

ATTITUDES TOWARD LOVE AND ATTITUDES TOWARD
SEX ROLE STEREOTYPES

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	iv
CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	1
II REVIEW OF LITERATURE	5
III PROCEDURE	12
Sample and Collection of Data	12
Instrument	17
Analysis of Data	18
IV RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	19
Introduction	19
Results and Analysis	20
Between Group Comparisons	28
Additional Analysis	39
V CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	46
REFERENCES	52
APPENDIX A	55
APPENDIX B	58
VITA	61

LIST OF TABLES

Tables		Page
I	Description of Sample	13
II	Responses for Total Sample	22
III	Items Indicated as No Difference	24
IV	Items Indicated as Female Traits	25
V	Items Indicated as Male Traits	26
VI	Responses to Interactional Questions	29
VII	Responses of Group I	32
VIII	Responses of Group II	34

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The period spanning the last decade has been one of great change in the area of marriage and the family. Today, traditional notions about the family and sex roles are being questioned. As Seward states it, "This new youth culture stands for equality between the sexes and freedom to choose social role or sexual behavior according to personal need rather than social stereotype." (1970, p.123) Although traditional sex role stereotypes still seem to be the accepted norm, many variations are evident. (Osofsky and Osofsky, 1972) Bem (1974) has recently discussed the concept of androgeny. She believes that people are not limited to the earlier conceptions of masculine or feminine behavior, but actually may have both masculine and feminine traits. According to Bem, the androgynous person would be capable of functioning more effectively in a wider variety of situations than the sex-typed individual.

Although most people would agree that sex roles are changing, Udry (1974) contends that social scientists have little data on the subject, and that they disagree on how the roles are changing. He reports on the studies of Terman and Miles (1936) who concluded that as persons get older they become more feminine, and Kelly's (1955) which indicated the exact opposite. Based on these studies, Udry concludes that "...American culture may have been gradually becoming more masculinized...." (p.34)

The older people in the Terman-Miles study were less masculine because they lived their lives in a culture less masculine than that of the younger people in Kelly's study, according to Udry.

Within recent years there has also been an increasing amount of attention paid to love and its role in mate selection. Love, in all its forms, has been widely discussed in both the popular and professional literature. It is a favorite subject of the poet, received considerable attention in the religious-philosophic literature, and, more recently, has been discussed by professionals interested in marriage and family living. Although the literature on love is immense, Knox (1970) notes that much of the literature provides opinions and contentions about love and love attitudes, and that there is a lack of research and empirical data pertaining to love. Kephart attributes this to love's emotional character which "...tends to suffer in the light of factual dissection," and which results in difficulties with the very definition of what it is. (1972, pp. 345-346.)

Biegel (1951) traces romantic love from the twelfth century idea of courtly love. Sussman (1963) notes that by the eighteenth century the idea of romance as a component of courtship had been accepted by the majority in the western world, and this belief was brought to America by the initial settlers. Kephart (1972) notes that romantic love has been institutionalized in American culture. Udry adds that the importance of love in the American culture is due to the fact that Americans marry for love. It "... has had as much influence on mate selection as the society would let it have." (1974, p. 136)

The romantic love pattern has become very much a part of our society,

and children are socialized in a system of patterned expectations. This is accomplished through what Udry refers to as "the romantic love myth." (1974, p. 137) He goes on to document the influences on the child's conception of love, from Mother Goose to Hollywood. Each person knows just how it is supposed to happen.

The past few years have witnessed the "birth" of a social phenomenon that has had important implications for both sex roles and romantic love: The Woman's Liberation Movement. This somewhat loosely organized movement has focused attention on sex discrimination in "...jobs, wages, education and general participation in the main stream of American society." (Udry, 1974, p. 42) It highlighted male-dominant attitudes of both men and women, and argues against the socialized behavior patterns of tradition. The radical feminist would consider love "...the pivot of women's oppression today." (Firestone, 1972, p.271) Bernard feels that marriage is not a good status for women, at least marriage as it is traditionally institutionalized. In her view, the "radical women" are "preparing us for a future in which we are going to have to recognize a . . . different kind of role for women than we did in the past." (1972, p.372)

If, as Udry (1974) suggests, sex roles are basic values around which behavior is organized, then, when sex roles are changed, other types of behaviors and attitudes also change. If ideas about the role and place of women are changed, might this not have implications for a changing attitude toward romantic love?

The purpose of this study is to attempt to study the relationship between attitudes towards love and attitudes toward sex

role stereotypes. More specifically, would female college students whose expressed attitudes towards love are more "conjugal or realistic" also tend to view the possible behaviors and interactions of men and women in less stereotypical ways than those whose attitudes toward love are more romantically inclined?

Existing classroom questionnaire data provided scores on the Attitudes Toward Love Scale and on attitudes toward male and female characteristics and behavior. From this data base two groups were chosen: one, consisting of respondents whose scores on the Attitude Towards Love Scale is in the lower one-third of the total scores (the more romantic attitudes) and one consisting of those whose scores are within the higher one-third (more realistic or conjugal attitudes.) Using items pertaining to sex role stereotypes that appear in an accompanying questionnaire (see Appendix B), the attitudes toward sex role stereotypes of each group were compared.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

The largest and most comprehensive group of studies on attitudes toward love were those conducted by Knox in the late sixties and early seventies. (Knox and Sporakowski, 1968; Knox, 1970a, 1970b) Knox began by developing an instrument to measure attitudes towards love. (Knox and Sporakowski, 1968) These attitudes were placed on a dichotomy of romantic and realistic (conjugal) attitudes. The characteristics that were chosen to define romantic attitudes towards love were:

Cultural status--differences in custom, tradition, class and religion are of small importance in selecting a marriage partner as compared to love. True love comes but once. There is only one person with whom one can fall in love. Mysticism--love is strange and incomprehensible. Love at first sight. Cardiac-respiratory love--emphasis upon excited love, thrills, and palpitations of the heart. Complete involvement and exclusiveness--lovers are completely absorbed with each other; outside entanglements are unthinkable and admission of ambivalence is tantamount to denial of love. Daydreaming--indulgence in reverie and inattention. Jealousy--believed to vary directly with seriousness of love. Love alone--seen as criterion for marriage. Urgency--dogma of 'gather ye rosebuds while ye may.' True love is eternal. (Knox and Sporakowski, 1968, p. 638)

For the purposes of those studies the characteristics of conjugal or realistic love were the opposite of those of romantic love. Additionally, Knox and Sporakowski utilized the definitions of love of several authors which had a conjugal perspective. "The antithesis of romantic love is conjugal love--the love between settled domestic people." (Goode, 1955, p. 38) Koos noted that "Love is that intense feeling of two people

for each other which involves bodily, emotional, and intellectual identification; . . . a feeling which gains its satisfactions through creating a personal and social identity of those involved.(1953, p. 116)

Overstreet's definition noted that "the love of a person implies, not the possession of that person, but the affirmation of that person. It means granting him gladly, the full right to his unique humanhood.(1949, p. 103) "Conjugal love is a more calm, solid, comforting type of love than romantic love."(Knox and Sporakowski, 1968, p. 639)

The original study (Knox and Sporakowski, 1968) sample consisted of fifty male and fifty female college students between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two who were unmarried. Both men and women were found to be more realistic than romantic, although males were found to be more romantic than females. As class year increased from freshman to sophomore to junior to senior, attitudes toward love became more conjugal. Freshmen are the most romantic in attitude, and seniors are the most realistic. Engagement was influential only in males--the engaged male was more conjugal than his non-engaged counterpart.

