strategy. On the other hand, when their appraisal was less optimistic, emotion-focused coping strategies were chosen more often. In summary, an individual's perception, or cognitive appraisal, of a stressful event does play a significant role in the selection of effective or ineffective coping strategies. Particular to the current study is the question, Does the cognitive appraisal of gender role conflict in a stressful situation affect the selection of coping strategies?

Folkman and Lazarus (1985, 1988a, 1988b) developed the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ) as a measure of the effect of contextual processes on coping strategies. This instrument assesses an individual's or a

defined group's coping strategies within situational factors specified by a research model, a counseling focus, or, as will be utilized in the current study, a situational-specific vignette. The WOCQ has been utilized in research within a multitude of contexts and a variety of subjects, including depressed adults (Coyne, Aldwin, & Lazarus, 1981), student coping responses to genital herpes (Manne & Sandler, 1984), farmers in career transition (Heppner, Cook, Strozier, & Heppner, 1991), examination stress by students (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), and a broad range of additional research topics.

The WOCQ is comprised of 66 statements that an individual responds to through reference to a specific event (e.g., a situation-specific vignette). Respondents complete a 4-point Likert scale for each statement indicating the frequency with which each strategy either was used or might be used. Eight factors, or coping strategies, are measured by the WOCQ, including: (a) Accepting Responsibility, (b) Confrontive Coping, (c) Distancing, (d) Escape-Avoidance, (e) Planful Problem Solving, (f) Positive Reappraisal, (g) Seeking Social Support and, (h) Self-Controlling (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988b). Problem-focused coping strategies include the Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support scales of the WOCQ. Emotion-focused coping strategies on the WOCQ include the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales.

Implications for College Men

The exploratory nature of the current study limits the projections concerning the relationship between gender role conflict and the coping process. It is important to note that the relationship between coping strategies

and gender role conflict has not been previously investigated. However, given the available information concerning the negative consequences of high levels of gender role conflict in college men, several implications can be discussed. First, the selection and utilization of coping strategies might impact the presence of gender role conflict in men. College men who utilize primarily emotion-focused coping strategies may be maintaining a high level of gender role conflict. On the other hand, men who cope with problem-focused strategies may be altering the situation to reduce their experience of gender role conflict. College men who predominantly utilize one coping strategy may be coping more effectively with gender role conflict than another group of men employing a different strategy. Also, utilization of coping strategies might change in response to stressful situations characterized by high gender role conflict and those characterized by low gender role conflict. Men might benefit psychologically through use of one coping strategy over another when gender role conflict is experienced. This previous point may be even more distinct between high gender role conflict college men and low gender role conflict college men.

The presence of a high level of gender role conflict in a traditional age college man has been shown to have a strong relationship with a variety of negative psychological states. While the clinical significance of gender role conflict for college men is known, the area between psychological trait and psychological functioning is the focus of the current study, mainly the coping process. What has yet to be investigated is the relationship between the level of gender role conflict in college men and the utilization of specific coping strategies. Learning about coping in college men with consideration of gender

role conflict has profound relevance to enhancing information held about men and, more significantly, to improving the delivery of counseling services to men on college campuses, given the array of negative psychological characteristics discussed above.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the design and methodology for the study are presented. Included are research hypotheses, participants, treatments, instruments, procedures, and statistical procedures used in data analysis.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. College men with high gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), will utilize emotion-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), significantly more than college men with low gender role conflict for Treatment 1, a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter.

2. College men with low gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), will utilize problem-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), significantly more than college men with high gender role conflict, for Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter.

3. Overall coping strategy, as measured by the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), will not be significantly

different for Treatment 1, a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter, as compared to Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter, in college men with low gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986).

4. College men with high gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), will utilize emotion-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), significantly more for Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter, than Treatment 1, a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter.

5. Emotion-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), will be positively correlated with gender role conflict scores, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986).

6. Problem-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), will be negatively correlated with gender role conflict scores, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986).

Participants

Participants for this study included 247 traditional age undergraduate males (17-23 years old) ($\underline{M}$=19.95, $\underline{SD}$=1.27) currently enrolled in full time study at one of two institutions of higher education located in the Triad

region of North Carolina: Greensboro College and High Point University. Greensboro College (n= 114; 46.2%) is a private, church affiliated, baccalaureate institution with approximately 1000 students (85% residential, 45% male, 5% minority, 3% international) and no counselor on staff. High Point University (n= 133; 53.8%) is a private, church affiliated, baccalaureate and graduate institution with approximately 2000 students (60% residential, 50% male, 5% minority, 5% international) which has an Office of Counseling with one full time counselor and one half time counselor.

The majority of the ethnic representation of the 247 male students was Caucasian (90.3%), followed with less representation by African-American (7.7%), Asian/Pacific Islander (1.2%), Hispanic (0.4%), and Other (0.4%). Participant's ages ranged from 17 to 23 (see Table 1), they represented all academic classifications (see Table 2), and most lived in the residence halls (97.6%).

Treatments

Two vignettes were created to serve as experimental treatments for this study. The vignettes were designed to differ on one dimension: the presence of male gender role conflict patterns within a stressful encounter. The two treatment conditions for the scenarios were: (a) a stressful encounter not including selected dimensions of male gender role conflict (Treatment 1), and (b) a stressful encounter including selected dimensions of male gender role conflict (Treatment 2).

Validation of treatments

Six vignettes were created based on the four patterns (i.e., Success, Power, and Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; Restrictive Affectionate

Table 1.

Age Representation

Age	HPU	GC	Frequency	Percent
17	5	3	8	3.2
18	17	16	33	13.4
19	29	39	68	27.5
20	36	26	62	25.1
21	19	14	33	13.4
22	13	4	17	6.9
23	14	12	26	10.5
Totals	133	114	247	100.0

Table 2.

Academic Classification Representation

Academic Classification	HPU	GC	Frequency	Percent
Freshman	40	33	73	29.6
Sophomore	32	39	71	28.7
Junior	38	27	65	26.3
Senior	23	15	38	15.4
Totals	133	114	247	100.0

Behavior between Men; and Conflict between Work and Family Relations) and six contexts of male gender role conflict (i.e., when men: deviate from or violate gender role norms; try to meet or fail to meet gender role norms of masculinity; experience discrepancies between real self-concept and their ideal self-concept, based on gender role stereotypes; personally devalue, restrict, or violate themselves; experience personal devaluations, restrictions, or violations from others; and personally devalue, restrict, or violate others because of gender role stereotypes) (O'Neil, 1981a, 1981b, 1982). The development and validation of the vignettes constituted the pilot study for this project. Five of the vignettes were designed to reflect different aspects of male gender role conflict, while one vignette was written to minimize the presence of male gender role conflict. Dr. James O'Neil, Professor of Psychology at the University of Connecticut at Storrs, noted researcher/writer in the area of male gender role conflict, and creator of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), agreed to serve as a consultant in the refinement of the vignettes. Based on Dr. O'Neil's feedback, the vignettes were revised to incorporate dimensions of male gender role conflict more accurately.

Next, to empirically validate the degree of presence of the factors of male gender role conflict in the vignettes, a brief rating form was developed. The rating form, based on the patterns of gender role conflict, facilitated feedback on each vignette (see Appendix A). Ratings for each vignette were completed on five 5-point Likert scales (1=no gender role conflict present, 5=high gender role conflict present) with room provided for additional comments. Rating items for each vignette included each of the four patterns

of gender role conflict and an overall gender role conflict item as the fifth rating. The vignettes were rated by twelve professionals whose expertise focused on men's issues and concerns. Half of the raters were nationally recognized writers and researchers in the area of men's issues; the others were local mental health providers with expertise in providing mental health services to men. Each of the potential pilot study participants was contacted by phone to solicit their involvement. In initial phone contacts, fourteen of an original list of sixteen professionals agreed to participate. Each of the fourteen was mailed a packet consisting of a cover letter with instructions, an information sheet on male gender role conflict, the six vignettes each followed by the rating form, and an addressed stamped return envelope (Appendix A).

Twelve completed rater's packets were received and included in the pilot study. Means were calculated for each of the five rating scales to detect degree of gender role conflict scores for each vignette. Rating means for each rating scale ranged from 1.50 to 4.83 (see Table 3). A cutoff score of 4.0 on each rating scale was chosen to select the vignette with the best representation of a gender role conflict situation. Based on this criteria, vignette 3 was chosen as Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter characterized by the presence of high gender role conflict. For this vignette, four out of five ratings exceeded the cutoff score (compared to 0 to 3 ratings for the other vignettes). Another vignette (vignette 4) had been designed to be free of gender role conflict; judge ratings verified that this scenario was neutral in terms of gender role conflict. This vignette, Treatment 1, is a gender role conflict-neutral stressful encounter characterized by low gender role conflict.

