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THE IMPACT OF MYTHS: GENDER ROLE STEREOTYPES AND GENDER
RELATIONS AMONG YOUNG ADULTS

by

Allison L. Sears

B.A.A., Ryerson Polytechnical Institute, 1983

THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS (CRIMINOLOGY)

in the School of
Criminology

Allison L. Sears 1988

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

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APPROVAL

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ABSTRACT

This study examines gender role stereotypes and gender relations, specifically the issue of dating abuse. The basis of the research is a survey of 252 college and university students. It was found that males generally hold more stereotyped views about women and sexuality than do females. However, stereotypes were evident in the answers of both males and females. In discussions of sex and sexuality, both sexes used vague and ambiguous terms, opening up the possibility of misinterpretations and misperceptions. One ultimate result of these misinterpretations, misunderstandings and incorrect expectations is conflict which can lead to abuse. This study supports previous work that argues that abuse occurs in dating situations among young people and that abuse is experienced by both males and females.

Gender role identity is an important element in the equation that produces abusive relationships. Existing theories on gender role acquisition were reviewed but most were found to be inadequate as they take one side of the nature/nurture debate, excluding the possibility of other influences. The model which is used in this research, however, takes into account both nature and nurture, discussing the impact of parents, the media and school on gender identity. This model also discusses how biology affects one's gender identity at different times in one's life.

School is a very important socialisation agent and would be the logical venue for a course dealing with perceptions of self, self-esteem, relationships, sexuality, and the influence of the media on gender role stereotypes. The most effective time for this course is likely to be adolescence, as this is the period in which young people attempt to define appropriate gender roles and find their place in society and among their peers.

People must be educated about the effects of gender role stereotypes on their expectations in relationships, as conflicting expectations are a major cause of abusive behaviour. It is also imperative that society focus on boys and girls simultaneously, in order to avoid the present dilemma - girls holding nontraditional views of gender roles while boys hold traditional views.

DEDICATION

For my Mother and Father

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the course of our lives we acquire a set of gender roles that we carry around with us as baggage. Unlike the literal baggage used in our real world travels, this metaphorical baggage is seldom lost. It colours our perceptions of ourselves and others and has an impact on our relationships. In personal or love relationships these gender roles can lead people to expect specific behaviour from their partner. If these expectations between couples conflict, there can be serious consequences, in the form of deviant and possibly criminal behaviour.

Discussions of marital abuse have acknowledged the relationship between gender role stereotyping and marital violence. Violence in dating, however, is a relatively new area of research and has been addressed in the journals only since 1981. James Makepeace first attempted, at that time, to find another explanation for marital abuse and suggested that courtship violence might be the missing link between familial violence and marital abuse. He suggested that dating violence could be seen as the training ground for spousal assault. Since 1981 several other studies have been conducted in the United States which support Makepeace's statements (Cate et al., 1983; Henton et al., 1983; Bernard et al., 1985; Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985).

The void of published research in Canada on this subject is disheartening. One would think that, given the preliminary findings of abusive relationships, Canadian researchers would be interested in studying this phenomenon in a Canadian context. This thesis was an attempt to fill this gap with some preliminary discussion of dating abuse and the main reasons for its existence.

Abuse in a relationship is more a result of interpersonal conflict than individual characteristics. As noted in Chapter 3, expectations regarding sexuality are one of the major causes of conflict. The expectations that people have for their partner are linked to the individual's gender role and their perception of the gender role of their partner. If one's partner does not act as she or he is expected to, conflict can result.

Before one begins a discussion of gender roles and their effect on interpersonal relationships, it is important to understand the term "gender" and distinguish it from the word "sex". Sex is a biological term consisting of two categories, male and female, that are differentiated by external and internal physical characteristics. In a discussion of procreation, one would talk about sex roles or sex differences (Atkinson, 1987).

Gender, on the other hand, it is socially defined. Femaleness and maleness are biological realities, whereas femininity and masculinity are cultural constructs attributed to females and males (Andersen, 1988). Gender roles are,

A set of organized expectancies for behaviors and activities that are considered to be appropriate and desirable for either males or females in a particular culture (Katz & Boswell, 1987: 106).

One's biological sex sets up gendered expectations. However, one's biological sex is not necessarily the same as one's gender identity. Most people tend to combine gender roles, a phenomenon which was found to be true in the present study, where the majority of respondents were, to some extent, androgynous. The literature suggests that there are three expressions of gender roles in each person. There is the gender role preference - what one would like to be; gender role adoption - how one behaves; and gender role identity - a combination of preference and adoption. It is possible for all three to be at odds within the individual. One's attitudes could indicate one gender role, while one's behaviour could indicate another (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Basow, 1986). The difference between attitude and behaviour has been noted elsewhere, in research on racist attitudes, where it has been determined that one's attitudes are not a good predictor of behaviour (Morgan, 1987).

In order to understand gender roles and their impact, it is first necessary to understand how they are acquired. An entire chapter has been devoted to this, as the theories of gender role acquisition are complex and could not be discussed in a mere aside within the context of another discussion. Therefore, although these theories are not the focus of the thesis, they are an integral part and will be addressed in Chapter 2.

All the theories presented in Chapter 2 seem to represent one of the sides in the nature/nurture debate, and all are found inadequate to deal with the complex process of gender role acquisition. The idea that gender roles are learned in childhood and implemented, unchanged, in adulthood, has been questioned in the literature. It is now suggested that gender roles and one's gender role orientation change relative to the stages in life, although there is no universal pattern (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Atkinson, 1987; Ganong & Coleman, 1987; Katz & Boswell, 1987).

The research related to how one acquires one's gender role orientation is discussed in Chapter 3. Presented in this chapter is a model developed by Phyllis Katz (1979), which seems to be the most comprehensive model of gender role acquisition. This model suggests various socialisation agents or sources of influence in a person's life relative to their stage in their lifespan. These sources of influence include parents, media, school environment and biology.

One difficulty with many of the theories of gender role acquisition is their reliance on biology as an explanation of gender differences. These biological explanations inevitably lead to conclusions that support the status quo and often, simultaneously, discourage changes that would lead to equality between women and men. As a consequence, some social scientists have concluded that biology does not play a critical role in the acquisition of gender roles. Instead they have looked to society as the source of gender learning.

The model presented by Katz seems to represent the middle ground. While acknowledging the role that biology may play at several key times in a person's lifetime, it allows the sources of influence to shift in importance, relative to each other. The various sources of influence will be discussed in the context of the literature on each. Chapter 3 will conclude with a discussion of dating abuse including several studies that discuss the relationship between gender role stereotypes and expectations, as well as the incidence of dating violence.

The survey, which forms the basis of this research, will be described in Chapter 4. The definitions that were used in previous research on the various forms of dating abuse are also provided and the sample population will be described. Chapter 5 will be a discussion of the findings of the survey, relative to some of the research reviewed in Chapter 3. The focus will be on stereotypic views held by the respondents, their perceptions of dating and the incidence of abuse in their relationships. The final chapter will discuss conclusions from the findings in Chapter 5 and suggest implications for the future.

CHAPTER II

BIRTH OF THE MYTHS: GENDER ROLE ACQUISITION

Some social scientists suggest that there are no innate sex-based behaviours, and that all actions and beliefs are based on the socialisation of males and females to masculine and feminine roles in society. Not all social scientists would agree with this position, such is the essence of the Nature/Nurture debate. The debate exists between those who see biological forces as relatively more important in the development of sex differences (Nature), and those who view socialisation, learning and environment (Nurture) as relatively more important (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Sargent, 1977; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Other social scientists suggest that this debate is obsolete and call for a mixed approach to the understanding of gender identity and behaviour (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Jansen-Smith, 1980; Greenglass, 1982; Katz & Boswell, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). They feel that there is a necessity for a comprehensive approach to the study of gender roles; one that is not time specific but which assesses the role of socialisation and biology at different times in a lifespan.

This chapter will give a general description of some of the theories of gender role acquisition thus enabling a better understanding of different viewpoints in this discussion of gender roles. The theories that shall be addressed are:

1. Psychoanalytic Theory;

2. Sociobiology;
3. Social Learning Theory;
4. Cognitive Developmental Theory/Model;
5. Gender Schema Theory; and
6. Feminist Theory;

Psychoanalytic Theory

Sigmund Freud was the first psychologist to openly question the way in which males and females became masculine and feminine (Bem, 1984). Freud's work emphasised the importance of the anatomy in sex differences. In his view anatomy was destiny and the conclusion was that sex typing was inevitable (Frieze et al., 1978; Bem, 1984; Salamon & Robinson, 1987) ¹.

Freud's theory of the development of personality, which had been based on men, subsequently was applied to women. The basis of his theory of the development of the female personality is his theory on the development of the male personality. Here is a situation where theories about men are applied to females and females are found to be lacking (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Frieze et al., 1978; Greenglass, 1982). In Freud's theory, a child's identification with the same sex parent is the primary way in which the child becomes sex-typed. This identification is a result of the discovery of genital sex differences between men and women (Sargent, 1977; Stockard, 1980; Greenglass, 1982; Bem,

¹Freud's theory is extremely complex and a detailed discussion is beyond the scope of this work. Therefore, this will be only a general overview.

1984). At first the development of boys and girls is the same, they pass through the oral and anal stages of development in the same manner. It is not until they have reached about four years of age, when they are going through what Freud calls, the phallic stage, that their development processes diverge because, according to Freud, they become interested in their genitals.

Until this point the mother is the chief love object for both sexes. In the phallic stage the boy becomes fascinated with his penis and fantasizes about possessing his mother sexually. The father, then, becomes the enemy. This phenomenon is termed the Oedipal complex, after the Greek myth of Oedipus who, not having discovered their familial relationship, killed his father and married his mother. Girls, during the phallic stage, experience penis envy as a result of their discovery that they do not have a penis and, therefore, are different from boys. They believe the mother is to be blamed for this and shift their affection to the father. According to Freud, girls fantasise about having sex with their father. At the root of Freud's theory about female personality development is his belief that women are inferior beings (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Sargent, 1977; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Stockard, 1980; Greenglass, 1982).

The outcome of this phallic stage is that boys, fearing that their father might find out about their feelings for their mother and retaliate, experience castration anxiety. This, Freud feels, is essential for the development of the male gender

identity. The boy then represses his sexual desires for his mother and identifies with his father, thus acquiring a masculine gender identity. This experience is termed "defensive identification" or "identification with the aggressor" (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Greenglass, 1982; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

For girls, the desire to have a penis is replaced by the desire to have a baby. This reinforces her original identification with her mother because to get a baby from her father, she must become more like her mother. Freud views this as an incomplete process relative to the development of boys. Women, he states, are left feeling inferior and jealous, because they do not have a penis, they are also left with strong maternal desires because of their strong urge to have a baby, especially a male child, who would replace the penis they lost (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Sargent, 1977; Stockard, 1980; Greenglass, 1982).