Knox's later study (1970a) involved persons at three developmental levels. The sample consisted of late adolescents (16-19 years of age, middle class,) fifty young couples, married less than five years, and fifty couples who were parents of college students and had been married for twenty years or more. Using the previously discussed scale, Knox found that high school seniors tend to be more romantic in their attitudes toward love than persons who have been married less than five years. A clear romantic orientation was found on the part of the high school students, and a clear realistic or conjugal orientation on the part of

the young married couples. The young married couples also had a more realistic conception of love than the older couples. The mean scores of the adolescent and the older married couples groups were quite similar.

Kephart (1972) surveyed a sample of 1,079 students of both sexes. Close to ninety per cent of the respondents answered that they thought they knew what love is. Also, some sixty per cent of the respondents answered "head rules" to the question "Does your head rule your heart or does your heart rule your head." (pp. 348-349) This might be interpreted in line with Knox's findings that college students tended to have attitudes toward love that were more realistic than romantic.

Kanin, Davidson and Schenk (1972) surveyed 778 students in a large midwestern university. They found that love at first sight was reported by slightly less than one-third of both men and women, and was therefore equally probable for both sexes. Once in love, the stereotypical romantic reactions were more apt to be associated with females than males (euphoria and idealization.)

Several writers have attempted to analyze the societal role of love in America. Greenfield suggests that ". . .the romantic love complex in middle class America serves as the reward-motive that induces individuals to occupy the structurally essential positions of husband-father and wife-mother." (1976, p.53) Goode (1959) thinks that love is a universal psychological potential. Its importance is seen in the societal mechanisms that developed to keep it from disrupting existing social structures. Thus, by attaching love to marriage, society can control its disruptive

effects through various social restraints. This, then, results in a force to propel socially appropriate couples into marriage.

Sex role stereotypes are widely held assumptions concerning the traits of men and women, and are believed to apply to nearly all women and men as members of their respective groups. (Deaux, 1976) Recently, sex role stereotypes have received a great deal of attention as they relate to the status of women and the limitation of individual potential. (Bardwick, 1976) Despite the increased attention, however, little empirical data exists on the actual stereotypical attributes of men and women.

Several studies on male-female stereotypes have been concerned with the relative favorability of male and female traits. MacBrayer (1960) had college students complete a series of open-ended questions concerning the opposite sex. After analyzing the responses in terms of favorability, MacBrayer concluded that women were more favorable in evaluating men than men were in evaluating women. McKee and Sherriffs (1957) asked persons to list traits of males and females. They found that more favorable traits were attributed to males than females, and more unfavorable traits were ascribed to females than to males.

Rosenkrantz, Bee, Vogel, and Broverman (1968) found that college students attribute aggression, independence, dominance, leadership, logic, and better handling of crisis to men. The same group attributes gentleness, understanding, dependency, and emotional understanding to women. While those traits attributed to women are positively valued, there is the implication that women do not possess the highly valued traits that are possessed by men. As Deaux (1976) notes, some traits may be more

valuable than others, particularly in a competitive society, where competence may be more highly valued than warmth and expressiveness.

Halas (1974) provides a description of the traditional sex role ideology. According to the traditional ideology, women's primary responsibilities are homemaking and children, and women with children should not have a career. Men are responsible for financial support. A double standard in social practices is acceptable. Her description of the "liberal" ideology is that relationships between men and women are equalitarian, and that men and women, husbands and wives, may share financial, domestic, and childrearing tasks.

Neufeld, Langmeyer, and Seeman (1974) surveyed the attitudes of a sample of college students in 1970, and compared them with the findings of a study undertaken in 1950 by one of the authors. They found that in both samples "physical feats" and "vocational success" were most important to men, and personal attractiveness most important to women. They interpreted the agreement in findings of both studies as evidence that 1950 vintage sex role stereotypes are still persistent.

Bardwick (1976) notes that sex role stereotypes may have some basis in reality when applied to a group as a whole. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) in their exhaustive review of the literature, attempted to ascertain which, if any, of the commonly held stereotypes concerning sex differences were supported by empirical data. From their research, they identified several sex differences which are fairly well established:

- (1) That girls have greater verbal ability than boys;
- (2) That boys excell in visual-spatial ability;
- (3) That boys excel in mathematical ability;
- (4) That males are more aggressive.

Those differences which are not supported by research include the following:

- (1) That girls are more social than boys;
- (2) That girls are more "suggestible" than boys;
- (3) That girls are better at rote learning and simple repetitive tasks, boys at tasks that require higher level cognitive processing;
- (4) That boys are more "analytic;"
- (5) That girls lack achievement motivation. (pp. 349-352)

The data above does provide some support for certain sex role stereotypes (such as aggression) but also fails to support others. It appears that certain sex role stereotypes may have a basis in reality while others do not.

In attempting to explain why sex role stereotypes exist, Deaux (1976) believes that stereotypes exist in part due to selective perception. People are socialized with certain expectations about the characteristics of men and women. These stereotypes are continually reinforced by media examples found in books, movies, television and magazines. Following the system of beliefs which they acquire, people tend to see those and characteristics in people that they believe they will find. Deaux also believes that the social scientist's emphasis on male-female differences rather than similarities has only added to the perpetration of sex role stereotypes.

Ludwig and Larsen (1971) conducted a study which provides somewhat of a link between sex role stereotypes and attitudes toward love. The objective of their study was to explore the effect of increased liberation of the female and increased liberalization of sex attitudes on conceptions of romantic love. They administered a questionnaire to 219 male and female college students with the intent of constructing a Guttman-type scale

to measure the major variables. Although this objective was not met, several items provided useful information.

They found that, considered individually, the major variables of church membership, endorsement of women's liberation, and endorsement of liberal sex each had a weak effect on attitudes toward romantic love. When considered together, however, the three variables have a contributory effect on attitudes. The most likely subjects to attach importance to romantic love were females who were church members and who did not endorse women's liberation or liberal sex. It was also discovered that none of the variables of age, class in school, or the size of the respondent's hometown had a significant effect on the person's attitudes toward romantic love. (Ludwig and Larsen, 1971)

CHAPTER III

Procedure

Subjects and Collection of Data

The sample consisted of students enrolled in the course The Individual and Marriage taught at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The data were collected over the period of time beginning January 1, 1974 through June 1, 1976. The students were asked to complete a thirty page questionnaire throughout the quarter and return it to the instructor. They were told that the data would be used to compile information about the attitudes and behavior of college students related to marriage and the family, and data from previous quarters were presented in class for specific discussion purposes.

The questionnaire was responded to by a total of 373 students. Due to the small number of males completing the questionnaire they were excluded from the present study. This resulted in a total sample of 330 females. From this group were chosen two groups, one which consisted of those whose scores were in the highest one-third on the Love Attitude Inventory, the other consisting of those whose scores were in the lowest one-third. The two groups for this study consisted of: 119 in the highest scoring (most conjugal) and 105 in the lowest scoring (most romantic) subgroups. Numbers were not equal due to ties at the cut off scores (see Table I.)