Table 3.
Summary of Vignette Rater Responses

		4.0 score criteria level
Vignette 1		
a)	mean = 3.75	
b)	3.58	
c)	3.91	
d)	3.08	
e)	3.83	
	overall mean = 3.63	
Vignette 2		
a)	4.67	x
b)	4.50	x
c)	3.00	
d)	2.08	
e)	4.00	x
	overall mean = 3.65	
*Vignette 3 (chosen for Treatment 2)		
a)	4.50	x
b)	4.67	x
c)	4.17	x
d)	2.42	
e)	4.58	x
	overall mean = 4.07	x
*Vignette 4 (chosen for Treatment 1)		
a)	2.58	
b)	2.83	
c)	1.50	
d)	2.83	
e)	2.42	
	overall mean = 2.43	
Vignette 5		
a)	4.83	x
b)	3.83	
c)	4.17	x
d)	2.50	
e)	4.42	x
	overall mean = 3.95	
Vignette 6		
a)	4.83	x
b)	3.83	
c)	4.08	x
d)	2.75	
e)	4.25	x
	overall mean = 3.95	

The distinction between the two conditions, whether gender role conflict was present, was strongly supported by the rater responses.

Treatment 1

This vignette is a situation that does not depict any dimensions of gender role conflict. In this scenario, a male college student is dealing with parental expectations of him after a car accident. The intent of this treatment is to present a gender role conflict-neutral stressful encounter that the subject copes with by utilizing his typical profile of coping strategies. Treatment 1 is as follows:

> You and your parents have what you call an interesting relationship. While you have a loving, emotionally open partnership with them, they have insisted on perfection in everything you attempt. This perfection includes your driving habits. Last semester after you met their grade expectations, they bought you a car for your birthday. You were obviously pleased and took excellent care of the car (as your parents would expect). You were careful not to loan the car to friends and always parked in the shade away from other cars. You knew that if anything happened to the car your parents would immediately take it away. Yesterday, while returning from the mall with some friends, you were in an accident that the police officer said was your fault. No one was hurt and the damage will not cost more than you could barely afford to fix with your on-campus job. Fixing the car means your parents do not find out, but you must lie to them as a result. Also, you were saving the money from your job to go to Florida over spring break with your friends and now that will have to be canceled.

Treatment 2

This vignette is a situation designed to depict selected dimensions of gender role conflict. The male college student in the scenario does experience stress-containing elements of gender role conflict in the situation presented. The treatment was created with dimensions of gender role conflict including

issues of competition, power, restricted emotionality, and conflict between study and leisure (O'Neil, 1986). Treatment 2 was designed to elicit coping strategies specific to male gender role conflict in college men. Treatment 2 is as follows:

> You discovered your girlfriend of three years having sex with your best friend in his room. Just last week you talked with her about getting engaged next summer and you thought she was your true love. Of course, you are tremendously hurt and furious. Also, you and your best friend compete publicly on everything and you are sick over losing her to him. You feel very embarrassed that she cheated on you with him and do not want anyone to find out. You keep all of your feelings bottled up inside and do not express them to your girlfriend and best friend. Although you are angry, you miss his friendship, too, since the two of you spent much time together.

Instruments

Study participants completed the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986) and then, after reading one of the two vignettes, the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, 1988b). Lastly, respondents completed a demographic questionnaire designed to provide descriptive information only.

Gender Role Conflict Scale

The Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986) (Appendix B) was developed to assess men's thoughts and feelings about their gender role behaviors. In 1981, James O'Neil reviewed the literature on men and postulated six patterns of gender role strain in men (e.g., obsession with achievement and success, homophobia, and restrictive emotionality). Based on these patterns, he formulated 85 items to establish an instrument to assess gender role strain in men. Following a psychometric analysis of this

preliminary instrument, including item evaluation by raters on the basis of gender role conflict theory and factor analyses with principal and common factor models, 37 items emerged to comprise the resulting four factors of the GRCS.

The GRCS consists of these 37 statements. Respondents (men) report their degree of agreement on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) to statements grouped into four subscales: (a) Success, Power, and Competition (e.g., "I strive to be more successful than others") (13 items, raw score range 13 - 78), (b) Restrictive Emotionality (e.g., "I have difficulty telling others I care about them") (10 items, raw score range 10 - 60), (c) Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men (e.g., "Affection with other men makes me tense") (8 items, raw score range 8 - 48), and (d) Conflict between Work and Family Relations (e.g., "My needs for work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like") (6 items, raw score range 6 - 36) (O'Neil et al., 1986). Item responses for each subscale are summed and then averaged. A total GRCS score consists of the sum of all item responses. Thus, each participant has a total GRCS score, ranging from 37 to 222, and four scale scores, ranging from 1 (indicating a low level of concern for that factor) to 6 (indicating a high level of concern for that factor). High scores denote the presence of high gender role conflict and low scores represent low gender role conflict is present.

Alpha coefficients for the four factors are: (a) .85 for Success, Power, and Competition, (b) .82 for Restrictive Emotionality, (c) .83 for Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men, and (d) .75 for Conflict between Work and Leisure (O'Neil et al., 1986). Test-retest reliabilities across four weeks

ranged from .72 to .86 for the four factors (O'Neil et al., 1986). Internal consistency reliabilities have been high across studies utilizing the GRCS (Arnold, 1983; Chartier et al., 1986; Good & Mintz, 1990; Good, Robertson et al., 1995; Kim, 1990; Mendelson, 1988). Construct validity was supported by correlations with attitude scores on masculinity, fear of intimacy, and social desirability scales (Good, Robertson et al., 1995). There is also empirical evidence to indicate that responses are not associated with a tendency to provide socially desirable results (Good, Robertson et al., 1995).

For the purposes of this study, respondents have both total and a categorical GRCS score. High and low gender role conflict male college students were categorized through percentile rank of GRCS total scores. Participants with GRCS scores in the top third of the total sample were categorized as high in gender role conflict. Participants with GRCS scores in the bottom third were included in the low gender role conflict category. For the purposes of the current study, subjects scoring in the moderate category of gender role conflict were not utilized in specific data analysis.

Ways of Coping Questionnaire

The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, 1988b) (Appendix C) is a 66-item self-report questionnaire developed to "...identify the thoughts and actions an individual uses to cope with a specific stressful encounter" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988b, p. 5). The WOCQ is based on Lazarus' transactional theory of stress and coping, with coping considered a process rather than a style or stable disposition (Lazarus & Folkman, 1991). Coping as a process is characterized by dynamics and changes that are a function of continuous appraisals and reappraisals of a shifting person-

environment interaction (Folkman et al., 1986). In other words, results of the WOCQ are dependent upon specifics contained within the situation respondents use as a reference for completing this instrument. In this study, the WOCQ was used to assess coping strategies in response to one of the two treatments.

The WOCQ, originally named the Ways of Coping Checklist, was created as part of the Berkeley Stress and Coping Project during the late 1970s. The coping strategies that make up the WOCQ were derived from the framework outlined by Lazarus (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Launier, 1978) and through suggestions from the coping literature (Mechanic, 1962; Sidle, Moos, Adams, & Cady, 1969; Weisman & Worden, 1977). Respondents completed the Ways of Coping Checklist with "yes" and "no" answers, indicating whether or not they had used each strategy. Changes resulting in the WOCQ include utilizing a 4-point Likert scale (1= coping strategy not used, 4=coping strategy used a great deal) and deleting or rewording redundant or unclear items.

The current version of the WOCQ was developed through 750 observations of 75 middle and upper middle class married couples who had at least one child living at home. Spouses were interviewed separately once a month for five months; they were asked to describe a stressful encounter experienced within the previous week, and then asked to complete the WOCQ. The items on the WOCQ were analyzed using alpha and principal axes factor analysis with oblique rotation. Folkman and Lazarus (1988b) explained the use of oblique rotation due to the expectation of subjects to choose from an array of coping strategies rather than use one strategy to the

exclusion of others. The eight scales of the WOCQ, listed below, resulted from this original data analysis.

Respondents complete the WOCQ by indicating frequency of use of coping behaviors (items) on a 4-point Likert scale (0 = does not apply or did not use, 3 = used a great deal). Factor analyses from two different studies (Coyne et al., 1981: Folkman et al., 1986) revealed eight distinct coping strategies: (a) Accepting Responsibility refers to acknowledgment of one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right (e.g., "realized I brought the problem on myself") (4 items, raw score range 0 - 16); (b) Confrontive Coping refers to aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking (e.g., "stood my ground and fought for what I wanted") (6 items, raw score range 0 - 24); (c) Distancing refers to cognitive efforts to detach oneself and minimize the significance of the situation (e.g., "didn't let it get to me: I refused to think about it too much") (6 items, raw score range 0 - 24); (d) Escape-Avoidance refers to wishful thinking and behavioral efforts to escape or avoid the problem (e.g., "wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with") (8 items, raw score range 0 - 32); (e) Planful Problem Solving refers to deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem (e.g., "I knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts to make things work") (6 items, raw score range 0 - 24); (f) Positive Reappraisal refers to efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth, and includes a religious dimension (e.g., "changed or grew as a person in a good way") (7 items, raw score range 0 - 28); (g) Seeking Social Support refers to efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and

emotional support (e.g., "talked to someone to find out more about the situation") (6 items, raw score range 0 - 24); and (h) Self-Controlling refers to efforts to regulate one's feelings and actions (e.g., "I tried to keep my feelings to myself") (7 items, raw score range 0 - 28) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, 1988a, 1988b; Folkman et al., 1986). Problem-focused coping strategies include the Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support scales of the WOCQ. Emotion-focused coping strategies on the WOCQ include the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales.