The normal female, according to Freud, possesses a triad of elements: passivity, masochism, and narcissism (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Mackie, 1983; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). The woman is passive because it is through ~~having~~ a child that she can acquire a penis. Females were also presumed to be passive during sexual intercourse, assertiveness and ambition being seen as masculine traits and therefore inappropriate for females (Mackie, 1983; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Females are perceived to be masochistic because of Freud's idea that menstruation, "Defloration" (sex), and childbirth are painful experiences and to wish to go through these experiences is masochistic. He saw female sexuality as accepting, if not seeking out pain. This pain, however, is not self-destructive as women also possess the characteristic of narcissism. Freud suggested that women remain childlike in some ways, being self-loving and selfish (Mackie, 1983; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

A major difficulty with Freudian theory is that it is largely undefendable through empirical study, because much of it deals with the unconscious urges of men and women. A further problem with his theory of child personality development is that it was formulated using adults who were seeking therapy. Thus the theory did not question children about their experiences; it only used recollections of childhood. As well, it has been suggested that Freud's theory is only applicable to disturbed individuals, therefore calling into question the validity or suitability of his sample (Frieze et al., 1978; Stockard, 1980; Greenglass, 1982; Mackie, 1983; Basow, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Other critics suggest that Freud is simply a product of the Victorian society in which he lived, and that his patients, mostly women, were simply dissatisfied with the constraints of the Victorian era which assumed and enforced differences between men and women (Frieze et al., 1978; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews,

1979; Mackie, 1983). Therefore, what Freud saw as a problem in early childhood development may have been just rebellious attitudes and behaviours toward a patriarchal father or husband. Perhaps he should have looked for a more readily visible cause of neurosis rather than delving into the unconscious (Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979). The psychoanalytic approach, it would seem is a akin to "treating food poisoning by exploring early eating habits" (Mackie, 1983: 74).

Despite the problems with Freud's theory, his emphasis on early childhood experiences did stimulate research on child-rearing practices, including cross-cultural practices (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Freize et al., 1978; Stockard, 1980; Mackie, 1983).

Sociobiology

Sociobiology is a biologically determined interpretation of sex differences, first proposed by E.O. Wilson in his 1975 publication Sociobiology: The New Synthesis. This work drew a great deal of criticism causing Wilson to reconsider his work and write another book, in 1978, entitled The Nature of Man, in which he watered down many of his initial assertions (Jansen-Smith, 1980). Until this time sociologists had ignored, for the most part, or even denied, the powerful influences of biological factors on behaviour (Mackie, 1983). The method of analysis of the sociobiologist is evolutionary. This is an extension of the Darwinian theory of natural selection in which

all animals act so as to maximize the survival of their genes. Sociobiologists assess the "universality" of specific behaviours using cross-cultural analysis to find "cultural universals". These behaviours, such as the division of labour by sex, are seen as genetic. They suggest that certain behaviours maximize reproductive success and these social behaviours are thus encoded into the human genotype and are, therefore, inevitable. The basis for the sociobiological data and principles is the behaviour of lower animals. These principles are then extrapolated to humans. After "universals" are found in humans, sociobiologists then look to strengthen their arguments by searching for similar behaviour among human primates (Jansen-Smith, 1980; Mackie, 1983).

Some critics of Sociobiology suggest that the Sociobiologists' arguments

are tautological and serve political and ideological purposes: it is pointless, impossible and potentially self-defeating to attempt to change any of the present social arrangements between the sexes if they have evolved through natural selection. (Salamon & Robinson, 1987:20)

Sociobiologists suggest that women's traditional role as the main care-giver for children is biologically determined. They make this statement based on the notion that women are more committed to their babies. From conception on, the woman gives more to the foetus than does a man as it is, essentially, a parasite within the mother. Sociobiologists suggest that, after the initial involvement of the father at conception, he has no other "parental investment". The "parental investment" of the

mother, however, is so great it would be "evolutionary insanity" to allow another person to care for the child once it is born (Jansen-Smith, 1980; Mackie, 1983; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). The sociobiologist would conclude, then, that sex-linked differences are functional for the evolution of human beings (Mackie, 1983).

The primary difficulty with sociobiology is the same as Freudian Psychoanalytic theory. It is difficult to subject a theory that uses discussion of the things which happened "eons" ago and a generalisation from animals to humans to empirical testing. What Wilson has done, it seems, is move to the other extreme, away from sociology which ignores biological factors to an approach which ignores social learning.

Some critics of sociobiology focus on the basic assumption of this theory, which is that behaviour that has some genetic component is adaptive. They suggest that behavioural traits are not necessarily genetically nor biologically determined just because a behavioural trait is adaptive (Mackie, 1983). This assumption seems to suggest that any behaviour which survives is necessarily good. This incurs the criticism that sociobiology is "notoriously androcentric" (male centred) and that it is a "convenient rationalization for perpetuating the status quo" (Stockard, 1980; Jansen-Smith, 1980; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). It has been suggested that

The sociobiologist's belief that the greater aggression and dominance of males is a result of sexual selection and is controlled by the genes. Therefore men are genetically dominant and women are genetically

subordinate, and the subordinate status of women will have to continue because it is genetic. (Salamon & Robinson, 1987: 20)

The implications for social policy are clear. If one accepts the status quo then it is futile to support social programmes, the goal of which is to ameliorate the position of women in society (Mackie, 1983).

By restating age-old claims that human nature is fixed and unchangeable, and that efforts to ameliorate so-called woes by changing the social environment are doomed to fail, sociobiology gives aid and comfort to supporters of the status quo. (Salamon & Robinson, 1987:21)

The conclusion of a sociobiological outlook would be that attempts to go against "natural law" would be futile (Jansen-Smith, 1980; Mackie, 1983).

Social Learning Theory

Social Learning Theory, unlike the two previous theories discussed, looks at external rather than internal forces that lead children to imitate behaviours. The external factors include, parents and other adults, as well as school and television. Therefore, an emotional bond is not necessary for the child to imitate the model, thus differing from the Freudian theory of personality development (Frieze et al., 1978; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1978; Mackie, 1983; Basow, 1986).

There are three processes by which children learn behaviour:

1. Direct Reinforcement;
2. Imitation; and

3. Observation. (Greenglass, 1982; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Direct reinforcement is the rewarding of sex appropriate behaviour or punishing of sex inappropriate behaviour. Operant conditioning is a major mechanism of the social learning theory; there is a specific stimulus for a correct, in this case sex appropriate, response.

Imitation is learning by copying the actions of others. Children tend to imitate the same sex parent or adults and thus are able to pick up some of the more subtle nuances of gender differences (Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Through imitation children seek to maximize their reward and thus they separate behaviours that will bring reward from those that will bring punishment and acquire the appropriate gender roles. Children monitor themselves in anticipation of reward or punishment (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Sargent, 1977; Frieze et al., 1978; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Greenglass, 1982; Basow, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Observation, the final process in social learning theory, is learning through observing, even though the information may not be used until later. It is not clear, however, whether children pay more attention to models of the same sex. In fact, some research would tend to suggest that this is not so and that children's behaviour is fairly random, with regard to the gender of the model (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Greenglass, 1982; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Unlike Freudian analysis, the role of the parents in gender role development of the child in Social Learning Theory is significantly decreased, as there is no need for an emotional bond between the model and the child. Although their importance is decreased, the parents can and do reinforce sex appropriate behaviour through rewards and punishment as well as through the provision of clothing and toys. Research has shown that parents treat boys and girls differently by providing differential rewards for exhibiting the same behaviour (Frieze et al., 1978; Salamon & Robinson 1987). Some of the research suggests that it is the fathers who encourage gender appropriate behaviour rather than the mothers, although this is not a consistent finding (Stockard, 1980; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

One important influence parents have on a child is through the process of giving the child direction. This process begins as soon as the baby is born. In the hospital babies are given blue nameplates if they are boys and pink nameplates if they are girls. As soon as family and friends find out the sex of the baby the presents begin to arrive, for girls everything is pink and for boys everything is blue. Only a few brave souls send the opposite. The toys tend to be sex typed as well, manipulative toys for boys, dolls and other passive toys for girls. The importance of the environment must be emphasised.

If a child's environment is structured so that sex appropriate toy choices are much more probable, then the likelihood of being reinforced for sex-appropriate choices increases accordingly. (Frieze et al., 1978: 108)

If a girl is only given dolls and stuffed animals with which to play, then, upon being given a choice of a doll or a train, she will tend to choose the doll. She cannot receive reinforcement for playing with the train because she is not exposed to one. Thus parents need not punish their children for sex-inappropriate choices, they need only limit the child's exposure to toys to sex-appropriate ones (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Frieze et al., 1978; Stockard, 1980; Greenglass, 1982; Mackie, 1983). Although the example used here is of a girl, it is worth noting that boys have been found to adopt gender stereotyped roles more readily than girls (Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Stockard, 1980; Basow, 1986).

A general criticism of social learning theory is that sex-typed behaviour is learned far too quickly and is far too pervasive to be a gradual shaping process (Mackie, 1983). Reinforcements may be powerful shapers of behaviour and may have an impact on the acquisition of specific gender role appropriate behaviour. However, empirical research shows a wide range of results making the interpretation difficult. It seems that modeling may be both a result of gender role identity as well as a cause of subsequent gender role learning (Basow, 1986).

Cognitive Developmental Theory

This theory was formalized by Lawrence Kohlberg in the 1960's, based on the theory of development posited by Jean Piaget. Piaget saw children as having a different cognitive

organisation than adults and argued that this organisation changes over time (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Greenglass, 1982). The basic assumption of Kohlberg's theory is that all humans require a sense of gender identity in order to function.

For the gender role development of the child, the process stems from the need to make sense of their cognitive environment. The way in which children do this is to categorise the world into that which is masculine and that which is feminine. Gender is used as the basis for categorisation because, according to the cognitive developmentalist, a child's thinking is physical and concrete. As well, the child has developed a concept of gender constancy, the understanding that one's gender is a permanent part of one's identity (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Sargent, 1977; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Stockard, 1980; Greenglass, 1982; Mackie, 1983; Basow, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

The process begins with sex labelling, learning the words "boy" and "girl". By the age of two or three children know their own label. For cognitive developmentalists, the motivation for learning gender roles is internal and, although there is some use of reinforcement, it is the realisation, "I am a boy" or "I am a girl" that causes the child to develop an interest in the implications of sex differences. The child then uses the sex differences as an organiser in judgements about attitudes and actions (Sargent, 1977; Stockard, 1980; Basow, 1986).