TABLE I
DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE*

Classification	Group I		Group II	
	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>
<u>Age</u>				
18	5	5.1	2	1.8
19	29	29.1	27	24.8
20	41	41.8	54	49.5
21	18	18.4	20	18.3
22	4	4.1	4	3.7
25	0	0	2	1.8
33	<u>1</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
	98	100.0	109	100.0
<u>Year in School</u>				
Freshman	3	3.3	1	0.9
Sophomore	38	41.3	42	39.6
Junior	33	35.9	53	50.0
Senior	<u>18</u>	<u>19.6</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>9.4</u>
	92	100.0	106	100.0

*Although the N for Group I is 105, and the N for Group II is 119, the N for each item above may not equal the N for the group since not all persons answered all items. Percentages may not total 100 in all cases due to rounding errors.

Table I - Continued

Classification	Group I		Group II	
	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>
<u>Curriculum</u>				
Management, Housing, and Family Development	34	40.0	54	55.7
Other Home Economics	7	8.2	9	9.3
Behavioral Sciences	11	12.9	13	13.4
Physical Sciences	4	4.7	2	2.1
Arts	8	9.4	8	8.2
Engineering	0	0.0	1	1.0
Education	19	22.4	8	8.2
Business	<u>2</u>	<u>2.4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2.1</u>
	85	100.0	97	100.0
<u>Home</u>				
Country	13	13.1	14	12.8
Small Town	30	30.3	31	28.4
City	<u>56</u>	<u>56.6</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>58.7</u>
	99	100.0	109	100.0
<u>Church Membership</u>				
Yes	89	89.9	88	80.0
No	<u>10</u>	<u>10.1</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>20.0</u>
	99	100.0	110	100.0

Table I - Continued

Classification	Group I		Group II	
	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>
<u>Church Attendance</u>				
Never	7	7.1	17	15.7
Once per Month	39	39.8	41	38.0
Once or Twice per Month	12	12.2	19	17.6
Three or Four Times per Month	19	19.4	15	13.9
At Least Once per Week	<u>21</u>	<u>21.4</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>14.8</u>
	98	100.0	108	100.0
<u>Sexual Attitudes</u>				
Very Liberal	9	9.2	13	11.8
Somewhat Liberal	27	27.6	43	39.1
Moderate	35	35.7	26	23.6
Somewhat Conservative	24	24.5	20	18.3
Very Conservative	<u>3</u>	<u>3.1</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>7.3</u>
	98	100.0	110	100.0
<u>Total Number of Persons Dated</u>				
Less than 10	27	27.3	32	29.1
Between 10 and 20	42	42.4	45	40.9
Between 20 and 30	20	20.2	29	26.4
More Than 40	<u>10</u>	<u>10.1</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3.6</u>
	99	100.0	110	100.0

Table I - Continued

Classification	Group I		Group II	
	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>per cent</u>
<u>Age at First Date</u>				
11	1	1.0	0	0
12	1	1.0	2	1.8
13	8	8.1	10	9.1
14	22	22.2	27	24.5
15	30	30.3	40	36.4
16	29	29.3	14	12.7
17	4	4.0	12	10.9
18	4	4.0	4	3.6
19	0	0	1	0.9
	<u>99</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>110</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Instrument

The instrument used for this study was the Attitude Toward Love Scale developed by Knox and Sporakowski (1968.) The inventory (see appendix A) is a twenty-nine item questionnaire which provides a measure of one's expressed attitudes toward love on a continuum from "romantic" to "conjugal." Five choices are available for each item, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Responses of "strongly agree" indicate the most romantic attitude, and are given a value of one. Responses of "strongly disagree" are the most conjugal and are assigned a value of five. Therefore, when scored, the lower the total score the greater the tendency of the student to be romantic in her attitude toward love. Conversely, the higher the total score, the greater the tendency of the student to be conjugal or realistic in her attitude toward love. Those scoring below 90 (the midpoint between 30 and 150, the scale's score extremes) have a more romantic attitude toward love than those scoring above 90 (Knox, 1971.)

To measure reliability, Knox and Sporakowski (1968) utilized a test-retest procedure. The test was administered over a one week time interval to a group of twenty-five students which was representative of the sample in their study. This revealed a 78.4 per cent agreement. Face validity was assumed.

The questions used (see appendix B) were developed by Sporakowski and Hicks (1973; 1976.) Data obtained from these questions included demographic information and information about the respondents attitudes and behavior concerning dating, marriage, sex, birth control, childbirth and parenting, and family finance. Items were selected from this

questionnaire which indicated the respondent's attitudes concerning sex role stereotypes.

Analysis of Data

The objective of this study was to study what relationship exists between women's attitudes towards love and their attitudes towards sex role stereotypes. Toward this end, the data from the questionnaires were transferred to optical scanning sheets and were punched onto computer cards for data analysis. Frequency counts, percentages, and crosstabulations were computed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. (Nie, et al., 1970) The t-test (Kerlinger, 1975) was used to ascertain the statistical difference between Group I and Group II.

CHAPTER IV

Results and Discussion

Introduction

The objective of this investigation was to study the relationship between attitudes toward love and attitudes toward sex role stereotypes. The Attitudes Toward Love Scale (ATLS) was administered to 339 women. The scores on the ATLS ranged from 51 to 132 out of a possible range of 29 to 145. Two groups were derived from this original data source. Group I (more romantic) consisted of those whose ATLS score was in the lower one-third of the distribution (93 and below) and Group II (more realistic) consisted of those persons whose scores fell in the upper one-third of the distribution (106 and above). The mean score of Group I was 82.86, with a standard deviation of 9.05. Group II had a mean score of 114.53 and a standard deviation of 6.86. A comparison of the two groups using the t-test resulted in a t-value of 29.224 with 222 degrees of freedom. This indicated that the groups were statistically significantly different with respect to scores on the ATLS ($p < .001$).

Demographically, the two groups appear to be quite similar (see Table I.) The age range in each group was between 18 and 22, and members of each group were distributed similarly within the range. Class membership was also distributed similarly within the four categories (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior and Senior).

Both groups were similar in terms of the curriculum of their members. Hometown size also showed great likeness across the groups.

Approximately the same percentage of persons in Group I reported membership in a church as did those in Group II. There were slightly more members of Group I who reported church attendance at least once per week, while in Group II there were slightly more who never attended church. Other than these differences, the groups appeared similar with regard to church attendance.

Several differences between the two groups emerge in sexual attitudes. A greater percentage of members of Group I identified their sexual attitudes as "moderate", while a greater percentage of Group II indicated that their sexual attitudes were "somewhat liberal." Both groups were essentially similar in terms of age at first date and total number of persons dated.

Results and Analysis

In order to study the respondents' attitudes toward sex role stereotypes, twenty six items were chosen from the original Sporakowski and Hicks (1973) questionnaire (see appendix B). Twenty items consisted of behavioral and personality traits which form common sex role stereotypes. Respondents were asked to indicate which sex they feel possesses the trait indicated by circling M for male and F for Female or ND for no difference. The other six items were statements describing certain interactional preferences that the respondents have experienced in their association with the opposite sex. Each of these questions required the respondent to indicate a yes or no answer. These items were not

intended to form a scale. Face validity of each item was assumed. The responses to each item were examined and analyzed individually.