The WOCQ was scored utilizing a relative scoring method and a raw scoring method. The relative scoring method, developed by Vitaliano, Maiuro, Russo, and Becker in 1987, reveals percentage of effort across coping scales on the WOCQ and permits more accurate comparison of the eight coping strategies. Relative scores are computed by obtaining the mean item score for each scale (mean effort), that is, deriving raw scores and dividing each by its respective number of items. This step eliminates bias due to differences in the number of items representing a particular scale. Relative scores are calculated by taking the mean effort of a specific scale and dividing this number by the total mean effort of all coping scales. The formula (Vitaliano, et al., 1987, p. 9) for each coping scale is as follows:

$$\text{scale ?? \%} = \frac{\text{ME(scale ??)}}{\text{ME (scale 1)} + \text{ME(scale 2)} + \text{ME (scale 3)} + \text{ME(scale 4)} + \text{ME (scale 5)} + \text{ME(scale 6)} + \text{ME (scale 7)} + \text{ME(scale 8)}.}$$

The higher the relative score for a coping strategy of the WOCQ, the greater the effort put forth in that strategy, suggesting the strategy is used to a greater extent in the total coping effort. Low scores indicate little effort is put into

that coping strategy, thus representing a smaller part of the total coping effort. Scores for problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies are computed by summing the relative scores for the scales that comprise each strategy. Second, raw scores are obtained through the sum of a respondent's responses to the items that are included on each scale. Each scale total is then divided by the number of items that comprise that scale. This scoring method is used most commonly in research utilizing the WOCQ and provides a summary of the extent to which each coping strategy was used in a particular situation by a participant (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988b).

Reliability of the WOCQ was established by investigating the internal consistency of the eight coping factors, estimated with Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). The alpha coefficients for the eight scales are: .70 for Confrontive Coping, .61 for Distancing, .70 for Self-Controlling, .76 for Seeking Social Support, .66 for Accepting Responsibility, .72 for Escape-Avoidance, .68 for Planful Problem Solving, and .79 for Positive Reappraisal. A second psychometric investigation of the WOCQ revealed internal consistency estimates for each of the scales ranging from .73 to .88, indicating a fairly high degree of internal consistency across studies (Vitaliano, Russo, Carr, Maiuro, & Becker, 1985). Billings and Moos (1981), referring to the entire field of coping instruments, indicated that internal consistency estimates of all coping measures are low. These researchers stated that this is due to efforts to assess coping processes with minimal item redundancy within each coping category, necessary to achieve relatively independent clusters of coping strategies.

Folkman and Lazarus (1988b) found evidence of construct validity in coping factors that are comprised of strategies that individuals have reported using to cope with the demands of stressful encounters. In other words, the results of the WOCQ have been found to be consistent with reported utilization of specific coping strategies. Additionally, these authors concluded that construct validity of the WOCQ is supported by research findings consistent with theoretical predictions of the WOCQ that coping strategies changes in relation to the demands and constraints of the context (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, 1988a, 1988b). In other words, coping is a process construct that is dependent on the individual/situation interaction being examined. Construct validity of the WOCQ also was investigated by Vitaliano et al. (1985), who examined the relationship between source of stress and the WOCQ scales. None of the scales were significantly different across the sources of stress. Vitaliano et al. (1988) stated that "the relative associations of the coping scales with anxiety and depression provide the strongest evidence of the construct validity" of the WOCQ (p. 21), based on a study comparing the relationships between the coping scales and level of depression in subjects.

Demographic Information Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire (Appendix D) was designed to elicit descriptive information about study participants and supplemental information that may provide initial insights regarding future research questions, such as the role of personal attributes on gender role conflict and coping outcomes. Demographic information also permitted more accurate generalization of study findings to similar groups of traditional age college men. Age, ethnic group, academic classification, grade point average, college

major, personal relationship status and history, knowledge of counseling resources available, counseling interest and experience, and affectional/sexual orientation was obtained from each subject.

Procedures

Permission was granted to collect data at each of the institutions included in the study. Traditional age college males were obtained through residence halls meetings, with male students in all residence halls given the opportunity to participate in a study investigating "how men handle stress and conflict." Data was gathered during residence hall meetings with an opportunity to enter a drawing for a monetary prize.

Students who agreed to participate in the study received a research packet during hall meetings on the residence hall floors. The research packet consisted of a professionally produced booklet containing the consent form, instructions, selected treatment vignette, and sequenced instruments. After hearing oral instructions and reading and signing the informed consent (Appendix E), participants proceeded through the packet at their own pace. They were not aware of differences in the treatment vignettes, which were assigned randomly. Study participants completed the Gender Role Conflict Scale, read Treatment 1 vignette or Treatment 2 vignette, and then completed the Ways of Coping Questionnaire in reference to the vignette read, followed by the Demographic Information Questionnaire. It was expected that participants would need no more than 40 minutes to complete the questionnaires. For the current study, approximately 30 minutes, on average, was required by each subject to fully complete the study packet. Completed instruments were collected by the researcher.

Data Analysis

Questionnaire and demographic sheets were entered into the VAX computer system at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro and data analysis utilized the SAS statistical package. Description of specific data analyses completed are below.

Using the SAS data analysis program, descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions were calculated for both instruments (GRCS, WOCQ) and each demographic item to describe the group of college males participating in the study. To differentiate between high and low gender role conflict college men, the frequency distribution of Gender Role Conflict Scale scores were divided into three levels, thus creating three separate groups: high gender role conflict men, moderate gender role conflict men, and low gender role conflict men. High and low gender role conflict men were used in the data analysis for hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4.

To test the first four hypotheses, the proportion of effort for each coping strategy was calculated using the relative scoring method described above. A significance level of proportional difference for coping effort has been set at 0.25 ($p < .05$). T-tests were computed between the proportions of coping efforts to test for significance.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 were addressed through Pearson product-moment correlations to examine the relationships between scales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the raw score scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire. All participants' scores were included in the data analysis of these two hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results section presents outcomes of the statistical analyses respective to the research hypotheses proposed in Chapter III. An interpretation of the results follows in the discussion section.

Results

Findings presented in this chapter are based on descriptive and inferential statistics calculated to examine the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Participant results on study instrumentation were analyzed through use of descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations. Additional descriptive analyses, reported in Chapter III, were utilized to describe study participants. Inferential statistics used include correlations and t-tests. Using the results of these analyses, overall findings relating to the hypotheses are discussed.

Descriptive Results

Scores for the scales on each instrument were computed for the group of participants. The ranges, means, and standard deviations are presented for the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the Ways of Coping Questionnaire in Table 4. Scores for the total group of participants appear within the mid-range of values. The GRCS scores had means ranging from 3.10 to 3.51 (on a 5 point scale with a possible range from 1 to 6), indicating an overall moderate level of gender role conflict across the four factors for the group of college men. WOCQ score means ranged from 1.17 to 1.61 (on a 4 point scale with a possible

Table 4.

Descriptive Statistics for GRCS and WOCQ

Instrument Scale	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Gender Role Conflict Scale (N = 247):			
SPC	1.08 - 5.85	3.51	1.18
RE	1.20 - 6.00	3.10	1.13
RABM	1.00 - 6.00	3.37	1.20
CWFR	1.00 - 5.83	3.19	1.23
Total	4.80 - 21.38	13.18	4.11
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (N = 247):			
AR	0.00 - 2.75	1.28	0.66
CC	0.00 - 2.67	1.32	0.54
D	0.00 - 2.83	1.30	0.63
EA	0.00 - 2.62	1.17	0.58
PPS	0.33 - 3.00	1.61	0.60
PR	0.00 - 2.71	1.40	0.55
SSS	0.17 - 2.83	1.50	0.58
SC	0.14 - 2.71	1.45	0.53

GRCS = Gender Role Conflict Scale; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CWFR = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations; WOCQ = Ways of Coping Questionnaire; AR = Accepting Responsibility; CC = Confrontive Coping; D = Distancing; EA = Escape-Avoidance; PPS = Planful Problem Solving; PR = Positive Reappraisal; SSS = Seeking Social Support; SC = Self-Controlling

range from 0 to 3), indicating a fairly equal and moderate utilization of coping across the eight strategies. In general, scores on the GRCS and the WOCQ do not reveal distinct directional outcomes, but fall within the midrange values. For the sample of the current study and results reported by other research projects utilizing similar samples (e.g., Good & Mintz, 1990; Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989), the findings are comparable and without observable differences.

Preliminary Analysis

A preliminary analysis was calculated to divide participants into groups based upon their gender role conflict scores on the GRCS. Initially, a three-way split was proposed to divide participants into low, moderate, and high gender role conflict groups. For stronger statistical power two groups of 100 were created to compose each of the high and low gender role conflict groups. This division of the total group of subjects resulted in a gender role conflict moderate group of 47 subjects. Therefore, the 100 subjects in the high gender role conflict group include those participants with the highest 100 scores on the GRCS (GRCS total score > 14.78). The reverse is true for the low gender role conflict group (GRCS total score < 12.41).