This theory assumes that the child is an active participant in the development of his or her gender identity. There are three stages in the Cognitive Developmental Theory:

1. -The child realises that the world can be categorised into two elements: male and female. Gender, then, is used to categorise the world;
2. The child perceives the same sex model/person as being similar and therefore attaches more value to people, attitudes and behaviours of the same sex. There is, therefore conformity to gender roles before there is any reinforcement; and
3. The final step has children valuing the activities of the same sex and coming to identify with the same sex. Identification, then, comes after achieving a gender identity. Unlike Freudian theorists, cognitive developmentalists view identification as a positive internal process. (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Sargent, 1977; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Greenglass, 1982; Basow, 1986)

The process of gender role socialisation in the Cognitive Development Theory is a process of "self-socialisation". Gender role learning is an active process that is primarily self motivated. The gender roles are adopted and performed by children on the basis of knowledge of what is appropriate behaviour and an attempt to match their behaviour with these guidelines (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Frieze et al., 1978; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Stockard, 1980; Mackie, 1983; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

As with Freudian analysis, it is suggested that the cognitive developmental theory is yet another androcentric theory that sees women as lacking in some way. Kohlberg developed this model for men and applied it to women. Therefore, his discussion of women's development is not always clear (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Greenglass, 1982). An example of this weakness is the idea that children value and identify with same sex models. Men are seen as having greater prestige than women and therefore the developmental process is supposed to be easier for men than for women (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Mackie, 1983; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). It must also be noted that the rate of cognitive growth is not uniform for all children and therefore rate of growth will also affect gender role learning (Mackie, 1983; Basow, 1986).

One major criticism of this approach that is not noted often, is the assumption that it is the child's wish to categorise by gender without any discussion of the basis for this statement. The implicit assumption here is that sex differences are natural and inevitable and therefore become more perceptually salient to children than any other type of difference (Bem, 1984). Why does the child not use age or race, both of which are physical characteristics? The answer seems to be that society has a propensity for using sex as the great divider, the child perceives this, and uses it as well. It is questionable whether this assumption has cross-cultural validity. Sandra Bem suggests that in some cultures social status may be more important a categoriser than sex, an example

being the caste to which one belongs in India (Bem, 1984).

Gender Schema Theory

This theory was published by Sandra Bem in 1983. A schema is a general framework of knowledge that a person has about a specific topic. In the case of gender schema, it is the network of associations that guide a person's perceptions with regard to gender. A gender schema acts as an anticipatory structure which allows the individual to assimilate incoming information within the schema in terms that are relevant. With regard to child's gender role development, children evaluate the world and themselves - their adequacy as a person - according to their gender schema (Bem, 1984; Basow, 1986).

The motivational factor for this theory is personal self-esteem; the child is motivated to conform to society's rules. This theory differentiates "masculine" males from other males and "feminine" females from other females, and suggests that a person's gender schema is very important in determining one's self-concept and is adhered to closely (Basow, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Bem places the blame for sex typed behaviour and limitations squarely on the shoulders of society. She suggests that, if society placed less emphasis on gender dichotomy and were to limit the "associative network" linked to sex, then it would be less likely for children to become gender schematic (Bem, 1984).

Bem (1984) says that sex-typing comes from the child encoding and organising information using the culture's definitions of maleness and femaleness, and therefore the process is mediated by the child's own cognitive processes. She concludes that sex-typing is a learned behaviour and therefore it is neither inevitable nor unmodifiable, as some of the theories have suggested (Basow, 1986). However, Salamon and Robinson have suggested that gender schema may make the individual "an unwitting victim of his or her own 'enslavement' within the social parameters of a 'gender-appropriate' schema" (1987: 26).

Feminist Theory

Feminist theory arose as a reaction to the perceived limitations of mainstream sociological theories, methodologies, and findings, which focused on men to the exclusion of women. Sociological theory cast women into an invisible role (Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Alison Jaggar and Paula Rothenberg Struhl, in their book Feminist Frameworks (1978), set out four frameworks for Feminist theories: 1. Liberal; 2. Marxist; 3. Radical; and 4. Socialist. An additional framework has been added to this list in the past decade, the Cultural Feminist framework (Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Jaggar and Struhl state that,

A successful feminist theory must provide us with the conceptual tools for describing our experiences as women and men in the world today, including experiences of which we may hardly be aware before encountering the theory. (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978: xi)

The purpose of a feminist theory is to pinpoint the source of women's oppression and strive to liberate women from the oppressive forces. Jaggar and Struhl, however, do not see liberation as an end state, but rather as a continual process.

Although all the following theories are categorised as "Feminist", they each start from a different point of view or theoretical orientation, but they are each based on the premise that women are not evaluated similarly in society. The most striking differences are in their respective solutions (Salamon & Robinson, 1987). The distinguishing differential among the five theories is their assessment of the root cause of the restrictions that are placed on women's ability to determine their lives.

Liberal Feminism

This is the most moderate of the feminist theories. Liberal feminists suggest that women are less valued in society in terms of social rewards. The reason for this is that they are discriminated against insofar as opportunities made available to them in general and specifically in education. They assert that the psychological differences between women and men are learned and not inherent nor inherited (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978).

Their theory has been referred to as the "market theory" because they believe that men and women should be able to rise in society according to their talents not their sex. The liberal feminist is not, however, committed to denying that some innate

inequalities may exist, but they are more concerned with the current inequalities (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978). They are also not concerned with the inequalities that exist among same sex individuals relating to power, prestige and property. They focus on eliminating sexual, rather than other forms of oppression (Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Liberal feminists view the roots of women's oppression as their lack of civil rights and educational opportunities. They do not assess this oppression in an historical context, the causes are easily seen and therefore easily fixed (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978). These theorists are seen as moderate because they do not propose radical changes to the existing bases of society. Rather they would like to see a redistribution of individuals by sex, within existing economic institutions.

Marxist Feminism

The Marxist feminist views the cause of women's oppression as capitalist society. In an historical sense, the marxists suggest that it was the introduction of private property that brought about women's oppression, because it was the men who owned the property and instituted the class system (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). This approach argues that,

the economic institutions...determine the nature of all other institutions and that one's place within the economic institution determines one's relationship to all other aspects of social life. (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978: 28)

This theory states that the unequal status of women is analogous to that of any other disadvantaged group in society. They perceive all inequalities to have an economic basis. Sexism is a secondary phenomenon, a symptom of a much more fundamental oppression (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Since the root of all oppression is the economic structure of society, the only way in which women can be liberated is for there to be a socialist revolution. Once the class system has disappeared, prejudice against women would necessarily disappear.

The main problem with this approach is the nature of the solution - a socialist revolution. It is not clear whether women must wait for this revolution for any changes or if there are to be some incremental steps towards equality in the meantime. The marxist theorists have ignored any other factors as potential causes of women's oppression and often do not address the inequalities that exist in other economic systems.

Radical Feminism

The difference between radical feminism and other theories of feminism, is the idea that the oppression of women is fundamental. They differ from the marxists because they see sexism as universal, occurring in all economic systems (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Jaggar and Struhl set out five interpretations of this basic idea:

1. That women were, historically, the first oppressed group;
2. That women's oppression is the most widespread,

- existing in virtually every known society;
3. That women's oppression is the deepest in that it is the hardest to eradicate and cannot be removed by other social changes such as the abolition of class society;
 4. That women's oppression causes the most suffering to its victims, qualitatively as well as quantitatively, although this suffering may go unrecognized because of the sexist prejudices of both the oppressor and the victims; and
 5. That women's oppression, ...provides a conceptual model for understanding all other forms of oppression. (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978: 84)

The basis of the radical feminist's ideas is the notion of Patriarchy, the system of thought that supports the idea of male superiority and female inferiority and which justifies the domination of women by men. This notion of patriarchy pervades the socialisation process, causing differences in women and men to appear (Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

The problem with radical feminist theory is that there is no cohesive statement concerning the root causes nor the solution to women's oppression. Some radical feminists believe that the root cause of oppression is biological - women bear children and must depend on men for their physical survival - and therefore there is a need for a biological revolution whereby a way can be found to bear children outside the woman's womb. This way women can be liberated from the limitations of their bodies. (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978; Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Other radical feminists would suggest that the only way to fight sexism is to become lesbians. They see lesbianism not just as a personal preference but as a political statement in a political struggle (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978). The ultimate goal of

radical feminists is to eliminate biological sex as a basis for social actions and responses (Salamon & Robinson, 1987).

Socialist Feminism

Socialist feminists combine both the Marxist and Radical feminist theories. They believe that it is the economic and political system of society combined with the ideology of patriarchy that leads to the oppression of women (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978; Salamon & Robinson, 1987). Socialist feminists perceive sexism to be as fundamental as economic oppression. They emphasise that capitalism and sexism reinforce each other and attempt to demonstrate the inseparability of the two.

Socialist feminists analyse the role that certain cultural institutions play in the oppression of women. They do this within the context of society, employing a fundamentally marxist method. In discussing the class system, they reject the idea that women in different societies are experiencing oppression. They perceive class struggle and sexism as occurring simultaneously, and therefore, they say that they must be fought simultaneously (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978).

Cultural Feminism

Cultural feminism is an offshoot of radical feminism. This theory suggests that the root of the oppression of women is the oppression of female experiences and values. Cultural feminists assert that women's experiences are qualitatively and quantitatively different from men's experiences.

They suggest that the only way that women can be liberated is to acknowledge the differences of experiences of the sexes and to nurture and rehabilitate female values and experiences so that, ultimately, they will supercede the dominant patriarchal value system. The goal of cultural feminists is to construct an alternative female consciousness, not to eliminate the differences between women and men. Herein lies the major difference between the other feminist theories and cultural feminism. Whereas the other theories would seek to eliminate any sex based differences between men and women, the cultural feminist seeks to nurture these differences as they believe that women's experiences are better than men's experiences (Jaggar & Struhl, 1978).

Summary

After reviewing all the theories presented in this chapter, it seems that no one theory provides an adequate or complete analysis of the very complex process of gender role acquisition. If one were to use a specific theory as a way of seeing this process then one would be eliminating some factors and thereby not seeing alternative explanations for behaviours. It would seem, then, that a hybrid of theories would be the most effective.

The question remains, however, what are the relative roles of the various factors involved in the gender role acquisition process? There are many elements that would seem to have an

impact and it would be difficult to decide which has the most influence: biology, socialisation, or economic system.