The responses of the two groups as a whole reveal several interesting findings concerning the general attitude toward sex role stereotypes (see Table II.) Thirteen of the twenty items were considered by a majority of the respondents (50 per cent or more) to be equally likely (no difference checked) for either sex (see Table III.) Five of the traits were more likely to be held by women, and two by men (see Tables IV and V).

Closer inspection of those traits which were considered equally likely to be held by both sexes indicates that several of the traditional sex role stereotypes were rejected by the group. These included the trait clusters of dominance, of logic and intellectualism, and several interpersonal characteristics. Several traditional stereotypes were still evident, particularly those concerning physical characteristics of males and emotional characteristics of females.

One of the more deeply rooted stereotypes concerns the intellectualism and reasoning abilities traditionally attributed to males. The group's response reveals that this is not supported by a majority of this sample. Eighty per cent of the group felt that there was no difference between the sexes in intellectual curiosity (item 20) while over half of the respondents held the belief that neither sex is exclusively the most logical (item 5.) And, although women are often stereotyped in the media as being unable to balance checkbooks and keep budgets, seventy per cent of the group indicated that neither sex was inherently better at managing money (item 11.)

TABLE II*
RESPONSES FOR TOTAL SAMPLE

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
1. Which sex is better at understanding people?	4	2	62	30	140	68
2. Which sex is more gossipy?	7	3	111	53	90	43
3. Which sex has the stronger sex drive?	109	54	2	1	94	46
4. Which sex is more undependable?	37	18	9	4	161	78
5. Which sex is more logical?	78	37	11	5	120	57
6. Which sex is more emotional?	3	1	163	78	43	21
7. Which sex is better at understanding children?	1	0	112	54	96	46
8. Which sex is better in a crisis?	79	39	16	8	110	54
9. Which sex is more likely to be concerned with what others think?	4	2	110	53	95	46
10. Which sex is more romantic?	9	4	92	44	108	52

*Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding error.

Table II - Continued

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
11. Which sex is better at managing money?	42	20	19	9	145	70
12. Which sex should have the final say in decisions?	32	16	1	0	174	84
13. Which sex is better at driving a car?	52	25	8	4	148	71
14. Which sex is more scheming and crafty?	3	1	79	38	126	61
15. Which sex is more jealous?	17	8	43	21	149	71
16. Which sex is more aggressive?	135	65	6	3	65	31
17. Which sex is more dependent?	14	7	120	58	73	35
18. Which sex is more punitive?	37	19	8	4	146	76
19. Which sex can form deeper interpersonal relationships?	3	1	50	24	153	74
20. Which sex is more intellectually curious?	36	17	4	2	166	80

TABLE III
ITEMS INDICATED AS NO DIFFERENCE

Item	M		F		ND	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Which sex is better at understanding people?	4	2	62	30	140	68
4. Which sex is more undependable?	37	18	9	4	161	78
5. Which sex is more logical?	78	37	11	5	120	57
8. Which sex is better in a crisis?	79	39	16	8	110	54
10. Which sex is more romantic?	9	4	92	44	108	52
11. Which sex is better at managing money?	42	20	19	9	145	70
12. Which sex should have the final say in decisions?	32	16	1	0	174	84
14. Which sex is more scheming and crafty?	3	1	79	38	126	61
15. Which sex is more jealous?	17	8	43	21	149	71
18. Which sex is more punitive?	37	19	8	4	146	76
19. Which sex can form deeper interpersonal relationships?	3	1	50	24	153	74
20. Which sex is more intellectually curious?	36	17	4	2	166	80

TABLE IV*

ITEMS INDICATED AS FEMALE TRAITS

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
2. Which sex is more gossipy?	7	3	111	53	90	43
6. Which sex is more emotional?	3	1	163	78	43	21
7. Which sex is better at understanding children?	1	0	112	54	96	46
9. Which sex is more likely to be concerned with what others think?	4	2	110	53	95	46
17. Which sex is more dependent?	14	7	120	58	73	35

*Percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding error.

TABLE V*
ITEMS INDICATED AS MALE TRAITS

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
3. Which sex has the stronger sex drive?	109	54	2	1	94	46
16. Which sex is more aggressive?	135	65	6	3	65	31

*Percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding error.

The stereotypical view of man as head of the household, decision-maker and disciplinarian summarizes the traditional view of male dominance. Males are viewed as dominant and assertive and females as weak and submissive. The group also tended to reject the view that these traits are possessed by men only. Eighty four per cent of the sample felt that neither sex should categorically have the final say in decisions (item 12.) Neither males nor females were thought to be characteristically more undependable or more punitive. Seventy eight per cent answered that neither sex is more undependable (item 4) and seventy six per cent agreed that there was no difference between the sexes with regard to punitiveness (item 18).

When questioned as to which sex can form deeper interpersonal relationships, three-quarters of the sample felt that either sex was equally capable of forming deep relationships (item 19). Fifty-two per cent of the group thought that there was no difference between the sexes in which was the most romantic (item 10), and seventy one per cent agreed that neither sex is characteristically more jealous than the other sex was (item 15). Although females are often considered to be more scheming and crafty, sixty one per cent of this group believed that no difference existed between the sexes for this trait (item 14).

In terms of dealing with a crisis, a traditionally ascribed strong point of males, fifty four per cent of the present sample did not think that a sex-related difference existed (item 8). Males did make a gain over the traditional stereotype of not being as understanding of people as well as women. In their response to item 1, sixty eight per cent of the total thought that both sexes were equally adept at understanding people.

Finally, even the time-honored male stereotype of greater skill in driving a car was not supported by this sample. Seventy-one per cent of the group believes that there is no difference in the possession of this skill by either sex.

Females still emerged with the dominant characteristics of emotionality and dependency. Seventy-one per cent of the sample considered females the more emotional sex and fifty-eight per cent considered females as the more dependant sex (items 6 and 17). Slightly over one-half of the group felt that females were more gossipy, and same percentage believed that females were the most concerned with what others thought (items 2 and 9). Fifty-four per cent of this sample believed that females were better at understanding children, a traditionally held belief (item 7).

Men were thought to possess two traits that seem to relate to biologically determined characteristics of maleness. Fifty-four per cent of the group attributed the strongest sex drive to males (item 3) and sixty five per cent attributed more aggression to males than females.

Between Group Comparisons

Knox (1975) notes that one's true value system is best revealed through one's behavior. Items 25 through 30 of the questionnaire pertain to actual preferences and behaviors of the repondents in their association with the opposite sex (see Table VI). The responses to two items proved to be statistically different between the two groups (items 26 and 27). These are examined first as they may provide an insight into the value systems of the two groups.

TABLE VI*

RESPONSES TO INTERACTIONAL QUESTIONS

Item	Group I						Group II					
	Yes		No				Yes		No			
	N	%	N	%			N	%	N	%		
In my association with the other sex I have found that:												
25. I tend to be competitive with a person of the other sex.	36	38	58	61			43	41	63	59		
26. I get along better when the male is definitely dominant and the female is submissive.**	43	45	52	55			19	18	88	82		
27. I am happier when I am submissive in the relationship.**	41	46	48	54			18	17	87	83		
28. I often feel pushed around by my date.	8	8	88	91			10	9	98	91		
29. I like to date people who are as intelligent or more intelligent than I.	94	95	3	3			95	92	8	8		
30. I like to date people who let me make most of the decisions.	5	5	91	95			6	6	100	94		

*Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding error.