Descriptive statistics on the GRCS and the WOCQ for the low, moderate, and high gender role conflict groups are reported in Table 5 and Table 6, respectively. In Table 7 are presented the proportional scores on the WOCQ for the three gender role conflict groups. Within this table, the statistics presented represent the proportion of coping effort for each specific coping strategy. Data analysis for the first four hypotheses utilized the high and low gender role conflict groups. Hypotheses 5 and 6 included all study participants.

Table 5.

Descriptive Statistics for GRCS (high/moderate/low GRC groups)

Instrument Scale	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Gender Role Conflict Scale (high GRC, N = 100):			
SPC	3.15 - 5.85	4.51	0.57
RE	2.30 - 6.00	4.03	0.88
RABM	2.75 - 6.00	4.43	0.72
CWFR	1.67 - 5.83	4.16	0.91
Total	14.80 - 21.38	17.14	1.71
Gender Role Conflict Scale (moderate GRC, N = 47):			
SPC	2.69 - 5.23	3.73	0.63
RE	1.70 - 4.00	3.19	0.61
RABM	2.25 - 4.75	3.43	0.57
CWFR	1.67 - 5.17	3.30	0.78
Total	12.43 - 14.78	13.66	0.77
Gender Role Conflict Scale (low GRC, N = 100):			
SPC	1.07 - 4.69	2.41	0.81
RE	1.20 - 3.70	2.12	0.60
RABM	1.00 - 4.25	2.28	0.75
CWFR	1.00 - 4.83	2.18	0.82
Total	4.80 - 12.40	8.99	2.30

GRCS = Gender Role Conflict Scale
SPC = Success, Power, and Competition
RE = Restrictive Emotionality
RABM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men
CWFR = Conflict Between Work and Family Relation
GRCS range: 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree

Table 6.

Descriptive Statistics for WOCQ (high/moderate/low GRC groups)

Instrument Scale	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (high GRC, N = 100):			
AR	0.00 - 2.75	1.33	0.70
CC	0.00 - 2.66	1.33	0.55
D	0.17 - 2.83	1.25	0.65
EA	0.00 - 2.63	1.20	0.60
PPS	0.33 - 3.00	1.65	0.66
PR	0.00 - 2.71	1.35	0.55
SSS	0.33 - 2.67	1.55	0.58
SC	0.29 - 2.57	1.55	0.55
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (moderate GRC, N = 47):			
AR	0.00 - 2.75	1.21	0.64
CC	0.33 - 2.17	1.29	0.48
D	0.00 - 2.83	1.26	0.65
EA	0.00 - 2.50	1.06	0.57
PPS	0.50 - 2.67	1.67	0.59
PR	0.43 - 2.71	1.38	0.56
SSS	0.33 - 2.67	1.48	0.61
SC	0.43 - 2.71	1.51	0.55
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (low GRC, N = 100):			
AR	0.00 - 2.75	1.27	0.63
CC	0.33 - 2.50	1.33	0.56
D	0.00 - 2.83	1.38	0.60
EA	0.00 - 2.63	1.19	0.57
PPS	0.33 - 3.00	1.55	0.55
PR	0.43 - 2.71	1.46	0.56
SSS	0.17 - 2.83	1.46	0.57
SC	0.14 - 2.57	1.31	0.48

WOCQ = Ways of Coping Questionnaire; AR = Accepting Responsibility;
CC = Confrontive Coping; D = Distancing; EA = Escape-Avoidance;
PPS = Planful Problem Solving; PR = Positive Reappraisal;
SSS = Seeking Social Support; SC = Self-Controlling
WOCQ range: 0 = does not apply or would not use, 6 = would use a great deal

Table 7.

Proportional Statistics for WOCQ (high/moderate/low GRC)

Instrument Scale	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (high GRC, N = 100):			
AR	0.000 - 0.212	0.115	0.046
CC	0.000 - 0.270	0.120	0.044
D	0.015 - 0.313	0.111	0.050
EA	0.000 - 0.188	0.106	0.043
PPS	0.049 - 0.313	0.148	0.048
PR	0.000 - 0.250	0.122	0.043
SSS	0.000 - 0.236	0.139	0.040
SC	0.052 - 0.264	0.140	0.036
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (moderate GRC, N = 47):			
AR	0.000 - 0.211	0.112	0.052
CC	0.035 - 0.206	0.121	0.034
D	0.000 - 0.258	0.112	0.044
EA	0.000 - 0.185	0.096	0.040
PPS	0.092 - 0.308	0.157	0.047
PR	0.048 - 0.203	0.127	0.031
SSS	0.045 - 0.264	0.136	0.045
SC	0.051 - 0.253	0.140	0.039
Ways of Coping Questionnaire (low GRC, N = 100):			
AR	0.000 - 0.222	0.115	0.043
CC	0.043 - 0.275	0.121	0.037
D	0.000 - 0.261	0.125	0.045
EA	0.000 - 0.120	0.107	0.038
PPS	0.072 - 0.315	0.145	0.046
PR	0.044 - 0.222	0.133	0.033
SSS	0.020 - 0.235	0.133	0.036
SC	0.016 - 0.226	0.121	0.031

WOCQ = Ways of Coping Questionnaire; AR = Accepting Responsibility;
CC = Confrontive Coping; D = Distancing; EA = Escape-Avoidance;
PPS = Planful Problem Solving; PR = Positive Reappraisal;
SSS = Seeking Social Support; SC = Self-Controlling

Hypothesis 1

College men with high gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), will utilize emotion-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), significantly more than college men with low gender role conflict for Treatment 1, a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter.

A t-test was performed to compare an emotion-focused coping strategy response to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter by high and low gender role conflict college men at an alpha level of .05. Results of the t-test did not support this hypothesis. These two groups were not significantly different on their use of an emotion-focused coping strategy in response to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter. Results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8.

Results of t-Test on Emotion-Focused Coping in Neutral Encounter

Level of Conflict	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Ratio	p Value
Gender Role Conflict					
High	50	0.467	0.070		
Low	47	0.482	0.072	-1.002	n s

Hypothesis 2

College men with low gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), will utilize problem-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), significantly more than college men with high gender role conflict, for Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter.

A t-test was performed to compare a problem-focused coping strategy response to a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter by high and low gender role conflict men at an alpha level of .05. This hypothesis was not supported by the outcome of the t-test. These groups were not significantly different on their use of a problem-focused coping strategy in response to a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter. Results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9.

Results of t-Test on Problem-Focused Coping in GRC Specific Encounter

Level of Conflict	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Ratio	p Value
Gender Role Conflict					
High	50	0.511	0.065		
Low	53	0.510	0.060	0.080	n s

Hypothesis 3

Overall coping strategy, as measured by the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), will not be significantly different for Treatment 1, a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter, as compared to Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter, in college men with low gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986).

A t-test was performed to compare overall coping strategy response to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter and a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter in college men with low gender role conflict at an alpha level of .05. Results of the t-test did support this hypothesis. Low gender role conflict college men did not respond significantly different through their use of a problem-focused coping strategy to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter and a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter. Results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10.

Results of t-Test on Coping Strategy and Treatment in Low GRC Males

Treatment	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Ratio	p Value
Treatment					
Neutral GRC	47	11.096	3.507		
High GRC	53	10.830	3.313	0.389	n s

Hypothesis 4

College men with high gender role conflict, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), will utilize emotion-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), significantly more for Treatment 2, a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter, than Treatment 1, a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter.

A t-test was performed to compare an emotion-focused coping strategy response to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter and a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter in college men with high gender role conflict at an alpha level of .05. Results of the t-test did not support this hypothesis. High gender role conflict college men did not respond significantly different through their use of an emotion-focused coping strategy to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter and a gender role conflict-specific stressful encounter. Results are shown in Table 11.

Hypothesis 5

Emotion-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), will be positively correlated with gender role conflict scores, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986).

Table 11.

Results of t-Test on Coping Strategy and Treatment in High GRC Males

Treatment	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Ratio	p Value
Treatment					
Neutral GRC	50	0.467	0.070		
High GRC	50	0.489	0.065	-1.663	n s

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to examine the relationships between the subscales of the WOCQ that comprise the emotion-focused coping strategy and the factors of the GRCS. Correlational coefficients ranged from 0.223 to -0.003. No significant positive relationships were revealed between the WOCQ emotion-focused subscales of Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, and Positive Reappraisal. However, the WOCQ Self-Controlling subscale was found to have a significant positive relationship with each of the four factors of the GRCS. This hypothesis is only partially supported with the findings of the correlational analysis. Results are shown in Table 12. Several of these coping subscales did have a significant negative relationship with factors on the GRCS, an opposite direction to the one proposed. The Distancing subscale was negatively correlated to three factors of the GRCS: Success, Power, and Competition (r = -0.198); Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men (r = -0.201); and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (r = -0.162). The Escape-Avoidance subscale was

negatively correlated with the Success, Power, and Competition factor (r = -0.136). Additionally, the Positive Reappraisal coping subscale was negatively correlated with the Restrictive Emotionality factor (r = -0.166). Of the four coping strategies that compose the emotion-focused coping strategy only one, the Self-Controlling subscale, was found to have a positive relationship to the four factors of the GRCS.