The idea that "anatomy is destiny" is ultimately empirically unsupportable. This assertion implies that the differences stemming from the biological differences between women and men are natural, inevitable and unchangeable. Humans, however, are adaptive creatures. As our physical structure adapted to standing on two legs instead of four, so too, physical differences between the sexes may change. As Jaggar and Struhl (1978) have pointed out, there are many things that occur in nature that are not desirable and that can be altered through human intervention.

Viewing the class system or economic structure in society as the root cause of women's oppression is effective only if one assumes that sexism is a secondary form of oppression, second to class oppression. This way of seeing sexism precludes the possibility of it existing in other economic systems, ie. socialist or communist societies. This analysis is, however, not adequate, in itself, to explain the acquisition of gender roles.

It would seem that gender roles are internalised through gender role socialisation (Sharpe, 1980; Tudiver, 1980). The study of gender role socialisation cannot be limited to a study of how children learn to be boys and girls. This is a very important part of the process, however, socialisation is also a process that continues from childhood, through adolescence and adulthood. The sphere of influence would necessarily be very

large and include: the family (specifically the parents); peer groups; media (most important of which is television); and school.

A review of the literature reveals yet another view on gender role acquisition. This model, developed by Phyllis Katz in 1979, takes an interdisciplinary approach to this process and includes, as a very important factor, the element of time. She suggests that socialisation into masculine and feminine roles is not a process unique to childhood; it carries on throughout one's life. In Chapter 3 this model will be examined with reference to literature discussing the relative impact of various sources of influence.

CHAPTER III

MYTHS AND REALITY: CAN WE TELL THE DIFFERENCE?

Gender Role Socialisation

Perceptions of gender roles and expectations of gender based behaviour affect one's self concept and one's view of others. Research has found that, at ages as early as two years, children have learned traditional gender role stereotypes. By the ages of six to seven children are able to label traits as either stereotypically masculine or feminine with the same accuracy as adults (Urberg, 1982; Katz & Boswell, 1986). This differentiation of women and men on the basis of stereotypes alone could have an impact on one's interpersonal relationships, specifically one's romantic relationships.

It is not the purpose of this thesis to assess the validity or the appropriateness of the model that was developed by Katz, but to discuss the various sources of influence identified in her model. Therefore, the review of the literature, in this chapter, will discuss the socialisation agents one encounters in one's lifetime; the changes in perceptions of stereotypes as identified in several longitudinal studies; some characteristics of romantic attraction and dating; and abuse experienced in dating relationships.

In a discussion of the various theories of gender role acquisition, Katz and Boswell (1986) identify three basic

assumptions upon which most of the theories are based. First is the assumption that

there is a well defined and consistent body of information that is necessary to transmit to children so that they can define themselves psychologically as male or female. (1986 : 106)

This assumption has been challenged by recent changes in the socio-political nature of society as well as by the changes in the conceptualisation of adult gender roles. The inability to deal with the variability of gender roles over a life span has serious ramifications for those who do not conform to the norms of these roles.

The second assumption is that parents are the most important socialisation agents for the child. Recent studies show that there are other very important influences in a child's life, other than their parents and that these influences should be integrated into the theories of gender role acquisition (Katz & Boswell, 1986).

The third assumption identified by Katz and Boswell (1986) is that the focus of the gender role acquisition process should be the first five years of the child's life, therefore, the process is complete before the child enters school. Despite the fact that most research on gender role acquisition has been carried out using preschool children, research has shown that gender roles develop and change across the life span (Katz & Boswell, 1986).

The relative importance of any specific influence changes over one's life span as one changes physically and emotionally. Katz (1979) developed a model that sets out the impact of the various influences at different stages in one's life. Table 1 presents the model developed by Katz to explain the development and changes in gender role orientation over one's lifetime. She has broken the lifespan into three levels in order to better explain the different levels of maturity. Level 1 consists of the child learning appropriate gender roles. This is the time from birth to 12 years of age. During this time the most important influences in a child's life are the parents, from birth to 6 years, and the same sex peers, from 6 years to 12 years. This is the time for children to understand who they are and what their culture says it is to be male or female.

This first level is broken down into 3 stages, in the first two the parents and family as the most influential socialisation agents. In the third stage, from 6 to 12 years of age, the emphasis shifts away from the parents to same sex peers, followed by television and books.

The second level Katz refers to as "Learning about adult roles". This is the period between 12 and 19 when adolescents begin to change physically and emotionally. This is the stage during which the major development for young people is the initiation and maintenance of relationships with the opposite sex. Much of their time is spent thinking about their relationships and these are given a very high priority (Fabes,

TABLE GOES HERE!!!!!!

1983). It would seem logical, then, that the major sphere of influence would shift again.

This is the first of three times in the life cycle that one could suggest that biology is playing a major part in the changes occurring in a person's gender role orientation and self concept. Girls are adjusting to the onset of menstruation and boys are adjusting to an understanding of their ability to ejaculate and other more overt and often embarrassing physical changes such as the deepening of their voice.

Other major influences at this time, according to the model, would be same sex peers and the media. Katz suggests that television is a major influence, although research has shown that adolescence is not a time of heavy television watching (Singer & Singer, 1987; Morgan, 1987). One influence that is absent at this point in the model is magazines. There are many magazines that are geared to teenagers such as Seventeen or Miss Chatelaine that could have a very strong impact on gender role perceptions in early adolescence, especially for girls.

During late adolescence, the years from 16 to 19 years, Katz shows another shift in the order of importance of the sources of influence. Here she suggests that peers of the same or opposite sex have the most impact on gender role orientation, the media is second and parents are third. This is the time when young people may start experimenting with sexual behaviour and possibly sexual intercourse. The present research found that, by the age of 19, 90% of the respondents had engaged in some form

of sexual activity and 70% had engaged in sexual intercourse.

The next level occurs when people start enacting adult roles, they get married, some have families, they have careers and ultimately retire from these careers. Katz has broken this level into 3 stages, young adulthood, ages 20-35, middle adulthood, ages 35-50, and late adulthood. Young adulthood is the time when people usually find a partner and establish a long term relationship. This is also a time for children and all that that entails. During this time, Katz suggests that the most important source of influence is one's peers. This, however, may not be entirely correct, for those who are married as, once married, one's greatest influence is generally one's spouse. Therefore, instead of seeing the sources of influence as peers, then spouse, as in Katz's model, it may be a better proposition to have these two influences varying during third stage.

Other changes that could be made to this model for this stage relate to the differences between the tasks for men and women in relation to parenting. For woman, there are pregnancy, childbirth and breastfeeding. For men the only tasks Katz suggests is "fathering". This does not take into account some very real and very important issues in a man's life at this time. When a woman is pregnant she goes through some very significant changes, both physically and emotionally and these changes can have a very strong impact on her partner. As well, most men are now participating in childbirth, a process which many find to be a moving experience that can have a great impact

on their self concept.

There are also men who feel threatened by the new child. Having a baby is a major change in couple's lives and the child can be seen as coming between the woman and man (Panter & Linde, 1976). For some men seeing their wives breastfeeding can cause some difficulty as their wife's breasts were previously sexual objects that were exclusively their "domain", now they are used for a very different purpose (Lewis, 1982) It would seem then, that, although fathering lasts for the child's lifetime, pregnancy, childbirth and breastfeeding can have an important impact on men's conception of themselves vis-a-vis their gender role orientation and therefore should be included as a task for males.

One very important influence on women during this time would be biology. This is the second time in one's lifespan that one could suggest that biology would have a role in one's gender role orientation. The various hormonal changes that occur during and just after pregnancy have a very strong impact on one's self concept.

Since the development of this model in 1979, there have been changes in the roles that men and women have taken in the rearing of their children (Lewis Newsom & Newsom, 1982; Richards, 1982; White, Woollett & Lyon, 1982) These changes need to be reflected in the model. Therefore, the provisos after "child care" in the list of tasks for women and men, "primary responsibility" and "secondary responsibility", should be

eliminated.

The second stage in level three is middle adulthood. The important elements in one's life at this time are one's marriage relationship, children leaving home, career beginnings and changes and the recognition of the loss of one's youth. Katz suggests that the sources of influence, at this time, are spouse, peers and media, in that order.

The only additions or changes that might be suggested here are the addition of "contemplation of career change" to the female list of tasks. Again because the model was developed in 1979, it does not fully take into account the continued increase in the participation of women in the workforce (Statistics Canada, 1985). Therefore, it is not sufficient to have career mentioned as an aside in the fourth task for females. Women are as likely to be contemplating a change in their careers at this time as are men.

One of the facts of aging that is intrinsically linked to one's self concept is the physical and sexual realities of one's age. For women this means dealing with menopause and for men it means dealing with declining sexual potency. Although Katz puts this in the late adulthood stage, the age does not match, as most women have gone through menopause before they reach the age of 50. This is the last time that one could suggest that biology plays a role in one's self concept. Again, hormonal changes causing physical changes may cause emotional stress for some women. This stress may cause changes in one's gender role

orientation.

The last stage in the lifespan is late adulthood, over 50 years of age. During this time men and women deal with their feelings about aging, retirement, grandparenting, and their own and their partner's mortality. Katz identifies the spouse, peers, children and the media as the sources of influence, in that order.

The various sources of influence that Katz and Boswell discuss have been addressed by other researchers. These are influences such as: parents, family and peers (Tudiver, 1980; Katz & Boswell, 1986); media (Emihovich and Gaier, 1983; Hudson, 1984; McRobbie, 1984; Sharpe, 1980; Walkerdine, 1984) ; and the educational system (Hudson, 1984; Sharpe, 1980; Wood, 1984). There has been some very important research on these sources of influence which needs to be addressed in order to understand just how they work.

Socialisation Agents

Family Influences

Parents have a great impact on the socialisation of their children, as it is through the parents that society's expectations about the appropriate behaviour are transmitted (Greenglass, 1982). The child looks to the parent for physical and emotional nurturing and therefore the parents are able to control and modify the child's behaviour through approval for

appropriate behaviour and disapproval for inappropriate behaviour. Parents also serve as role models for children and therefore, through their attitudes, personalities and childrearing practices, they are able to influence a child's gender role orientation. According to Katz's model, the most important time for parental influences is in the first six years of a child's life.

Stereotyping seems to begin as soon as a child is born. In a study done by Rubin, Proenzano and Lurra (1974), 30 first time parents were interviewed within 24 hours of their child being born. Although, referring to the medical records, there was no health or physical measure on which the infants differed, the parents seemed to note marked differences. Parents of girls said their babies were little, beautiful, delicate, weak and resembling their mothers. Parents of boys said their babies were firmer, better coordinated, more alert, stronger and hardier (Greenglass, 1982; Basow, 1986; Andersen, 1988). The last adjective, "hardier", is especially interesting as the opposite is, in fact, true. Baby girls are more resistant to disease than are baby boys, and yet the parents persist in the stereotypical view that boys are stronger (Greenglass, 1982; Andersen, 1988).