**Significant at the .001 level.

Item 26: In my association with the opposite sex, I have found that I get along better when the male is definitely dominant and the female is submissive.

Slightly under half of Group I (45 per cent) answered yes to this item, as compared to 18 per cent of those in Group II. Analysis of the responses of both groups to this item resulted in a chi-square value of 16.628 with one degree of freedom ($p < .001$).

This item may directly relate to the relative acceptance of traditional sex role ideology between the members of Group I and of Group II. Dominance in male-female relationships has traditionally been associated with the male, while the female was expected to remain passive. It would seem likely that those who believed in the traditional sex role ideology as a value system would also be the most likely to incorporate this characteristic into their personal experiences.

Item 27: In my association with the opposite sex I have found that I am happier when I am submissive in the relationship.

Item 27 is very similar to Item 26 discussed above. As would be expected the responses of Group I and Group II were similar to the responses on Item 26. Forty-six per cent of the members of Group I responded that they do feel more comfortable when submissive in a male-female relationship as compared to only seventeen per cent of those in Group II. As noted above, submissiveness in a male-female relationship has traditionally been the dictated role for females. It would seem that the members of Group I would be more likely to possess the traditional sex role ideology and attitudes and hence be more comfortable when their behavior and interactions conform to this ideology. When the response to this item were analyzed the resulting chi-square value was 17.700

($p < .001$) which would support the assumption that Group I would be more likely to exhibit the sex role behavior.

Items 1 through 20 consist of specific personality and behavioral traits that have formed the traditional sex role stereotypes (see appendix). The respondents are asked to indicate which sex possesses the trait by indicating male or female or by indicating that no difference exists between the sexes in possession of the trait. By examining the groups' responses to these items it will be possible to study their respective attitudes toward sex role stereotypes. The responses of the groups were compared using the chi-square test. Those items that received statistically significantly different responses between the groups will be discussed.

Item 2: Which sex is more gossipy?

Chi-square analysis of the responses to item 2 resulted in a chi-square value of 14.307 with two degrees of freedom ($p < .001$). Over half of Group I chose female (60 per cent) while forty-seven per cent of Group II chose female. Fifty-three per cent of Group II chose no difference as compared to 33 per cent of Group I. Male was an unlikely choice for both groups, but Group I was slightly more likely to make this choice if it were made at all. The significant difference between the two groups related to the no difference choice, where Group I was less likely to indicate that there was no sex difference with regard to this trait. Group I was also more likely than Group II to make the stereotypical choice.

Item 5: Which sex is more logical?

Slightly under one half (47 per cent) of Group I chose male and about the same number (46 per cent) chose no difference in response to

TABLE VII*
RESPONSES OF GROUP I (ROMANTIC)

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
1. Which sex is better at understanding people?	3	3	33	34	62	63
2. Which sex is more gossipy?	7	7	59	60	32	33
3. Which sex has the stronger sex drive?	57	59	2	2	38	39
4. Which sex is more undependable?	25	25	4	4	70	71
5. Which sex is more logical?	46	47	8	8	45	46
6. Which sex is more emotional?	1	1	86	87	12	12
7. Which sex is better at understanding children?	1	1	60	61	38	38
8. Which sex is better in a crisis?	51	53	6	6	40	41
9. Which sex is more likely to be concerned with what others think?	1	1	63	64	35	35
10. Which sex is more romantic?	4	4	49	50	46	47

*Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding error.

Table VII - Continued

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
11. Which sex is better at managing money?	26	27	13	13	59	60
12. Which sex should have the final say in decisions?	20	20	1	1	77	79
13. Which sex is better at driving a car?	24	24	2	2	73	74
14. Which sex is more scheming and crafty?	3	3	46	47	50	51
15. Which sex is more jealous?	9	9	24	24	66	67
16. Which sex is more aggressive?	65	66	4	4	29	29
17. Which sex is more dependent?	9	9	63	64	25	26
18. Which sex is more punitive?	18	20	5	6	67	74
19. Which sex can form deeper interpersonal relationships?	2	2	30	31	64	66
20. Which sex is more intellectually curious?	20	20	2	2	75	76

TABLE VIII*
RESPONSES OF GROUP II (REALISTIC)

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
1. Which sex is better at understanding people?	1	1	29	27	78	72
2. Which sex is more gossipy?	0	0	52	47	58	53
3. Which sex has the stronger sex drive?	52	48	0	0	56	52
4. Which sex is more undependable?	12	11	5	5	91	84
5. Which sex is more logical?	32	29	3	3	75	68
6. Which sex is more emotional?	2	2	77	70	31	28
7. Which sex is better at understanding children?	0	0	52	47	58	53
8. Which sex is better in a crisis?	28	26	10	9	70	65
9. Which sex is more likely to be concerned with others think?	3	3	47	43	60	55
10. Which sex is more romantic?	5	5	43	39	62	56

*Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding error.

Table VIII - Continued

Item	<u>M</u>		<u>F</u>		<u>ND</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
11. Which sex is better at managing money?	16	15	6	6	86	80
12. Which sex should have the final say in decisions?	12	11	0	0	97	89
13. Which sex is better at driving a car?	28	26	6	6	75	69
14. Which sex is more scheming and crafty?	0	0	33	30	76	70
15. Which sex is more jealous?	8	7	19	17	83	76
16. Which sex is more aggressive?	70	65	2	2	36	33
17. Which sex is more dependent?	5	5	57	52	48	44
18. Which sex is more punitive?	19	19	3	3	79	78
19. Which sex can form deeper interpersonal relationships?	1	1	20	18	89	81
20. Which sex is more intellectually curious?	16	15	2	2	91	84

this item. Sixty-eight per cent of Group II indicated no difference and twenty-nine per cent chose male. Female was an unlikely choice for either group. The largest difference noted was with respect to the no difference category. The respondents in Group II were much more likely to choose no difference as a response, while the members of Group I were equally likely to choose male or no difference. The resulting chi-square value was 11.739 with two degrees of freedom ($p < .01$). Again, Group I was more likely to indicate the stereotypical response than Group II.

Item 4: Which sex is more undependable?

The overwhelming majority of both groups chose no difference in response to this item (71 per cent of Group I and 84 per cent of Group II). When a choice between the sexes was indicated, males were more likely to be chosen than females. Group I was more likely to chose male than was Group II (twenty-five per cent as compared to eleven per cent). Group II was more likely to choose no difference by a slight margin. In terms of stereotypes, Group I was more likely to choose the response which would indicate sex role stereotyping (male). Chi-square analysis with two degrees of freedom resulted in a value of 7.039 ($p < .05$).

Item 6: Which sex is more emotional?

A distinct majority of both Group I and Group II chose females as the sex that possessed the trait of emotionality (seventy-eight per cent). Males were not a likely choice by either group and were chosen equally by both groups (two per cent). The major difference between the two groups was that Group I was less likely to choose no difference (12 per cent) as compared to Group II (28 per cent). Emotionality has

traditionally been associated with females in American society. Based on the responses to this item, Group I again seems slightly more likely to make the stereotypical response. The chi-square value for this item was 8.670 with two degrees of freedom ($p < .05$).