Table 12.

Correlation Coefficients for WOCQ Scales and GRCS Factors

Variable	SPC	RE	RABM	CWFR	GTOT
AR	-0.041	-0.003	-0.076	0.058	-0.017
CC	-0.004	-0.035	0.065	-0.098	-0.021
D	-0.198	0.004	-0.201	-0.162	-0.162
EA	-0.136	0.116	-0.034	-0.058	-0.034
PPS	0.161	-0.056	0.072	0.065	0.071
PR	-0.097	-0.166	-0.089	-0.054	-0.115
SSS	0.131	-0.058	0.111	0.135	0.094
SC	0.220	0.217	0.208	0.135	0.223
WTOT	0.046	-0.031	0.030	0.021	0.020

GRCS = Gender Role Conflict Scale; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CWFR = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations; GTOT = Gender Role Conflict Scale Total Score; WOCQ = Ways of Coping Questionnaire; AR = Accepting Responsibility; CC = Confrontive Coping; D = Distancing; EA = Escape-Avoidance; PPS = Planful Problem Solving; PR = Positive Reappraisal; SSS = Seeking Social Support; SC = Self-Controlling; WTOT = Ways of Coping Questionnaire Total Score

Hypothesis 6

> Problem-focused coping strategies, as measured by the Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support scales of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), will be negatively correlated with gender role conflict scores, as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986).

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to examine the relationships between the subscales of the WOCQ that comprise the problem-focused coping strategy and the factors of the GRCS. No significant positive relationships were revealed between the WOCQ problem-focused subscales of Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem Solving, and Seeking Social Support. This hypothesis is not supported with the findings of the correlational analysis. Several of these coping subscales did have a significant positive relationship with factors on the GRCS, a direction opposite to the one proposed. The Planful Problem Solving subscale was positively correlated with the Success, Power, and Competition factor ($\underline{r}$ = 0.161). Interestingly, the coping subscale of Seeking Social Support was found to be positively correlated to two GRCS factors: Success, Power, and Competition ($\underline{r}$ = 0.131) and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations ($\underline{r}$ = 0.135). Results are shown in Table 12. Four coping strategies compose the problem-focused coping strategy and none were found to be have a significant negative relationship to the factors of the GRCS.

Discussion

This chapter presented the results of an investigation of male gender role conflict and utilization of coping strategies. Through an examination of the relevant literature, six hypotheses were proposed and examined. The hypotheses were not supported through the findings of the study. Overall, different levels of gender role conflict do not appear to influence choice of coping strategy. Additionally, the relationships between the factors of the GRCS and the subscales on the WOCQ appear to be independent. These results are not consistent with current research in the area of male gender role conflict. Implications for research and practice are discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter consists of five sections: a summary of the research, conclusions that may be drawn from the study, limitations of the study, recommendations for further research, and implications of the results for male gender role conflict researchers and college-level professional counselors.

Summary

This study was an examination of gender role conflict in college men as related to the selection and utilization of coping strategies. It examined how the presence of different levels of gender role conflict in a stressful situation influenced two coping profiles, emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping, as measured by the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Previous research, while not specifically addressing coping in men from a gender role conflict perspective, had identified higher gender role conflict as associated with lower psychological functioning (Good & Mintz, 1990; Good et al., 1995; Good & Wood, 1995). The literature on coping has supported problem-focused coping as positively related to better adjustment, while emotion-focused responses have been associated with poorer outcomes in terms of managing stress and conflict (Ebata & Moos, 1991; Glyshaw, Cohen, & Towbes, 1989; Holohan & Moos, 1987; McCrae &

Costa, 1986). Responses from 247 traditional age college males from two private universities were used to investigate this question.

In the first hypothesis the relationship between college males' level of gender role conflict and choice of coping strategies in response to a gender role conflict neutral stressful encounter was investigated. Previous research indicated that lower gender role conflict was associated with greater overall psychological adjustment (Good & Mintz, 1990; Good et al., 1995; Good & Wood, 1995) and it was predicted that men with higher gender role conflict would utilize a more emotion-focused coping strategy while men with lower gender role conflict would utilize a coping strategy characterized by a problem-focused profile. This hypothesis was not supported. No difference was found between utilization of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies between these two groups of men in a gender role neutral stressful encounter. The results suggest that overall choice of coping strategy is not influenced by level of gender role conflict in college men in situations when gender role conflict is not present.

In the second hypothesis the relationship between college males' level of gender role conflict and choice of coping strategies also was examined, but investigated this question in a stressful encounter characterized by the presence of high male gender role conflict. It was predicted that a difference in coping strategy would exist between groups of men with high and low gender role conflict. High gender role conflict men were predicted to utilize a more emotion-focused coping strategy in a gender role conflict stressful encounter while men with low gender role conflict were predicted to employ a more problem-focused coping strategy. This hypothesis was not supported.

No difference was found between groups of high and low gender role conflict men in situations that were characterized by high gender role conflict. In other words, results suggest that the presence of high gender role conflict in a stressful situation does not influence choice of coping in response to that situation for men with high and low levels of gender role conflict.

In the third hypothesis the group of college men with low gender role conflict was investigated and it was predicted that the level of gender role conflict in a stressful encounter would not influence their selection of a coping strategy. Gender role conflict is not experienced by this group and it holds that the presence of varying degrees of gender role conflict across stressful situations should not influence coping response. This hypothesis was supported. The presence or lack of gender role conflict in a stressful encounter appears to not influence the selection of a coping strategy in college men with low gender role conflict. The significance of this finding lacks practical relevance, however, due to no other differences being found between groups or treatments in this study.

In the fourth hypothesis the group of men with high gender role conflict were examined and it was predicted that their choice of a coping strategy would be influenced by the degree of gender role conflict present in a stressful encounter. It was proposed that the presence of high gender role conflict in a situation, as compared to one with no gender role conflict, would elicit a more emotion-focused coping response due to their personal experience of greater levels of gender role conflict. This hypothesis also considers a response of an emotion-focused coping strategy by men with high gender role conflict to become more likely as gender role conflict increases in

a specific situation. This hypothesis was not supported. Results suggest that the degree of presence of gender role conflict in stressful situations did not influence the utilization of an emotion-focused coping strategy in college men with high gender role conflict. This result indicates that college men with high gender role conflict do not cope differently across situations characterized by different levels of gender role conflict.

The final two hypotheses considered within the current study concerned the relationships between the four factors of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986) with the eight coping strategies of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). The fifth hypothesis proposed that those coping strategies associated with emotion-focused coping, namely Distancing, Escape-Avoidance, Positive Reappraisal, and Self-Controlling would have a significant positive relationship to the factors that comprise the GRCS. In other words, an emotion-focused coping profile as measured by the WOCQ would be associated with a high gender role conflict score as assessed by the GRCS. This hypothesis was only partially supported. Three of the four subscales of the WOCQ showed no significant relationship to the factors of the GRCS. Actually, the data analysis indicated several relationships between the subscales of these two instruments in the opposite direction to the one predicted, indicating that more information is needed concerning the relationship between the components of these two instruments. One WOCQ emotion-focused coping strategy (Self-Controlling) revealed a weak positive relationship to each of the four GRCS factors.

A negative relationship between the subscales of the WOCQ that comprise the problem-focused coping strategy and the factors of the GRCS was

predicted in the sixth hypothesis. Coping strategies associated with problem-focused coping, the subscales of Accepting Responsibility, Confrontive Coping, Planful Problem-Solving, and Seeking Social Support, were proposed to have a negative relationship with the factors of the GRCS. This outcome was not supported; none of the subscales of the WOCQ that represent the problem-focused coping strategy were found to have a significant negative relationship to any of the four GRCS factors, and several of these relationships again were in the opposite direction.

In summary, the six hypotheses proposed in the current study through an analysis of the current literature on male gender role conflict and coping were not supported. In comparisons between the coping profiles of high and low gender role conflict males across and between stressful encounters characterized by high and low gender role conflict, no significant differences were found. This lack of evidence to support differences between groups was also found between the subscales that comprise the two primary instruments utilized in this study. Knowledge of the level of gender role conflict does not appear to provide useful information in examining the coping profile preferences in college men.

Conclusions

Several conclusions may be derived from the findings of the current study. First, a clear relationship between the level of gender role conflict and coping style is not known. Gender role conflict does not appear to influence the selection of a coping strategy in college men. This remains true for men with various levels of gender role conflict as well as in situations that possess different levels of gender role conflict. In other words, knowledge of a man's

level of gender role conflict does not reveal useful information in terms of his coping strategy preferences. Additionally, how a man copes with stressful situations does not relate to his experience or lack of experience of gender role conflict.

Limitations

Due to the exploratory nature of the current study, it is important to discuss the limitations present in this work and to provide a basis upon which recommendations for further research can be stated. Limitations of the study can be summarized into five main points.