During infancy, the research has shown that there is no real difference in the treatment of babies by the parents. Parents seem willing to play more roughly with their sons than their daughters, however, perceiving their sons as sturdier and more able to withstand rough treatment (Greenglass, 1982; Basow,

1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987; Andersen, 1988).

One way in which the parents can control the child's behaviour is through the environment in which the child is raised, specifically the child's room and the toys made available to them. Most of the child's early life is spent in play activity and the toys they have will have an important impact on their behaviour and how they feel about themselves. Boys are generally given active toys such as trains and construction sets, toys that encourage activity *outside of the home*. Girls, however, are given more passive toys such as dolls and tea sets, toys that encourage activity *within the home* (Greenglass, 1982; Basow, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987; Andersen, 1988).

In general, research has found that girls are socialised to be nurturant and obedient and boys are socialised to be self reliant and to achieve (Broverman et al., 1972; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1979; Block, 1984; Basow, 1986). It has been found that parents are more likely to encourage boys towards masculinity than to encourage girls towards femininity. Boys, therefore, experience more intense socialisation than do girls and they are under a great deal of pressure to behave in a gender appropriate manner. To this end they receive more punishment, praise and attention in general than do girls (Greenglass, 1982; Brooks-Gunn & Matthews, 1978; Block, 1984; Basow, 1986; Salamon & Robinson, 1987; Andersen, 1988). Andersen (1988) suggests that the basis for this intense socialisation of

males is homophobia. She says that the fear of being seen as homosexual and the fear that one's male children would be seen as being homosexual causes some parents to go to the other extreme to ensure that their sons are "masculine".

Much of the research on gender role acquisition and stereotyping has attempted to discover a causal link between a specific socialising agent and sex typed behaviour. The limitation of much of this work is that the researchers may have tended to focus on one measure of sex typing. Katz and Boswell (1986) carried out a study using 14 measures, 3 for parents and 11 for children. They found that there were differences among measures used and therefore they concluded that gender role orientation would be better conceptualised in terms of a multidimensional view rather than the unidimensional, masculine-feminine, model that most theories use (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Katz & Boswell, 1986). This study confirmed the conclusions of other authors that one's attitudes do not necessarily reflect one's behaviour nor is one consistent across the different aspects in one's life (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Basow, 1986; Atkinson, 1987; Morgan, 1987).

A child might, for example, be quite flexible about activity preferences but be very traditional in occupation choices. These results make the use of a single measure such as toy preferences very questionable... (Katz & Boswell, 1986:140).

An interesting discussion, when assessing the impact of the family on socialisation is to be derived from noting the differences, if any, between mothers and fathers. If fathers

have internalised the masculine stereotype it would seem logical that they would have difficulty developing a warm, spontaneous and close relationship with their children. The masculine stereotype hides their tender feelings towards children and they are thought to be inept around them (Fasteau, 1976). These stereotypes have surfaced in several recent movies such as Three Men and A Cradle and Mr. Mom. Some research has found that fathers perpetuate stereotypical behaviour more so than mothers (Langlois & Downs, 1980, Basow, 1986), although other research findings have stated just the opposite (Katz & Boswell, 1986).

Much of the recent research on the impact of the mother on socialisation has focused on the effects on children, specifically daughters, of maternal employment outside the home. The research has found that daughters of working mothers tended to have higher career aspirations and perceive smaller differences between men and women than did daughters of homemakers (Broverman et al., 1972; Urberg, 1982; Hertsgaard & Light, 1984; Weeks, Wise & Duncan, 1984; Jensen & Borges, 1986; Gardner & LaBreque, 1986).

The model being addressed here is one that looks at a person's lifespan and assesses the changes in gender role orientation throughout. Rather than being unidirectional, limited to looking at how adults, specifically parents, affect children and adolescents, it will also look at how children affect the parents. Changes in one's life situation will cause changes in one's self concept and one of the most significant

changes in a person's life is having children. Ganong and Coleman (1987) conducted a study to assess the impact of children on the gender roles of their parents. They found that, in general, couples who are parents are more sex typed than nonparent couples. They looked at how the sex of the child would affect the parents and found that fathers who have sons only are significantly less feminine than fathers of daughters only. Mothers who have sons only, are significantly more feminine than those mothers who have daughters only.

It would appear, then, that sons have a different impact on parents than do daughters, but this effect seems to be limited to the feminine side of the self concept. Ganong and Coleman (1987) suggest that sons have a "traditionalising" effect on parents as parents seem more concerned with the gender role socialisation of the sons than the daughters. Sons, it is thought, need rigidly defined role models and, therefore, the father must become clearly masculine and the mother must become clearly feminine.

In many cases it has been found that parents do have an impact on the gender roles of their children and that some parental behaviour can be used to predict a child's behaviour. However, research has been unable to consistently predict sex differences, which attests to the fluidity with which women and men deal with society (Hyde & Rosenberg, 1976; Basow, 1986; Katz & Boswell, 1986; Atkinson, 1987; Ganong & Coleman, 1987; Salamon & Robinson, 1987; Andersen, 1988). It is important, therefore,

to look at the impact of other socialisation agents who will influence people at various times in their lives.

Media and Literature

The media has a very important impact on children's perceptions of the world. Research has found that, by the time children have reached the age 16, they will have spent more hours watching television than in the classroom (Greenglass, 1982; Basow, 1986; Singer & Singer, 1987; Andersen, 1988). Television has been shown to increase restlessness and aggressive behaviour, increase fearfulness and suspicion of the world, decrease imaginativeness and playfulness and be the cause of various cognitive limitations (Singer & Singer, 1987). If television has these sorts of serious effects on children, researchers feel it must certainly have an impact on gender role stereotypes. To this end studies have been done to test the hypothesis that there is a causal link between the amount of television watched and gender role stereotypes. Singer and Singer (1987) found that, by grade 5 (10 years old), heavy television watchers showed traditional gender stereotypes, a finding that has been supported in other work (Greenglass, 1982; Emihovich & Gaier, 1983; Morgan, 1987; Wroblewski & Huston, 1987; Andersen, 1988).

One important finding is the viewing patterns of children, prior to 1980. It was found that weekly television viewing increased through middle childhood but early and mid-adolescence were times of decreased interest. This has changed since the

introduction of music television and the expansion of the cable networks (Singer & Singer, 1987), although there does not seem to be a consensus as to the amount of television adolescents watch, relative to other age groups (Morgan, 1987; Wrobleski & Huston, 1987).

Television is a great source of gender role stereotypes in general and specifically stereotypes related to occupations (Greenglass, 1982; Basow, 1986, Morgan, 1987; Wrobleski & Huston, 1987). Although it is known that television presents messages about gender roles there is not a great deal known about the social consequences of exposure to these images specifically related to an adolescent's self concept, vis-a-vis their gender role (Morgan, 1987).

Content analyses have shown that women are underrepresented in television by a ratio of 5:1, when compared to men. This underrepresentation suggests that the number and types of roles women play are narrow and limited (Basow, 1986; Morgan, 1987). Generally there has been a heavy bias toward showing males in high status jobs while women are in low status, traditionally female jobs or were unemployed (Wrobleski & Huston, 1987). Now the television networks are beginning to allow some counterstereotyped occupational portrayals by women, examples of which are, St. Elsewhere, L.A. Law and The Cosby Show. Research has found that counterstereotyped portrayals can influence the attitudes and aspirations of children (Basow, 1986; Wrobleski & Huston, 1987). In general girls are less gender stereotyped than

are boys and may be more open to, or tolerant of counterstereotypes. This has a great deal to do with the intense and rigid socialisation boys experience in childhood as discussed in the previous section on family influences. Boys, then, would be harder to reach as they perceive, quite correctly, that the male role is more valued in society and, therefore, they do not have the motivation to alter their behaviour or attitudes (Basow, 1986; Wroblecki & Huston, 1987). Continued use of counterstereotypes can have a positive influence. As has been found through longitudinal studies, television viewing can predict gender stereotyping one year later (Wroblecki & Huston, 1987). These counterstereotypes are usually portrayals of women. There has been no evidence of a corresponding change in the portrayals of men, which would seem the next logical step (Wroblecki & Huston, 1987).

The influence of music, specifically rock music on young people has been the topic of heated debate and recent congressional hearings in the United States. In this discussion, however, it is important to differentiate between the songs on their own and the videos made from these songs. Studies have found that only one third of any sample of adolescents was able to articulate the meaning of popular music lyrics. Another study found that 37% of preteens and teenagers did not know what their favourite songs were about. If rock music lyrics are to have an effect it would seem that they must first be understood (Greenfield et al., 1987).

Greenfield et al. (1987) carried out three studies dealing with rock music, one dealing with rock lyrics and the other two dealing with rock videos. In the first study, the sample consisted of grades 4, 8, 12 and college students. They listened to songs then were asked questions about the words. They found that younger children were more concrete and literal in their understanding of lyrics while college students were more abstract and metaphorical. They also found that where knowledge and experience were limited, so too was the interpretation of the lyrics. In general, then, the adult organisations seeking to censor would interpret songs in terms of sex, violence, drugs and satanism more frequently than would young people. They found that adolescents interpret songs in terms of themes of "love, friendship, growing up, life's struggles, having fun, cars, religion" and other topics related to teen life (Greenfield et al., 1987). Therefore, the assumptions that teens will interpret the lyrics, and that there is but one interpretation, are both incorrect.

The second and third studies done by Greenfield et al. looked at videos and their impact on young people. Songs generally elicit associations and memories that will recur whenever the person hears that song. Videos, however, present one image of a song that is, in effect, "played back" by the person whenever they hear that song (Greenfield et al., 1987). The video seemed to draw the attention away from the audio toward the visual stimuli, therefore the content of the video could have a significant impact on perceptions of gender roles

and violence. It has also been suggested that the content of many rock videos is misogynous in nature (Basow, 1986). It would seem, then, that the groups that seek to censor or restrict music should look to videos instead of lyrics, as their impact is much more immediate.

The media helps children to internalise gender roles. There is a tendency, in the media and literature, to gloss over the realities of being female in favour of romanticising life and promoting the myths that surround marriage and motherhood (Sharpe, 1980). Some of the British literature focuses on girl's comics which tell girls that they can triumph, as the heroine does, only through selflessness. The solution to the heroine's problems in the comics is a man. The focus is how to get one, not on the relationship. If you lose one man you work to get a new one, rather than assess what was wrong with the relationship (Walkerdine, 1984).