Item 8: Which sex is better in a crisis?

Slightly more than half (54 per cent) of both groups chose no difference on Item 8. Sixty-five per cent of Group II chose no difference as compared to forty-one per cent of Group I. Group I was more likely to choose male than was Group II (fifty-three per cent of Group I and twenty-six per cent of Group II). Only eight per cent of both groups chose female, and Group II was slightly more likely to make this choice. Traditionally males have been thought to be more stable in the face of a crisis, whereas women have been labeled more emotional and hence less likely to respond well in a crisis. Group II proved less likely to choose the stereotypical response than the members of Group I. They are also more likely to indicate that no difference exists between the sexes in regard to handling a crisis situation. The chi-square analysis proved to be significant at the .001 level (with two degrees of freedom and a chi-square value of 15.331).

Item 9: Which sex is more likely to be concerned with what others think?

Fifty-three per cent of the total sample chose female in response to this item, with forty-six per cent indicating that no difference existed. Group I was more likely to choose female (64 per cent) as compared to Group II (43 per cent). Group II choose no difference in fifty-five per cent of the response while Group I chose no difference

thirty-five per cent of the time. The chi-square value of 9.358 with two degrees of freedom indicates a difference between the groups' that is significant at the .01 level. As before, Group I emerged as the one most likely to make the stereotypical response.

Item 11: Which sex is better at managing money?

The majority of both groups considered neither sex as better at managing money (71 per cent). When a sex-related choice was made it was twice as likely to be male than female. Group II chose no difference more frequently than did Group I (80 per cent as compared to 60 per cent). Group I was more likely to choose male than was Group II (27 per cent and 15 per cent respectively). The chi-square value of 9.524 was significant at the .01 level (with two degrees of freedom.)

Item 14: Which sex is more scheming and crafty?

No difference was selected by a majority of the total sample (61 per cent) although females were more likely to be chosen than males if a sex was indicated (38 per cent chose females and only one per cent chose males.) A larger number of respondents in Group II (70 per cent) chose no difference and a larger percentage of Group I indicated female (47 per cent). Chi-square analysis resulted in a chi-square value of 10.046 with two degrees of freedom ($p < .01$).

Summarizing the data on between group comparisons, eight of the twenty items were found to reveal significant differences between the responses of Group I and Group II when subjected to a chi-square analysis. In all cases, the respondents in Group I were more likely to make the stereotypical choice, whereas the members in Group II were most likely to choose the egalitarian response of no difference. This same trend

was also evident in those items in which a significant difference was not indicated (see Tables VII and VIII).

A difference was also noted in regard to stated preference for a submissive role in a heterosexual relationship. Specifically, a statistically significant preference was indicated by the members of Group I for a submissive role in association with the opposite sex. A preference was also shown by those in Group I for the male to be definitely dominant in such relationships (as indicated by responses to Items 26 and 27). This might indicate that the members of Group I are more likely to have accepted the traditional sex role ideology as a personal value system. It would seem that on the basis of this data that those women whose attitudes toward love are more romantic (as judged by their score on the ATLS) are more likely to hold more traditional attitudes toward male and female behavior than those women whose attitudes toward love are more realistic or conjugal.

Additional Analysis

While the above data seem to indicate that the group as a whole is moving toward a less stereotypical view of men and women, it is also evident that the traditional stereotypes remain very evident. One method of examining the extent to which the traditional stereotypes remain would be to examine the present data after deleting the "no difference" responses. This would reveal which sex was indicated as exhibiting the trait in question, and would serve as an indicator of the extent to which the stereotypical attitudes are still present.

When the no difference category is removed, there is a clear sex

assignment of each trait. Ten traits were indicated by a majority of the remaining responses as being most common in females, and ten were thought to be possessed by males. In all cases, the sex which was indicated as possessing a certain trait was selected by at least twice as many respondents (of the total sample) as the other sex. When the traits selected for each sex are combined, the traditional sex role stereotypes emerge (see Table II for details).

Women are viewed as more emotional and more dependent. They are, however, also viewed as better at understanding people, and able to form deeper interpersonal relationships than men. They are more romantic, and also more jealous. They are viewed as the most likely to gossip, the most likely to be concerned about the opinions of others, and, of course, the better sex at understanding children.

Men emerge with the basic characteristics of intellectual curiosity and greater logic. They are better in a crisis, although thought to be the more undependable. They are thought to possess more skill in driving a car and are better at managing money. When a decision needs to be made, the majority of the remaining respondents agreed that the final say in the decision belongs to the male. The male is also believed to be the more punitive of the two sexes. More aggression and a stronger sex drive are also attributed to the male.

When the responses of Group I and Group II are compared without the no difference category removed, there is great similarity in the responses. These responses parallel those of the total group that were discussed above. Group I had a larger number of respondents in the male and female categories, since they were less likely to respond no

difference to the original question. The converse was true for Group II, therefore fewer responses were included in the male-female categories.

One conclusion that might be drawn from these results is that, while the traditional sex role attitudes are still present to a large degree, there may well be a tendency developing to view sex roles less stereotypically and in a less deterministic fashion. One should note that in the above data there seems to be a tendency to view performance variables as less stereotyped. This would seem to be in agreement with the view that the sexes have equal potential, although previously this potential has been socialized into different performance and competence areas. (Bird, 1975)

In attempting to explain this trend away from the traditional ideas concerning sex roles, several factors have been enumerated as having had an influence on the changing view of the sexes, particularly on the status of women. (Bem and Bem, 1976; Osofsky and Osofsky, 1974; Udry, 1974) Certainly one of the more powerful influences on the changing view of sex roles has been the Women's Liberation Movement. This movement has focused national attention on the existence of sex discrimination in society. The views of the women's movement have found their way into books, magazines, newspapers and television. Their arguments concerning childhood socialization as the mechanism for the continuance of sex role stereotypes has had a profound influence on certain segments of the American population.

The important changes in the legal status of women have provided further equalization of men and women, attempting to abolish the legal

discrimination between men and women. Fair credit laws and consumer protection acts have provided increasing financial security of all women, but especially those women who are becoming less dependent on the traditional sex roles. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 has helped to defeat discrimination against women in jobs and wages. Under this act women are entitled to the same protection as a minority group.

Changing abortion laws have helped to remove the burden of unwanted pregnancy. And finally, the restructuring of the divorce laws in many states have increased women's options by allowing them to extricate themselves more readily and more humanely from an unsatisfying marital relationship.

All of the above factors have made it somewhat easier for women to become involved in a productive endeavor outside of the home, if they so choose. The number of working women has increased, and there is evidence that if a person's mother has worked, that person tends to have a less stereotyped view of women. (Vogel, et al., 1970) As more women enter the working ranks, it is likely that the attitudes of their peers and their family will change.

The increase in the lifespan of women also increases the amount of time that the average woman will spend without having children in the home. This, along with the influence of the ecology movement in limiting the number of children couples are having have caused some persons to question the practice of socializing women for only the maternal/family role.