The first limitation involves the sample utilized in the project. Study participants were drawn from two similar campuses to create a fairly homogeneous sample. Greater heterogeneity would benefit this line of research by including more variance in the experience of gender role conflict and the resultant coping in college men. Although the racial representation of the participants in the study is accurate based on the campuses sampled, the low numbers of minorities in the sample limits generalizability to minority populations and campuses. A larger and more diverse sample could offer further support for the findings of this study or bring the results into question.

A second limitation involves the reliance of the current study on self-report measures. While the instruments utilized in this project have been found to be low on social desirability, issues surrounding socially influenced response bias inherent in the experience of gender role conflict need to be considered. This limitation may have affected the outcomes of this study through participants minimizing their experience and, therefore, their

expression of gender role conflict in the instrumentation. Consideration of the level of sophistication of research subjects in completing self-report instruments also is needed here. Greater insight into these phenomenon is needed as research in the area of male gender role conflict research is strengthened.

A third limitation of the current study involves the possibility of an additional variable or variables intervening in the coping response to gender role conflict. Due to the lack of support for the proposed hypotheses, the potential for the existence of an intervening variable is increased. Research in this area is relatively new and somewhat limited, and as investigations of male gender role conflict continue, related variables will be exposed and their effects examined.

The limitation of examining coping efforts in response to one sample of behavior, the treatment scenarios, is a fourth weakness of the present project. Coping strategies in response to several different situations would be more ideal for examining the effects of gender role conflict in college men. Although additional research limitations would need to be addressed in this alternate design, a series of significant questions relating to coping efforts across situations could be answered through this line of investigations.

The fifth, and potentially most significant, limitation of the present research involves the effectiveness of printed scenarios to elicit gender role conflict in college men. This project was dependent upon piloted scenarios rated by noted researchers in the area of gender role conflict to comprise study treatments. The assumption of this study was for the treatments to cause participants to experience different levels of gender role conflict as a reference

point as they completed a measure of coping preferences. A more comprehensive examination of the ability of researchers to create an experience of gender role conflict is necessary before research of this nature can continue. The subtle nature of gender role conflict complicates and confounds this type of research when examination of the primary construct is limited by inaccessibility. Additionally, evaluation of the experience of gender role conflict within research studies is necessary as outcomes are assessed in terms of this process. In other words, are study participants actually experiencing that which researchers intend for them to experience. This limitation acknowledges the shortcoming of this type of exploratory research. In addition, the current study did not include a discriminant method of confirming varying states of gender role conflict. The lack of gender role conflict confirmation limits the findings of the present study and related research. Methods to validate these outcomes are needed and application of the conclusions of this study is not warranted until more research is completed to validate the findings.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research are based on the results of the current project and are designed, in part, to address the limitations presented above.

Future research in the area of gender role conflict should utilize more diverse heterogeneous samples to broaden the generalizability of the findings. This diversity should include student as well as institutional representation from all categories. Conclusions would be strengthened by expanding the age range to allow observation of greater developmental phases in men. This is

particularly true because the majority of studies rely solely on college males. As developmental processes in the area of male gender role conflict are understood, the professional counselor is better equipped to support the psychological growth of men.

Gender role conflict is a relatively new concept in the literature on men and the conceptual support of this construct is still in the development stage. Refinement of the instrumentation in this line of research would greatly assist the professional in making the transition from theory to practice. Knowledge of gender role conflict in men is increasing, but much more has yet to be investigated and understood. A method of confirming the experience of male gender role conflict through other than self-report measures would further enhance the advancement of research in this area. Additionally, complete reliance on self-report measures of gender role conflict limits the ability to record and observe the complex nature of this experience in men.

Future experimental research on men's response through coping to their experience of gender role conflict would be improved through treatments that are active in nature so that they better elicit the true complexity of gender role conflict. Reliance of conceptual understandings of this construct in research are limiting and weaken observations obtained through paper and pencil means. Examples here might include role plays or other activities that involve more realistic gender role conflict situations.

Implications for Practice

The literature related to male gender role conflict and psychological functioning is lacking research regarding the potential variables that

intervene in the relationship that bridges these two areas and provides some understanding of male adjustment. This study was designed to investigate the coping process in relation to gender role conflict in college men and to broaden what is empirically understood concerning this process. The goals of this study included extending the area of research involving male gender role conflict to encompass the process of coping and to provide new information about the psychological functioning of college men to professional counselors.

Male Gender Role Research

All of the empirical research in the area of male gender role conflict has been completed in the past fifteen years. Much of this work has focused on describing outcomes for men that relate to the negative experience of gender role conflict and has been descriptive in nature. This exploratory study has attempted to apply this body of knowledge to an experience of gender role conflict in college men in relation to the process of coping. Although the current project failed to reveal a direct relationship between male gender role conflict and specific patterns of coping, this line of research retains its merits for potential to contribute to this body of literature. More research is needed to explore and enhance the theoretical understanding of male gender role conflict. Intentional examination of gender role conflict, with appreciation of the subtle nature of this construct, must be deliberate and recognize related inherent limitations on research outcomes. Additionally, researchers must expand the application of this information to be utilized in intervening in the psychological development of male adjustment and functioning.

College-Level Professional Counselors

Professional counselors in college and university counseling centers are in a critically important position to benefit from increased knowledge of male gender role conflict and coping. Research has provided empirical support for the serious negative psychological consequences for college men experiencing gender role conflict (Good & Mintz, 1990; Good et al., 1995; Good & Wood, 1995). Investigations also have provided evidence of gender role conflict increasing in men as a function of time spent in college (Braverman, 1990). While this study did not expose a significant relationship between gender role conflict and utilization of specific coping profiles, much more research involving male gender role conflict and coping is needed. Since relatively little is known in this area, increased information concerning college men and the implications of gender role conflict on their coping efforts holds great potential in aiding the practice of professional counselors as they develop and implement interventions for men. Greater knowledge of male gender role conflict and psychological functioning significantly influences the creation of gender appropriate psychological services in all facets of mental health support.

The development of research involving gender role conflict in men in recent years provides evidence that this construct is beginning to answer previously unanswered questions. Much more research is needed to complete the picture of gender role conflict and its many manifestations in men. As mental health professionals seek to expand their knowledge of men in all facets of their development and adjustment in life, research on male

gender role conflict holds great potential to significantly contribute to this body of literature and practice.

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APPENDIX A

VIGNETTE RATER'S PACKET

January 26, 1996

name
title
address

Dear XXX,

Thank you for participating in the pilot study of my dissertation. Your input is a vital key to the successful completion of my project. I am investigating aspects of male gender role conflict in male college students under the direction of Dr. L. DiAnne Borders, Associate Professor in the Counselor Education Program at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The primary intent of this pilot study is to evaluate the degree of presence of the four factors of male gender role conflict in each of six vignettes. The time required to rate the six vignettes is not expected to exceed 15 minutes.

Male gender role conflict and its respective factors are explained in detail on page two of this packet, followed by the vignettes. The summary of male gender role conflict provides sufficient information concerning this construct to successfully participate in the pilot study. Additional information about the design and intent of the study will be available when this phase is complete.

After reviewing the information concerning male gender role conflict, read each of the vignettes and complete the short rating form that follows. Each vignette should be considered separately. Please do not hesitate to call me if you have questions or need additional information at 910-379-7955. Also, please note on the final page if you would like a summary of the results of my completed study. It would be helpful to receive your completed packet in the enclosed envelope by February 9, 1996.

Thank you again for your time and feedback.

Sincerely,

David J. Bergen, M.A.Ed., NCC
Doctoral Candidate, UNCG
1902 West Friendly Avenue
Greensboro, NC 27403
(910) 379-7955

Male Gender Role Conflict

Information and factor definitions

Male gender role conflict is when "... rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self" (Good, Robertson, O'Neil, Fitzgerald, Stevens, DeBord, Bartels, & Braverman, 1995, p. 3). Thompson, Pleck, and Ferrera (1992) described the construct of male gender role conflict as "providing an important link between societal norms scripting traditional masculinities and individuals' adaptation" (p. 598). Men with higher levels of gender role conflict experience greater restraint in the roles society has taught and reinforced as acceptable for them. As a result of masculine socialization, these men suffer negative psychosocial and somatic consequences (Eisler, Skidmore, & Ward, 1988; Lash, Eisler, & Schulman, 1990), and their potential as a human being is restricted (O'Neil, 1981; O'Neil, 1990; Stillson, O'Neil, & Owen, 1991). The disadvantage of endorsing societally taught male gender role beliefs and behaviors and experiencing the respective conflict circumscribes the psychological functioning of these men with negative outcomes.

The four factors of male gender role conflict
(as defined by O'Neil, Good, and Holmes, 1995).

a) **Success, power, and competition:** Persistent worries about personal achievement, competence, failure, status, upward mobility and wealth, and career success. Obtaining authority, dominance, influence, or ascendancy over others. Striving against others to gain something or the comparison of self with others to establish one's superiority in a given situation.

b) **Restrictive emotionality:** Having difficulty and fears about expressing one's feelings and difficulty finding words to express basic emotions.

c) **Restrictive affectionate behavior between men:** Having limited ways to express one's feelings and thoughts with other men and difficulty touching other men.

d) **Conflicts between school and family relations:** Experiencing difficulties balancing work-school and family relations, resulting in health problems, overwork, stress, and a lack of leisure and relaxation.