School Environment

One very influential socialising agent is the educational system. Schools are a mirror of society and help to reproduce it, they are places where students play out acquired and anticipatory gender roles (Wolpe, 1974; Russell, 1979-80; Clarricoates, 1981; Grumet, 1981). The curriculum is compatible with the values, goals and lifestyle of the dominant group which is described as white, middle-class and male (Saario, Jacklin & Tittle, 1973; Wolpe, 1974; McRobbie, 1978; Ayim, 1979; Scott, 1980; Sharpe, 1980; Connell & Dowsett, 1981; Henricksen, 1981;

Halpern, 1985).

Children enter school with some stereotypes and school, instead of being an enlarging and enlightening experience, reinforces and maintains these stereotypes (Delamont, 1980; Scott, 1980; Bernstein, 1982). The number of activities acceptable for girls is limited, the resources available for them is limited, and women are shown only in the context of their relationship to men in readers and other course materials (Saario, Jacklin & Tittle, 1973; Delamont, 1980; Bernstein, 1982). The British literature discusses the separation of boys and girls from which a rivalry grows such that they never act as a cohesive group (Delamont, 1980; Clarricoates, 1981). For example, using sex as a means for defining teams for competition helps to set up this type of rivalry.

Some of the literature discusses the influence of teachers and other professionals on students. There is the potential for students, coming into contact with sexist attitudes and assumptions from these individuals, to internalise and accept these attitudes and assumptions (Hargreaves, 1978; Eichler, 1979-80; Delamont, 1980; Payne, 1980; Scott, 1980; Connell & Dowsett, 1981; Clarricoates, 1981; Kahn & Richardson, 1983; Hudson, 1984).

Schools promote the fantasy for girls that a man will take care of her, and teach girls to remain available for marriage. They gloss over the realities of being female in favour of romanticising life and love (Wolpe, 1974; Russell, 1979-80;

Delamont, 1980; Payne, 1980; McRobbie 1984). Girls are taught to be good but not too good or they may not get a boy, and thus girls begin in their teens to fear success (Delamont, 1980; Bernstein, 1982; McRobbie, 1984).

Educational research, until recently, was limited for the same reason as research on socialisation, gender was not an area of consideration. Research was done using boys and applied to girls or girls were ignored completely (Llewellyn, 1980; Clarricoates, 1981).

One area of education that is of great importance when discussing gender role socialisation especially in the context of abuse in dating, is sex and sexuality education. Although it is felt that the primary responsibility for teaching sexuality is with the parents so that sex education is taught along side moral and values education, parents do not feel adequately prepared for this task (Jacknik et al., 1984). Despite the wish to have this education in the home it has been found that other sources of influence such as television or friends are more powerful than parents or the school (Strouse and Fabes, 1985).

One of the difficulties in teaching sexuality is its definition, defining what is to be taught (Wilson, 1978; McCabe, 1984; Wood, 1984). Should a course in sex education simply be concerned with anatomy, contraceptive use, sexually transmitted diseases? Or should it include a discussion of relationships, sexual and other forms of abuse and sexual responsibility? Research has found that knowledge of contraceptives alone does

not ensure their use. An important factor in the decision to use contraceptives is the adolescent's self-image. For example, McCormick, Folcik and Izzo (1985) noted that high sex guilt students failed to use contraceptives, while low sex-guilt students tended to start using contraceptives soon after beginning to have sex. Recommendations for courses dealing with sexual abuse and sexually transmitted diseases were also put forth in the Badgley Report (Badgley, 1984). Knowledge about contraceptives and the sense of responsibility and confidence that can be cultivated in a sex education course could increase an adolescent's feelings of power and control over their lives that are too often taken away through gender role stereotypes (Johnson & Black, 1981; Simmons & Parsons, 1983).

Prior to the fall of 1987, the Province of British Columbia did not have a policy regarding sex education in the schools. Each school board was allowed to teach what they thought was needed. The policy of the Vancouver School Board did not outline what should be taught nor the relative emphasis of topics, it was mainly a discussion of parental involvement and the need for parental consent in order for students to participate in the programme. The only mention of what might be taught was a statement saying that the topic of birth control could be discussed if it was requested by the students. The school board left it up to the individual schools to decide what they would teach, resulting in unequal and inconsistent teaching of sex education.

In 1987 the provincial government, mostly in response to an outcry for A.I.D.S. education, formulated a new curriculum called Family Life Education. It was put into the schools in the fall of 1987 in grades 7 through 12. At present, there are two courses, one for grades 7-9 and one for grades 10-12. The curriculum will continue to be developed over the next three years until there is a separate course for each grade.

The course covers a range of topics from social interaction and dating to A.I.D.S. and other sexually transmitted diseases. Most of the lessons are mandatory, however, those which discuss birth control and unwanted pregnancies are optional (Ministry of Education, Province of British Columbia, 1987c).

This course is a good general overview, however, there are many instances in which the information in the videos provided by the Ministry of Education and in the Teacher Resource Modules raise more questions that are not answered in the materials. One can only hope that teachers deal with these questions in the context of class discussions.

Changes in Perceptions

It has been suggested that the women's movement should have had a positive impact on gender role stereotypes such that if one were to compare stereotypes from 20-30 years ago one would notice a move away from traditional gender role stereotypes (this, however, has not been proven). There is still a strong

tendency to view women as less capable than men for work outside the home (Ditkoff, 1979; Kalin et al., 1980), while still being held responsible for most household tasks (Hansen & Darling, 1985). There have been some longitudinal studies of gender role stereotypes that have found some change over the past few decades but the changes have not been as significant as expected. The only significant change was in girls self concept (Broverman et al., 1972; Ditkoff, 1979; Hansen & Darling, 1985; Werner & LaRussa, 1985; Lewin & Tragos, 1987; McBroom, 1987).

Werner and LaRussa (1985) replicated a study done in 1957 to check the changes over time of stereotyped attitudes towards women. Werner and LaRussa (1985) found that females in their study, which was done in 1978, had a more favourable view of women and a less favourable view of men than did their 1957 counterparts. They were given a list of descriptives such as, adventurous, poised, neurotic, boastful, rattlebrained and sociable. The respondents were then asked to ascribe them to men and women. Of the descriptives dropped from 1957, those for men were favourable and those for women were unfavourable. They noted, however, that despite the women's movement, there has been no substantial change in perceptions.

Attraction and Dating

These traditional views of masculine men and feminine women create certain expectations that, when not met, can cause conflicts between dating couples. One of the traditional views,

that women are more romantic than are men, has been challenged in the literature. Rubin, Peplau and Hill (1981) carried out a study to test the hypothesis that women are more romantic and fall in love easier than men. They found that men have a more romantic view of male-female relationships, this finding was supported in later research (Hatfield, 1986). Men had higher scores on measures of romanticism than did women. Rubin et al. (1981) suggest that a man can afford to be more romantic than a woman. A woman must be cautious, practical and realistic in choosing a partner as, in many cases, they must accept the man's economic and social life for their own (Rubin et al., 1981; Basow, 1986). They assert that a woman is not just choosing a partner, she is choosing a way of life.

This ability of men to be more idealistic than women seems to be reflected in their views of which characteristics are the most important in a partner. Jeffery Nevid (1984) conducted a study of how males and females ranked, in order of importance, physical, demographic and personal qualities in choosing a romantic partner. He found that men ranked physical characteristics as more important than did women (this is supported in Basow, 1986), women emphasised personal qualities such as interpersonal warmth, dynamic and charismatic appeal. This seems to conform to the stereotyped belief that men look for women who are physically attractive, before other qualities. However the popular notion that women look for financial security was not supported in this study.

One of the problems discussed in the literature is the consequent pressure one might feel if one's behaviour did not match the standards society had set. There is the possibility that, by accepting the stereotypes put forth in society, pressure is put on others to act in that way, thus perpetuating the stereotypes (Pyke, 1980; Davidson, 1981; Basow, 1986).

If one expects someone to act in a certain way one may misconstrue their behaviour to fit the expectations. Antonia Abbey has done some work recently, looking at the misperceptions of a person's behaviour by the opposite sex. Abbey's first study was done to test the hypothesis that friendliness from a member of the opposite sex might be misperceived as a sign of sexual interest. In previous research it had been found that acquaintance or date rape had frequently been the result of misunderstood intentions (Abbey, 1982), and Abbey was attempting to find a reason why these misperceptions occurred.

Abbey's first study (1982) found that men are more likely to perceive the world in sexual terms and to make sexual judgements than are women. Male and female observers were asked to use general trait terms to describe male and female actors in specific interactions. These terms ranged from "flirtatiousness" to "promiscuous" and "seductive". Males rated the female actors as being more promiscuous and seductive than females did. Males said they were more sexually attracted to their research partners than their partners were to them. Male observers rated the female actors as more sexually attracted to and willing to

date their partners than female observers did. From these results Abbey asserts that the only sex differences in perceptions were with the unmistakably sexual terms and men do tend to read sexual intent into friendly behaviour (Abbey, 1982). The second piece of research done by Abbey and Melby (1986) shows similar results.

Differential expectations and perceptions between the sexes can cause a great deal of strain such that two people in a relationship have been referred to as "intimate strangers"; they are close physically but not mentally or emotionally (Basow, 1986). The conflict created by the strain in the relationship could lead to deviant and possibly criminal behaviour.

Abuse in Dating

Until the early eighties documentation of abuse in dating relationships was sparse. The study of relationship abuse focussed on abuse in the family and abuse in marriage, specifically, wife battering. It was not until James Makepeace, a sociologist at the College of St. Benedict/St. John in Minnesota, carried out a study of courtship violence among college students, that attention was really focussed in this area (Billingham, 1987; Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985; Roscoe & Benaske, 1985; Makepeace, 1981; Cate et al., 1982).

In his seminal work, Makepeace asked the respondents about direct personal experience and about violence experienced by

people they knew personally. Most of the respondents (61.5%), had personally known someone who had experienced courtship violence and 21.2% had experienced violence themselves. Of those who had experienced violence, 64% had experienced it on one occasion only.

The type of violence experienced varied from a threat of violence (8.4%) to being assaulted with a weapon or choked. The largest percentages were those who had been slapped (12.9%) and pushed (13.9%). The extreme forms of abuse, being struck with an object (3.5%), being assaulted with a weapon (1.0%) and being choked (1.5%), show relatively small percentages. However, on a university campus with 11,000 students, the results suggested would mean that about 660 students are experiencing some extreme form of violence. Therefore, by extending the figures to a larger population, one begins to see the magnitude and the seriousness of the problem. Makepeace makes the statement that it is a hidden social problem as only 5.1% of the cases notified the authorities. Since this study, Makepeace has carried out two more studies, both confirming his original findings (Makepeace, 1983; 1986; 1987).