The human potential movement has also had implications for the change in sex role attitudes. This movement has placed an emphasis on

individual happiness and potential, whether that individual is a male or a female, or old or young. Along with this movement has come the increase in alternate marital and family lifestyles (Sussman and Cogswell, 1972) and the so-called sexual revolution which presented society with a pluralism as never before in American society. These factors have affected the accepted definition of traditionally appropriate behavior, and, perhaps paved the way for broader changes, including that of sex role attitudes.

In terms of the myriad factors discussed above, it is obvious that America has reached a distinct point in its development, where the combined influence of several sociological factors which affect men's and women's roles. These changes have an effect not only on women, but also have implications for men, also.

While it is fairly easy to identify the broad social factors and patterns that may affect general attitudes toward sex roles, it is much more difficult to provide an explanation for the exact pattern of responses. In addition to the factors discussed above, the fact that the sample consisted of predominantly white, single, middle class college students. It seems reasonable to assume that these women would tend to have a more optimistic picture of the relative performance and abilities of women since they are in the process of developing their potential and abilities. It might also have been more likely that these women have received parental encouragement to develop their abilities.

The traits that the majority attributed to males both relate to the biologically based characteristics of males. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974)

found that the literature did support the hypothesis that males were more aggressive. It therefore appears that this stereotype does have it's basis in reality. The situation is the same for the characteristic of stronger sex drive which was attributed to males. McCary (1973) notes that males in their teens do have a very strong sex drive. Since the women in this sample are either in their teens or just out of their teens, they have had a recent or current exposure to the stronger sex drive of the young male. Also, the expression of male sexuality has traditionally been tolerated if not encouraged. These factors seem to support the stereotypical view of stronger male sex drive as based in reality.

The nurturant role has traditionally been assigned to females, and the nurturant and maternal roles are presently the role of a majority of women. It might not be surprising that a majority of women would still consider women as being the most nurturant and better at understanding children. Still, men are not socialized to baby sit for extra money, or to even show a great deal of interest in children.

The same is true when one considers the characteristics of emotionality and dependency. Women have traditionally been socialized to be dependent and emotional, and this belief among the women in this sample may relate to those characteristics that do exist in reality. Mussen, Conger and Kagen (1969) note that dependent behavior is socially more accepted in women, and that girls who are dependent as adolescents are more likely to remain dependent through the early adult years.

Jourard (1971) notes that the male is socialized to be strong and hide his feelings, while the females have been raised to express their

feelings. Without the fear of social disapproval for showing their feelings, this may result in an actual behavioral difference between men and women which is noted by the responses of the women in this sample.

CHAPTER V

Conclusions and Implications

The objective of this research was to study what relationship exists between attitudes toward love and attitudes toward sex role stereotypes. To meet this objective, existing classroom data provided the responses of 339 female undergraduate students to the Knox and Sporakowski (1968) Attitude Toward Love Scale (ATLS) and to a questionnaire which provided information on the respondents' attitudes toward sex role stereotypes. Two groups were selected from the original group. Group I consisted of those respondents whose score on the ATLS fell in the bottom one-third of the total distribution. This group's score was between 51 and 93, and the respondents were more romantic in their attitudes toward love. Group II consisted of those whose scores on the ATLS fell in the top one-third of the total distribution. The scores of this group ranged from 106 to 132. This group consisted of persons whose attitudes toward love are more realistic or conjugal. The N of Group I was 105, and the N of Group II was 119.

The questionnaire consisted of twenty personality or behavioral traits which form the common sex role stereotypes. The respondents were to indicate which sex they thought was most likely to exhibit the trait in question. The groups also had the option of indicating that no difference existed between the sexes in exhibiting the traits. Five

additional questions provided information concerning the respondents' experiences and preferences in their association with members of the opposite sex.

The results of the groups combined indicated a trend toward less stereotypical views about the traits of men and women, particularly those traits pertaining to ability and performance. Thirteen out of the twenty items were answered as no difference by a majority of the total sample (Group I and Group II combined). Six were indicated as being predominantly female traits and two were indicated as predominantly male traits.

The two traits which were indicated as male traits pertained to stronger sex drive and a greater amount of aggressiveness, both of which seem to have a biological basis. The traits attributed to women tended to relate to emotionality and to increased understanding of children, attitudes which may have some validity in the present behavior of women.

When the responses of the total group were surveyed after deleting the no difference category, a clear male-female distribution of traits resulted. Ten traits were assigned to males and ten to females. These traits formed the traditional sex role stereotypes of competence, logic, and rationality for males and expressiveness, emotionality and dependency for women.

When the responses of both groups were compared, a difference in responses was apparent. The responses of the two groups were significantly different on eight items. Additionally, the members of Group I were much more likely to answer in a stereotypic manner than were the members of Group II, who were more likely to answer no difference. The responses

between the groups were also statistically different on two items relating to the respondents' preferences in their actual association with the opposite sex. More members of Group I reported being happiest when submissive in a heterosexual relationship than did those in Group II.

When the responses to the no difference category were deleted the profile of answers to the items were similar between both groups and matched those of the group as a whole. However, Group I had at least twice as many responses in the stereotypic categories due to the greater likelihood of Group II to answer no difference to the original items.

These results indicate that while the traditional stereotypes are still plainly present there may be a tendency toward less stereotypical views of men and women, particularly of their performance and abilities, at least in the present sample of women. It also appears that women whose attitudes toward love are more conjugal or realistic are more likely to view men and women in less stereotypical ways.

Several cautions must be made clear concerning the interpretation of this data. The first is that the sample is by no means representative. It consisted of white, predominantly middle class female undergraduate students. Care must be exercised in extrapolating these results to other groups. As Kutner and Brogan (1974) noted, university students are less traditional in sex role orientation than the general population.

Secondly, this study measured sex role attitudes and not behavior. There is a frequently noted discrepancy between attitudes and behavior. (Osmond and Martin, 1976) Osmond and Martin go further in saying that it is entirely possible for the same person to endorse two conflicting

stereotypes, and that such attitudes are often poor predictors of behavior.

If, considering the forementioned caveats, the data are interpreted as above, these implications might follow:

(1) Compared to the earlier sex role studies (Neufeld, Langmeyer and Seeman, 1974; Rosenkrantz, Bee, Vogel and Broverman, 1968) this might indicate that there is an increasing tendency to view men and women less stereotypically. If this is an indicator of a trend in the general populace, it could mean that when attitudes begin to change actual behavior will begin to be less stereotypical. This is not to say that more traditional sex role concepts are bad or are not useful. Many persons have found satisfaction and fulfillment in the traditional role behaviors and people will continue to do so. It does mean, however, that a wider variety of behaviors will be available for both sexes. Persons will be able to choose their behaviors according to ability and personal preference rather than social dictates. People won't be restricted to any one preconceived notion of what is acceptable for one sex and not for the other.