Please refer to this box for definitions of the four factors as you complete the vignette ratings.

1. Late one evening, while you are studying for a major exam you have in the morning, you hear a knock on your door. Tonight is an important study night since your performance on this exam is crucial to keeping your financial aid for school. The knocking continues. Hesitantly, you open the door and find your best friend. He is crying and obviously upset. He tells you his grandmother has just passed away. He reaches out for a hug. He asks for your support and direction on what he should do. Clearly, he needs you now, but if you do not pass this exam you may be out of school.

Rate the degree to which the following factors are present in the above vignette. Remember that factor definitions are located on the second page of this information packet.

	not present				*present*
a) Success, power, and competition	1	2	3	4	5
b) Restrictive emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
c) Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	1	2	3	4	5
d) Conflict between school and family relations	1	2	3	4	5
e) Male gender role conflict (overall)	1	2	3	4	5

f) Below, please offer suggestions or comments on how you believe this vignette could be improved to better elicit male gender role conflict in study participants. Your feedback is greatly appreciated.

2. You have been excited about a special dinner for a couple of weeks. Finally, the night comes and you take your girlfriend to a nice restaurant for a romantic evening together. Halfway through dinner you discover that your waiter dated your girlfriend all through high school. Your girlfriend notices what great shape he is in and comments that he is attending law school. Inside you are comparing yourself to the waiter and feeling you come up short. You are furious and jealous at his presence. They talk and laugh all through dinner, kidding about old times and old friends. You quickly realize your discomfort and regret coming to this restaurant with her at all, yet you do not want them to see how uncomfortable you are. You feel totally inadequate next to this guy and wonder if your girlfriend even likes you anymore.

Rate the degree to which the following factors are present in the above vignette. Remember that factor definitions are located on the second page of this information packet.

	not present				*present*
a) Success, power, and competition	1	2	3	4	5
b) Restrictive emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
c) Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	1	2	3	4	5
d) Conflict between school and family relations	1	2	3	4	5
e) Male gender role conflict (overall)	1	2	3	4	5

f) Below, please offer suggestions or comments on how you believe this vignette could be improved to better elicit male gender role conflict in study participants. Your feedback is greatly appreciated.

3. You discovered your girlfriend of three years having sex with your best friend in his room. Just last week you talked with her about getting engaged next summer and you thought she was your true love. Of course, you are tremendously hurt and furious. Also, you and your best friend compete publicly on everything and you are sick over losing her to him. You feel very embarrassed that she cheated on you with him and do not want anyone to find out. You keep all of your feelings bottled up inside and do not express them to your girlfriend and best friend. Although you are angry, you miss his friendship too since the two of you spent much time together.

Rate the degree to which the following factors are present in the above vignette. Remember that factor definitions are located on the second page of this information packet.

	not present				*present*
a) Success, power, and competition	1	2	3	4	5
b) Restrictive emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
c) Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	1	2	3	4	5
d) Conflict between school and family relations	1	2	3	4	5
e) Male gender role conflict (overall)	1	2	3	4	5

f) Below, please offer suggestions or comments on how you believe this vignette could be improved to better elicit male gender role conflict in study participants. Your feedback is greatly appreciated.

4. You and your parents have what you call an interesting relationship. While you have a loving, emotionally open partnership with them, they have insisted on perfection in everything you attempt. This perfection includes your driving habits. Last semester after you met their grade expectations, they bought you a car for your birthday. You were obviously pleased and took excellent care of the car (as your parents would expect). You were careful not to loan the car to friends and always parked in the shade away from other cars. You knew that if anything happened to the car your parents would immediately take it away. Yesterday, while returning from the mall with some friends, you were in an accident that the police officer said was your fault. No one was hurt and the damage will not cost more than you could barely afford to fix with your on-campus job. Fixing the car means your parents do not find out, but you must lie to them as a result. Also, you were saving the money from your job to go to Florida over spring break with your friends and now that will have to be canceled.

Rate the degree to which the following factors are present in the above vignette. Remember that factor definitions are located on the second page of this information packet.

	not present				*present*
a) Success, power, and competition	1	2	3	4	5
b) Restrictive emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
c) Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	1	2	3	4	5
d) Conflict between school and family relations	1	2	3	4	5
e) Male gender role conflict (overall)	1	2	3	4	5

f) Below, please offer suggestions or comments on how you believe this vignette could be improved to better elicit male gender role conflict in study participants. Your feedback is greatly appreciated.

5. You and Sean have been friends since you both started college and always have fun hanging out after class and on weekends. About a year ago, you both took a class to learn how to play tennis. You would practice a lot together, but always focused on having fun rather than on winning. About a month ago, you and Sean entered an intramural tennis competition and both of you played very well. As you progressed in the tournament, your friendship changed. Winning became very important to each of you and you started spending less time together. Both of you started playing a lot of tennis with other friends as you prepared to play each other in the tournament. Last week, after a long tough match against Sean, you lost the tennis tournament. Since losing, you have avoided seeing or speaking to Sean.

Rate the degree to which the following factors are present in the above vignette. Remember that factor definitions are located on the second page of this information packet.

	not present				*present*
a) Success, power, and competition	1	2	3	4	5
b) Restrictive emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
c) Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	1	2	3	4	5
d) Conflict between school and family relations	1	2	3	4	5
e) Male gender role conflict (overall)	1	2	3	4	5

f) Below, please offer suggestions or comments on how you believe this vignette could be improved to better elicit male gender role conflict in study participants. Your feedback is greatly appreciated.

6. You have always enjoyed working out and lifting weights. In high school you would lift after school with a few guys, but never really got into it very much. Now that you are in college you lift weights three or four times a week. You have started working out with a friend of yours, Brian, and the two of you have developed a good lifting program. You and Brian want to look great for spring break and often use this to motivate each other. About a month ago, you and Brian each set goals to lower your body fat percentages. The lower your body fat the better muscle definition you have. At first it seemed harmless to focus on this goal together, but over time it has become much more important to you. You have begun to workout longer to burn more fat and sometimes go an entire day without eating to get your body fat percentage down. You measure you body fat percentage everyday and this number sets your mood for the rest of the day. The lower the number the better you feel. The body fat competition has ruined working out with Brian because both of you are so busy competing with each other you are unable to focus on working out. You miss your friendship with Brian and are tired of constantly focusing on losing body fat. Yesterday you decided that your body fat percentage does not matter anymore, but Brian refuses to stop the competition. You continue to want to forget the whole thing and go back to working out like before.

Rate the degree to which the following factors are present in the above vignette. Remember that factor definitions are located on the second page of this information packet.

	not present				*present*
a) Success, power, and competition	1	2	3	4	5
b) Restrictive emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
c) Restrictive affectionate behavior between men	1	2	3	4	5
d) Conflict between school and family relations	1	2	3	4	5
e) Male gender role conflict (overall)	1	2	3	4	5

f) Below, please offer suggestions or comments on how you believe this vignette could be improved to better elicit male gender role conflict in study participants. Your feedback is greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX B

GENDER ROLE CONFLICT SCALE

Instructions: In the space to the left of each sentence below, write the number which most closely represents the degree that you Agree or Disagree with the statement. There is no right or wrong answer to each statement; your own reaction is what is asked for.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

1. ____ Moving up the career ladder is important to me.
2. ____ I have difficulty telling others I care about them.
3. ____ Verbally expressing my love to another man is difficult for me.
4. ____ I feel torn between my hectic school and work schedule and caring for my health.
5. ____ Making money is part of my idea of being a successful man.
6. ____ Strong emotions are difficult for me to understand.
7. ____ Affection with other men makes me tense.
8. ____ I sometimes define my personal values by my career success.
9. ____ Expressing feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people.
10. ____ Expressing my emotions to other men is risky.
11. ____ My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life.
12. ____ I evaluate other people's value by their level of achievement and success.
13. ____ Talking (about my feelings) during sexual relations is difficult for me.
14. ____ I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man.
15. ____ I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.
16. ____ Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.
17. ____ Finding time to relax is difficult for me.
18. ____ Doing well all the time is important to me.
19. ____ I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.

Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
6	5	4	3	2	1

20. ____ Hugging other men is difficult for me.

21. ____ I often feel that I need to be in charge of those around me.

22. ____ Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior.

23. ____ Competing with others is the best way to succeed.

24. ____ Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth.

25. ____ I often have trouble finding the words that describe how I am feeling.

26. ____ I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me.

27. ____ My needs to study or work keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like.

28. ____ I strive to be more successful than others.

29. ____ I do not like to show my emotions to other people.

30. ____ Telling my partner my feelings about her/him during sex is difficult for me.

31. ____ My school or work often disrupts other parts of my life (home, family, health, leisure).

32. ____ I am often concerned about how others evaluate my performance at school or work.

33. ____ Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable.

34. ____ Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to me.

35. ____ Men who are overly friendly to me, make me wonder about their sexual preference (men or women).

36. ____ Overwork and stress, caused by a need to achieve in school, affects/hurts my life.

37. ____ I like to feel superior to other people.