Makepeace's third study had a sample size of 2,338 college students from 7 different colleges in the United States. In this study 16.7% had experienced courtship violence. It has been found previously, that females are the recipients of violent behaviour more than are males (Badgley, 1984; Roscoe & Callahan, 1985), this was supported in this study. Makepeace found that

20.6% of females had experienced courtship violence while only 12.0% of the males had experienced it.

Since 1981, Makepeace's findings have been supported in other research. In 1982 Cate et al., found that 22.3% (N=355) reported experiencing abuse at some time in their present relationship, and in 1985, Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs found that 33% (N=325) had been in abusive relationships.

One interesting finding, which has been supported in subsequent studies, is that abuse is reciprocal (Makepeace, 1981; 1986; Cate et al., 1982; Henton et al. , 1983). This by no means suggests that the abuse sustained by men and women is equal. Makepeace found that males more often sustain lower level violence such as thrown objects, pushing, slapping, kicking, biting, and punching, while females sustained higher level abuse such as being struck with an object or being beaten up.

Another sex difference in the findings was the perception of sexual abuse. When asked why they had been abused, 24.4% of the women and 3.1% of the men said it was for sex. As for the outcome of the abuse, 23.6% of the women felt that forced sex had occurred but only 4% of the self-reported assailants reported that forced sex had occurred. This comparison was made using a sample made up of individuals who may not be dating each other. The results would have a slightly different meaning if the sample was made up of dating couples.

Attempts to locate Canadian research on abusive relationships has been disheartening; only two studies have been found. One consisted of 12 case studies which were used as the basis for a discussion paper on dating violence for the Battered Women's Support Services in Vancouver (Lewis, 1987). The other is an exploratory study of girlfriend abuse carried out in high schools in a large metropolitan area in central Canada. This study found that of the 304 respondents, 11% of the females had experienced physical abuse; 17% had experienced verbal abuse; and 20% had experienced sexual abuse. Of the males in the study; 15.4% said that they had physically abused their girlfriend; 13% said they had verbally abused their girlfriend; and 12% said they had sexually abused their girlfriend (Mercer, 1987). This study did not make any statements about abuse precipitated by females.

Abuse in any level of relationship is a result of conflict which arises from differing expectations. One of the possible causes of conflict in relationships that has been identified in the literature is conflict between traditional and non-traditional sex role expectations (Bernard et al., 1985; Finn, 1986; Makepeace, 1987). Bernard, Bernard and Bernard (1985) found that those who had been in violent relationships tended to hold traditional views of gender roles and also viewed violence in intimate relationships as an acceptable form of behaviour.

This finding was supported by Finn (1986) who found that as gender role attitudes became more egalitarian, attitudes legitimizing abuse decreased. It was found that gender role orientation was the strongest predictor of attitudes supporting violence in intimate relationships. Bernard et al. (1985) suggest that women who are not sex typed "feminine", may threaten the abusive male who is excessively concerned with his masculinity. It has been suggested in the literature that, as a result of the women's movement, there is a "gender gap", that may increase the amount of abuse in relationships as men will not readily give up their gender role stereotypes (Bernard et al., 1985; Finn, 1986).

Sex and sexuality expectations are another potential source of conflict suggested by the literature (Knox & Wilson, 1981; Makepeace, 1981; Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985). Knox and Wilson (1981) found that, among college students, there were discrepancies as to the timing of sexual behaviour. Kissing on the first date was thought to be acceptable by 70% of the men but only 50% of the women felt that it was appropriate. With regard to petting; 75% felt that it should be delayed until after the fourth date; but, only 33% of the men felt the same. Questions about the timing of sexual intercourse revealed a similar disparity between men and women; by the fifth date, 50% of the men felt sexual intercourse was appropriate, while only 25% of the women thought it was appropriate. These discrepancies were evident to both the men and women, as less than 15% of both said that their partners shared their feelings about the timing

of sexual behaviour (Knox & Wilson, 1981).

In a study done by Lane and Gwartney-Gibbs (1985), they found that sexuality was a very important source of conflict for couples. When asked if they had ever said things that they did not mean in order for them to have sexual intercourse, 22% of the males, but only 2.5% of females said that they had. As victims of unwanted sexual attention, 25% of females and 8% of males said that they had been pressured, threatened or forced to have sexual intercourse (Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985).

From this discussion, then, it would seem that the focus of study should be the couple rather than the individual, as dating violence seems to be based on situational and interpersonal factors rather than simply a result of individual characteristics (Henton et al., 1983; Lloyd, 1987; Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985; Gwartney-Gibbs, Stockard & Bohmer, 1987; Makepeace, 1987).

There has been a great deal of research on abuse in marital relationships. Much of this research has attempted to find a reason for this abuse by looking at abuse in one's family of origin and assessing the impact of exposure to violent behaviour on the acceptance of violence as a viable form of self-expression in intimate relationships. What has been passed over in much of the research is abuse in dating relationships. Makepeace, in his discussion of courtship abuse (1981; 1983; 1986; and 1987) suggests that this may be the missing link between familial violence and marital violence. This finding has

been supported in other studies (Roscoe & Benaske, 1985; Gwartney-Gibbs, Stockard & Bohmer, 1987).

Summary

The incidence of abuse found in the literature ranges from 21.2% (Makepeace, 1981) to 33% (Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985) indicating a very serious social problem. Evidence from the research cited here points to abuse caused by disparities in expectations between dating couples. Although the root causes of these disparities are not conclusively known, the literature suggests that gender role orientation can be a very strong predictor of violent behaviour.

From the review of the literature it would seem that, in order to have a greater understanding of dating abuse, one must look at the interaction between the individuals in the couple. Therefore, although one must consider the gender role orientation of each individual and the gender role stereotypes they espouse, in many cases it appears that the dynamics of the relationship cause the reciprocal abuse noted in the research.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

As noted to this point, a study of the relationship between gender role stereotyping and gender relations incorporates a wide range of topics. In reviewing the literature, a great deal of information was found on the subjects that make up this area of study, but none seemed to acknowledge fully the myriad of factors linking the two foci. It was necessary, therefore, to find some way of studying these areas as one. A questionnaire was chosen as the medium for obtaining information because it was seen as the most efficient way of accessing a sample adequate to serve the purposes of this inquiry.

It was decided that, although interviews would be a useful follow-up tool, there was a danger, given the nature of some of the questions, that people may be intimidated by an interviewer. Some of the questions, such as those asking about experiences of sexual abuse, are quite personal and private and the response rate to those questions might well be lessened if the subjects felt any sort of judgement was being made by the interviewer. Despite this concern a request was made for those who would be willing to discuss any abusive situations, as the abused or abuser, with the survey team. A male and female interviewer was made available for these follow-up interviews. However, no one responded to the request.

The Sample

The objective in choosing a sample was to find one large enough to facilitate statements about a broader population. The target group of the study was young adults and one of the most practical ways of obtaining a large and accessible number of these subjects was through the public school system. As high school is a basic requirement for all young adults, it was felt that this would be the best way to access the target population. At first, attempts were made to survey high school students in the Vancouver and Toronto areas. However both school boards felt that such a study was beyond their terms of reference and therefore, another avenue had to be found.

It was decided that modifying the target sample by approaching subjects from another educational level, namely college and university, would also provide a good sample. First year college and university students were chosen for the sample. These subjects were seen as close enough in age to the initial target population. Three classes of first year college ($n=101$) and two first year university classes ($n=151$) were used.

The use of post-secondary educational institutions as the source for the sample may raise concerns about the generalisability of the results, as with most studies using similar populations. However, these are not seen as problematic. The average age for students in first year university is about 19, as the age at which one leaves high school, in this

province, is about 18. The age of first year students should, therefore, be 19-20.

The survey was carried out in September, 1986; 265 questionnaires were returned of which 252 were deemed "unspoiled". The remaining 13 were viewed as unuseable for reasons of sexual orientation of the respondent or because of a substantial lack of responses to the questions asked.

Questionnaire Design

In formulating the questionnaire a broad range of topics was addressed. The questionnaire was broken down into three parts. Part A and C were answered by all respondents, Part B was answered only by those respondents who had had a boy or girlfriend in the previous six months. The questionnaire asked general questions about the person first, then their attitudes and expectations, their dating experiences and ended with more questions about their views on a variety of topics. It was structured in this manner in order to have non-threatening questions at the beginning and at the end so the respondents did not finish the survey feeling uncomfortable about the experience.

There were six categories of questions:

1. Personality Characteristics;
2. Attitudes - towards Women and Men, Dating and Sex;
3. Family Background;

4. Sexual Experiences;
5. Abuse in Their Relationships - Verbal, Physical and Sexual;
and
6. Cultural Influences.

PART A

The objective of the questions in Part A was to find out about the respondents, their personality and views on gender relations, which included views about women, men and sex. Responses to the scaled questions would indicate the degree to which these views were stereotypical. These questions were to be used to assess the relationship between stereotyped views and relationship experiences. There were also questions about the respondents' family relations, how parents related to the respondent and to each other and how respondents related to their siblings. Part A also contained questions about sexual experiences and the use of birth control, as well as questions that were aimed at assessing the respondents' ideas of morality.

Personality Characteristics

An important base from which to assess or to which one could relate attitudes is one's self-perception. Twenty-two characteristics were selected and placed in a scaled question for which the person was to circle the appropriate number on the scale to match their personality. For example:

| | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|------------|
| Very | | | | | | Not at all |
| Emotional | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Emotional |

This type of question has been used in much of the literature on human relationships to assess one's masculinity or femininity (Broverman et al., 1972; Bem, 1974 ; 1977; Pyke, 1980; Walkerdine, 1984). The purpose of this question was to use these characteristics to establish a masculinity/femininity index varying between one and five, where one is very feminine and five is very masculine. This index was then going to be used in assessing attitudes towards men and women, sex and dating.

There are also questions about the career the respondents would like to have and what they think they will be doing in 20 years. These two questions were designed to assess the differences, if any, between their dreams and their reality, and to assess the differences between males and females to see if women have really been socialised to be wives and mothers and to see if their real expectations limit their dreams, as suggested in some of the literature (McRobbie, 1978; 1984; Sharpe, 1980; Hudson, 1984; Walkerdine, 1984).

Family Background

There is one scaled and several open-ended questions on this subject which were taken from various literature discussions of the effects of family on a person's self-perception and attitudes (Sharpe, 1980; Tudiver, 1980). One of the objectives of this form of inquiry was to note any abusive situations that might possibly sow the seeds for abuse in present or future relationships.