This ultimate change will be far off. Many anxieties exist about the changes, and the ominous countenance of change itself will create resistance. The changes will affect both men and women, and it will be as much a benefit to man as woman. Males will ideally be able to discard the traditional notion that his personal worth varies with the power and prestige of his job. Women, too, will be able to find satisfaction in either home life or career or both. These changes will not be without their own difficulties, though. Just as the current sex roles provide

both fulfillment and frustration, so too will the "new" roles. (Bardwick, 1976)

(2) The second major implication concerns the concept of romantic love. If more realistic conceptions of love are correlated with more equalitarian views of sex role behaviors, this might mean that better choices will be made in the future concerning one's mate. This relates to what Kephart (1972) refers to as the "dysfunctional theory of love." This is the view that romantic love alone as a basis for mate selection often results in a poor mate choice. Some authors have used this argument to explain the increased rate of divorce and family dissolution. (Biegel, 1951)

Spanier (1972) comments on this concept in connection with his research in the area of marital adjustment. He found that no correlation existed between romanticism and postmarital adjustment. While there are certain methodological liabilities in Spanier's design, the conclusion seems to be supported by earlier research. (Dean, 1961; Hobart, 1958) Spanier concludes that romanticism is useful in the early part of the developing relationship, but later becomes less important. The problem concerning romanticism is due to the "inability of some individuals to separate romantic from the realistic as necessary in a real life marriage relationship." (1972, p. 486)

Therefore, as Udry (1974) noted, there may be a tendency for the average person to add other factors on top of love as the proper prerequisites for marriage. Thus, by combining the "emotionalism" of the romantic orientation with more rational measures of compatibility, one still operates within the "reward-motive" complex of Greenfield (1976).

However, one also would tend to make more realistic choices in mate selection due to the added criteria for mate selection.

Several areas related to this study exist which are open for further study. The majority of love and sex role research has been conducted using college students for subjects. It would seem that our knowledge could be advanced by utilizing non-student resources for sample groups. Males also need to be included in samples. Finally, more longitudinal studies need to be undertaken to study the development of attitudes toward love and if and how it varies according to the stages of the relationship. Sex roles also could vary according to the individual's developing maturity and experience, and would benefit from further study.

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APPENDIX A

ATTITUDES TOWARD LOVE

Please read each statement carefully and circle the number which you believe most adequately represents your opinion.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree (definitely yes) | 4. Mildly disagree (probably not) |
| 2. Mildly agree (I believe so) | 5. Strongly disagree (definitely not) |
| 3. Undecided (not sure) | |

	<u>SA</u>	<u>MA</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>MD</u>	<u>SD</u>
1. When you are really in love, you just aren't interested in anyone else.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Love doesn't make sense. It just is.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When you fall head-over-heels-in-love, it's sure to be the real thing.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Love isn't anything you can really study; it is too highly emotional to be subject to scientific observation.	1	2	3	4	5
5. To be in love with someone without marriage is a tragedy.	1	2	3	4	5
6. When love hits, you know it.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Common interests are really unimportant; as long as each of you is truly in love, you will adjust.	1	2	3	4	5
8. It doesn't matter if you marry after you have known your partner for only a short time as long as you know you are in love.	1	2	3	4	5
9. As long as two people love each other, the religious differences they have really do not matter.	1	2	3	4	5
10. You can love someone even though you do not like any of that person's friends.	1	2	3	4	5
11. When you are in love, you are usually in a daze.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Love at first sight is often the deepest and most enduring type of love.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Usually there are only one or two people in the world whom you could really love and could really be happy with.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Regardless of other factors, if you truly love another person, that is enough to marry that person.	1	2	3	4	5
15. It is necessary to be in love with the one you marry to be happy.	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>SA</u>	<u>MA</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>MD</u>	<u>SD</u>
16. When you are separated from the love partner, the rest of the world seems dull and unsatisfying.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Parents should not advise their children whom to date, they have forgotten what it is like to be in love.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Love is regarded as a primary motive for marriage, which is good.	1	2	3	4	5
19. When you love a person, you think of marrying that person.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Somewhere there is an ideal mate for most people. The problem is just finding that one.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Jealousy usually varies directly with love; that is, the more in love you are, the greater the tendency for you to become jealous.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Love is best described as an exciting thing rather than a calm thing.	1	2	3	4	5
23. There are probably only a few people that any one person can fall in love with.	1	2	3	4	5
24. When you are in love, your judgment is usually not too clear.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Love often comes but once in a lifetime.	1	2	3	4	5
26. You can't make yourself love someone; it just comes or it doesn't.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Differences in social class and religion are of small importance in selecting a marriage partner as compared with love.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Day dreaming usually comes along with being in love.	1	2	3	4	5
29. When you are in love, you don't have to ask yourself a bunch of questions about love; you will just know that you are in love.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

Rip Off #3
Section II

Name: _____ Date: _____

Student #: _____ Sex: M or F

Which sex: (Circle the correct answer)

Male Female No Difference

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|----|---|
| 1. | M | F | ND | 1. is better at understanding people? |
| 2. | M | F | ND | 2. is more gossipy? |
| 3. | M | F | ND | 3. has the stronger sex drive? |
| 4. | M | F | ND | 4. is more undependable? |
| 5. | M | F | ND | 5. is more logical? |
| 6. | M | F | ND | 6. is more emotional? |
| 7. | M | F | ND | 7. is better at understanding children? |
| 8. | M | F | ND | 8. is better in a crisis? |
| 9. | M | F | ND | 9. is more likely to be concerned with what others think? |
| 10. | M | F | ND | 10. is more romantic? |
| 11. | M | F | ND | 11. is better at managing money? |
| 12. | M | F | ND | 12. should have the final say in decisions? |
| 13. | M | F | ND | 13. is better at driving a car? |
| 14. | M | F | ND | 14. is more scheming and crafty? |
| 15. | M | F | ND | 15. is more jealous? |
| 16. | M | F | ND | 16. is more aggressive? |
| 17. | M | F | ND | 17. is more dependent? |
| 18. | M | F | ND | 18. is more punitive? |
| 19. | M | F | ND | 19. can form deeper interpersonal relationships? |
| 20. | M | F | ND | 20. is more intellectually curious? |

21. Which of the above differences do you believe are the results of socialization?

In my association with the other sex I have found that: (Circle the correct answer.)

25. Yes No I tend to be competitive with a person of the other sex.
26. Yes No I get along better when the male is definitely dominant and the female is submissive.
27. Yes No I am happier when I am submissive in the relationship.
28. Yes No I often feel pushed around by my date.
29. Yes No I like to date people who are as intelligent or more intelligent than I am.
30. Yes No I like to date people who let me make most of the decisions.

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ATTITUDES TOWARD LOVE AND ATTITUDES TOWARD

SEX ROLE STEREOTYPES

by

Michael Benjamin Brown

(ABSTRACT)

The relationship between attitudes toward love and attitudes toward sex role stereotypes was investigated. Two groups of female college students were selected from a data base according to scores on the Attitude Toward Love Scale (ATLS). Group I consisted of those whose scores on the ATLS indicated a more romantic attitude toward love, and Group II was composed of those whose attitudes toward love were more realistic or conjugal. Both groups responded to twenty-six questions concerning sex role stereotypes.

The combined responses of both groups indicated that the majority of the sample believed that no sex differences existed in specific performance areas probed. Differences between Group I and Group II were statistically significant on ten items. In all cases, Group I was most likely to indicate more stereotypical attitudes toward the behavior and traits of men and women, while Group II was more likely to indicate more equalitarian attitudes towards sex role behaviors and traits.

Substantial agreement existed between the two groups concerning two biologically based traits assigned to males (most aggressiveness and stronger sex drive. Six traits were assigned to women, relating to greater emotionality and expressivity.