APPENDIX C

WAYS OF COPING QUESTIONNAIRE

Ways of Coping Questionnaire

0=Does not apply or would not use
1=Would use somewhat
2=Would use quite a bit
3=Would use a great deal

---

1. 0 1 2 3 I would concentrate on what I have to do next - the next step.
2. 0 1 2 3 I would analyze the problem in order to understand it better.
3. 0 1 2 3 I would turn to work or another activity to take my mind off things.
4. 0 1 2 3 I feel that time would make a difference - the only thing is to wait.
5. 0 1 2 3 I would bargain or compromise to get something positive from the situation.
6. 0 1 2 3 I would do something that I don't think would work, but at least I would be doing something.
7. 0 1 2 3 I would try to get the person responsible to change his or her mind.
8. 0 1 2 3 I would talk to someone to find out more about the situation.
9. 0 1 2 3 I would criticize or lecture myself.
10. 0 1 2 3 I would try not to burn my bridges, but leave things alone somewhat.
11. 0 1 2 3 I would hope for a miracle.
12. 0 1 2 3 I would go along with fate: sometimes I just have bad luck.
13. 0 1 2 3 I would go along as if nothing has happened.
14. 0 1 2 3 I would try to keep my feelings to myself.
15. 0 1 2 3 I would look for the silver lining, so to speak; I would try to look on the bright side of things.
16. 0 1 2 3 I would sleep more than usual.
17. 0 1 2 3 I would express anger to the person(s) who caused the problem.

0=Does not apply or would not use
1=Would use somewhat
2=Would use quite a bit
3=Would use a great deal

18. 0 1 2 3 I would accept sympathy and understanding from someone.
19. 0 1 2 3 I would tell myself things that help me feel better.
20. 0 1 2 3 I would be inspired to do something creative about the problem.
21. 0 1 2 3 I would try to forget the whole thing.
22. 0 1 2 3 I would get professional help.
23. 0 1 2 3 I would change or grow as a person.
24. 0 1 2 3 I would wait to see what would happen before doing anything.
25. 0 1 2 3 I would apologize or do something to make up.
26. 0 1 2 3 I would make a plan of action and follow it.
27. 0 1 2 3 I would accept the next best thing to what I want.
28. 0 1 2 3 I would let my feelings out somehow.
29. 0 1 2 3 I would realize I have brought the problem on myself.
30. 0 1 2 3 I would come out of the experience better than when I went in.
31. 0 1 2 3 I would talk to someone who can do something concrete about the problem.
32. 0 1 2 3 I would try to get away from it for awhile by resting or taking a vacation.
33. 0 1 2 3 I would try to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs, or medications, etc.
34. 0 1 2 3 I would take a big chance or do something very risky to solve the problem.
35. 0 1 2 3 I would try not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch.
36. 0 1 2 3 I would find new faith.

0=Does not apply or would not use
1=Would use somewhat
2=Would use quite a bit
3=Would use a great deal

37. 0 1 2 3 I would maintain my pride and keep a stiff upper lip.

38. 0 1 2 3 I would rediscovered what is important in life.

39. 0 1 2 3 I would change something so things would turn out right.

40. 0 1 2 3 I would generally avoid being with people.

41. 0 1 2 3 I would not let it get to me; I would refuse to think too much about it.

42. 0 1 2 3 I would ask advice from a relative or friend I respect.

43. 0 1 2 3 I would keep others from knowing how bad things are.

44. 0 1 2 3 I would make light of the situation; I would refuse to get too serious about it.

45. 0 1 2 3 I would talk to someone about how I am feeling.

46. 0 1 2 3 I would stand my ground and fight for what I want.

47. 0 1 2 3 I would take it out on other people.

48. 0 1 2 3 I would draw on my past experiences; I was in a similar situation before.

49. 0 1 2 3 I know what has to be done, so I would double my efforts to make things work.

50. 0 1 2 3 I would refuse to believe that it has happened.

51. 0 1 2 3 I would promise myself that things would be different next time.

52. 0 1 2 3 I would come up with a couple of different solutions to the problem.

53. 0 1 2 3 I would accept the situation, since nothing can be done.

54. 0 1 2 3 I would try to keep my feelings about the problem from interfering with other things.

55. 0 1 2 3 I would wish that I could change what has happened or how I feel.

0=Does not apply or would not use
1=Would use somewhat
2=Would use quite a bit
3=Would use a great deal

56. **0 1 2 3** I would change something about myself.

57. **0 1 2 3** I would daydream or imagine a better time or place than the one I am in.

58. **0 1 2 3** I would wish that the situation would go away or somehow be over with.

59. **0 1 2 3** I would have fantasies or wishes about how things might turn out.

60. **0 1 2 3** I would pray.

61. **0 1 2 3** I would prepare myself for the worst.

62. **0 1 2 3** I would go over in my mind what I would say or do.

63. **0 1 2 3** I would think about how a person I admire would handle this situation and use that as a model.

64. **0 1 2 3** I would try to see things from the other person's point of view.

65. **0 1 2 3** I would remind myself how much worse things could be.

66. **0 1 2 3** I would jog or exercise.

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Information Questionnaire

In this final section of the packet, you are asked to provide some personal information for the purposes of describing the sample used for the study. Again, please be assured that this information is confidential.

1. How old are you? _____

2. How do you describe yourself ethnically?
   a. Asian, Pacific Islander
   b. African-American
   c. Hispanic, Non-White
   d. Caucasian
   e. Native American, Alaskan Native
   f. Biracial
   g. Other (please specify): _____

3. Where do you currently reside?
   a. Residence halls
   b. Off-campus apartments
   c. At home
   d. Fraternity house
   e. Other (please specify): _____

4. How many *semesters* have you been in college since high school, including summer school? _____

5. What is your academic classification?
   a. Freshman
   b. Sophomore
   c. Junior
   d. Senior

6. What is your overall GPA?
   a. 3.00 - 4.00
   b. 2.00 - 2.99
   c. 1.00 - 1.99
   d. 0.00 - 0.99

7. What is your college major and/or field of study?
   a. Business/economics
   b. Education
   c. Fine arts
   d. Humanities/liberal arts
   e. Math/physical sciences
   f. Social sciences
   g. Other (please specify): _____

(Continued on next page)

8. Are you currently in a dating relationship?
   a. yes
   b. no
   c. uncertain

   If yes, how many months have you been in this relationship? _____

   If no, are you looking for a dating partner?
   a. yes
   b. no
   c. uncertain

9. How many dating relationships have you had in high school and college?
   a. 1 - 2
   b. 3 - 4
   c. 5 - 6
   d. 7 - 8
   e. 9 or more

10. What is the average length of your typical dating relationships?
   a. 1 - 3 months
   b. 4 - 6 months
   c. 7 - 9 months
   d. 10 - 12 months
   e. 1 - 2 years
   f. 2 - 3 years
   g. 3 or more years

11. Did you see a counselor for personal reasons before coming to college?
   a. yes
   b. no

   If yes, briefly describe your reason for seeking counseling.

(Continued on next page)

12. Are you familiar with the personal counseling resources available on your campus?
    a. yes
    b. no

13. Have you utilized the personal counseling resources on your campus?
    a. yes
    b. no

If yes, please answer the following two questions:

How many times have you utilized these resources? _____

Briefly describe your reason for seeking counseling.

If no, have you considered talking to a counselor for personal reasons?
    a. yes
    b. no

If you have considered talking with a counselor, briefly describe the reason you might do this?

14. Which of the following categories best describes your affectional/sexual attraction to significant others?
    a. only women
    b. mostly women, some men
    c. women and men equally
    d. mostly men, some women
    e. only men

Thank you very much for your participation!
-----Please return this packet to the original envelope-----

APPENDIX E

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE FORM

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE FORM

Project Title: Coping Strategies in College Men.
Project Director: David J. Bergen, Ph.D. Candidate, UNCG

Your Name: _____

Date: _____

Thank you for participating in this study. Your involvement is important in exploring how college men handle different circumstances and should take you about 40 minutes. All information you provide is confidential. You are asked to complete three instruments for the study.

The information you provide by participating in this study will allow greater understanding of how men respond to a variety of situations. After completing all instruments, return your packet to the envelope. The data will be kept in the researcher's possession, locked, and will be destroyed after five years.

CONSENT: By signing this consent form, you agree that you understand the procedures and any risks and benefits involved in this research. You are free to refuse to participate or to withdraw your consent to participate at any time without penalty or prejudice; your participation is entirely voluntary. Your privacy will be protected because you will not be identified by name as a participant in this project.

The research and this consent form have been approved by the University of North Carolina at Greensboro Institutional Review Board which insures that research involving people follows federal regulations. Questions concerning your rights as a participant in this project can be answered by calling Dr. Beverly B. Maddox-Britt at (910) 334-5878. Questions regarding the research itself will be answered by David J. Bergen by calling 379-7955. Any new information that develops during the project will be provided to you if the information might affect your willingness to continue participation in the project.

By signing this form, you are agreeing to participate in the project described to you by David J. Bergen. Please do not hesitate to ask questions at any point while completing the instruments.

Please sign your name: _____