Attitudes

There are three topics discussed under this heading, attitudes towards: Women and Men; Dating; and Sex. In assessing the respondents attitudes towards women and men, several questions were used, some scaled and some open-ended. An example of a scaled question is:

By nature, women are better at taking care of the home and children than are men.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| strongly agree | agree | mildly agree | mildly disagree | disagree | strongly disagree | don't know |

This question is based on the assumption, seen in the literature, that people perceive women having a specific role in life, and that role focused on household tasks (Hansen and Darling, 1985). The question was asked in this manner in order to make it easier to ascertain the intensity or strength of the respondent's attitude.

There were also questions asked from both viewpoints, for example:

If a man doesn't want a girlfriend, there's got to be something wrong with him.

If a woman doesn't want a boyfriend, there's got to be something wrong with her.

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| strongly agree | agree | mildly agree | mildly disagree | disagree | strongly disagree | don't know |

This question was to assess if the stereotypical attitudes went both ways, and, if they did not, in which direction the stereotype lay.

Questions about attitudes towards or expectations for dating cover several areas. One of the most important factors in dating is attraction. The respondents were given a list of 25 personal attributes including Physical qualities (Height, Build/Figure, Chest/Bust); Personality qualities (Sensitivity, Sense of Humour, Temperament); Superficial qualities (Clothing, Facial Features); Environmental qualities (Religion, Ethnic Background, Political Views) and; Money. The respondents used this list to answer four questions:

1. The five most important characteristics for a boy/girlfriend;
2. The five least important characteristics for a boy/girlfriend;
3. The six things that the opposite sex finds attractive in the respondent's sex; and
4. What the opposite sex would find attractive about the respondent.

This question was designed to test previous hypotheses, suggesting that men are more superficial (i.e., looking for physical characteristics) than women (Rubin, Peplau and Hill, 1981; Nevid, 1984)

The questions about the respondents' attitudes toward sex were developed from many different angles: how they perceive sex in relation to others; their sexual experiences; and sex and morality. Again scaled questions were used. The scaled questions were intended to illustrate their attitudes toward sex, by asking some rather stereotyped questions such as: "Once a man is turned on he can't stop." The respondents circled the number from one to six which best fits their views, where one is strongly agree and six is strongly disagree.

Another scaled question took an extreme view, then added amendments, and asked the respondent to answer on a scale of one to six as above. The basic statement of the question was: "It is okay for a man to hold a woman down and force her to have sex if...". This question was taken from a resource book for parents called No Is Not Enough (Adams, Fay and Loreen-Martin, 1984). This question allows for those who do not disagree completely with the statement to point out at what point they would agree, and to what extent.

There were several open ended questions that are used in assessing the respondent's attitude toward sex. For example: "How do you know when you are ready to have sex with a woman/man?" and "Why?". This gave the respondent the opportunity to discuss the cues or reasons for making the decision to have sex or abstain.

Two questions on this subject which were seen as very important because they included the aspect of the relationship

responsibility for birth control seems to be left to either sex.

PART B

Part B was answered only by those who were dating someone at that time, or who had a boyfriend or girlfriend in the previous six months. It was important to place a time frame on the respondent's experiences to avoid traditional self-report problems of memory and telescoping. In addition it would allow for a cursory comparison to other similar studies (Makepeace, 1981; Cate et al., 1982). There were four distinct sections in Part B. The first section asked about the respondent's feelings in/about their relationship. The last three sections dealt with verbal, physical and sexual abuse, respectively, in the relationship. All three sections asked for the respondents experiences as the abused and the abuser.

Psychological Abuse

After a review of the literature, questions remained regarding the area of psychological abuse, an area that is very difficult to define, and whose existence is yet to be widely accepted. This confusion may arise from the subtlety of the interpersonal dynamics involved. It may be generally described as including qualities of manipulative and power related behaviour. Working from parameters set out by Walker (1979), De Gregoria (1987) suggests it may include a number of categories: first, economic deprivation of one person by another, such as control of the finances; and second, social humiliation including threats of public embarrassment through aggressive or obnoxious

behaviour. The weaker partner complies in order to prevent the other person from becoming aggressive or obnoxious in public. Third, and potentially very debilitating, is the social isolation of one person by the more powerful partner. In this case, one partner makes the decision as to how and with whom the other person can spend time.

Although not always the case, the above dynamics involve the male as the dominant partner and the female as the more passive partner. Some researchers, such as Walker (1979) (as cited in DeGregoria, 1987) would also include verbal battering in the definition of psychological abuse. However, it has been placed in a separate category for the purposes of this study as it seems to be the most tangible of the subtleties and perhaps the most readily acknowledged. Hence this verbal battering seems to take on qualities of its own. In the first section of Part B, the respondents were asked a scaled question to assess the quality of their relationship and their perceptions of themselves in that relationship. The questionnaire also included questions about how their boyfriend or girlfriend treats them, in an effort to access information about this rather nebulous form of abuse. (Wilson, 1978; Wood, 1984).

Verbal Abuse

This form of non-physical abuse takes the form of sarcastic degrading or condescending remarks made by one person to another. While this may be more readily acknowledged as abusive than is psychological abuse, this verbal battering is not readily identified as abusive behaviour by many people.

This second section, dealing with verbal abuse, asked scaled and open-ended questions. The first question asked the respondent to scale the number of times their boyfriend or girlfriend has said any of the phrases listed. In the list are both positive and negative phrases such as: "You're beautiful", "You're ugly". The respondent had to circle: Always; Often; Sometimes; Once-In-A-While; or Never.

The use of negative or disparaging remarks can be debilitating. The literature with regard to psychological abuse indicates that the withholding of positive statements or approval can be very damaging over the period of the relationship (definition from the Battered Women Support Services). It is important, therefore, to assess the amount of times one hears positive as well as negative remarks about oneself. The open-ended questions after the list of phrases leave room for the respondent to add any phrases or remarks that were not listed. It also asks how they responded to their partner.

The second half of this section asks the respondent to discuss their experiences as the abuser, asking what they have said to their boyfriend or girlfriend, how often and how their boyfriend or girlfriend responds.

Physical Abuse

This form of abuse is perhaps the most recognised and acknowledged abusive behaviour between people. It includes the physical beating of one person by another (hitting, punching, slapping). The section on physical abuse is much the same as the previous section asking a scaled question and then allowing for additional remarks in open-ended questions. This section also asked questions directed to both the abused and the abuser, to assess the amount of reciprocal abuse, a phenomenon that has been described in the literature (Makepeace, 1981; Cate et al., 1982; Henton et al., 1983).

Sexual Abuse

The final section dealing with sexual abuse is rather lengthy. It asks if subjects were pressured to have sex as well as if they had been forced. Asking if one was forced to have sex implies that the act was carried out and in some situations this is not always the case. Some people are successful in stopping their partner and some partners stop themselves.

The next question deals with the type of pressure or force used, dividing it into: Verbal Persuasion; Verbal Threats;

Physical Intimidation; and Other, which was defined by the respondent. If the persuasion was verbal, the respondent was given a list of remarks and asked how often these were used by their partner. The remaining questions of the first half of the section asked about the incident: what their partner did; what they did; how they felt or acted; how their partner acted; and what happened to the relationship afterward. The second half of this section asked the same questions in reverse (ie. as if the respondent was the abuser).

PART C

Part C was a general section dealing with many subjects, such as sex education; media exposure; (including magazines and music); and demographics. At the end of the questionnaire was the invitation to those who had been an abuser or the abused to make contact for an in-depth interview.

Sex Education

Since the school environment plays an important role in the socialisation of children, it is useful to assess what is being taught about sex and other related areas such as relationships and gender relations in general (Wolpe, 1974; McRobbie, 1978; Russell, 1978-80; Ayim, 1979; Delamont, 1980; Pyke, 1980; Scott, 1980; Sharpe, 1980; Clarricoates, 1981; Connell and Dowsett, 1981; Davidson, 1981; Grumet, 1981; Henricksen, 1981; Bernstein, 1982; Halpern, 1985) The questions asked about the respondents' exposure to sex education in general, when they were first

taught about sex, and if they received sex education in high school. There was a great deal of discussion in the literature about sex education in high school and, because most of what was available is American, it was decided that some Canadian data should be obtained. Questions were asked about the respondents' thoughts about the efficacy of sex education in high school and what they felt should be added to the present curriculum.

Cultural Influences

There has been a great deal of discussion in the past decade about the influence that media exposure, including adult and mainstream publications and rock music, has on young adults (McRobbie, 1978 ; 1984; Hudson, 1984; Greenfield et al., 1987; Morgan, 1987; Signorielli, 1987; Andersen, 1988). The questions of this section asked if the respondent has read or bought, once in a while or on a regular basis, "adult" magazines, including Playboy, Playgirl, Penthouse, Hustler, or any other magazine of this type. They were also asked what, if any, mainstream magazines they read.

In addition, they were asked to list their favourite type of music and their top five favourite musicians or groups. The question was left open, so as not to allow any researcher bias to enter the question. These questions were to assess the possible relationships between rock music rock videos and the degree of acceptance of sex role stereotyping by the respondents, through exposure to these images as noted in some

recent literature (Greenfield et al., 1987; Morgan, 1987; Singer & Singer, 1987).

Demographics

The final section focussed on the demographics of the respondents. These questions dealt with the respondents' age, religion, income, birthplace, and parents' birthplaces. The respondents were also asked the number of brothers and sisters they have. It has been suggested that, although females tend to be more egalitarian than males, this decreases as the number of brothers increases (Hertsgaard and Light, 1984). It was hoped that this could be tested.

Data Analysis

Frequencies were run for all variables for an initial assessment of the information available. This allowed for the elimination of variables which, while they could be interesting if analysed to a greater extent, were not useful in this analysis. For example, in Part C, the respondents were asked to rank their top five favourite musical groups or singers. This proved to be a mammoth coding task with over one hundred different responses. If one was to assess the type of music played by each of the groups or individuals mentioned it might prove to be interesting. However, the subject area of this study did not justify an extended analysis of rock music. Accordingly, this question was eliminated from further analysis.

Many of the variables were assessed according to the sex of the respondent using crosstabs and the Mann-Whitney U-test to assess their significance. For example, some personality characteristics are seen as typically male or female.¹ Each was assessed by sex to see if these stereotypes held true in this study. One such personality characteristic is "Very Emotional". One might think that women would assess themselves as being very emotional, while men would view themselves as being not very emotional. When this characteristic was run in a crosstab with sex, this was found to be the case ($\chi^2 = 27.67$, $df = 4$, $p = .0000$).

To determine the strength of this relationship identified in the crosstabs a Mann-Whitney U-test was employed. The test was chosen to evaluate the distribution differences between the male and female samples primarily because of the dichotomous nature of one of the variables (sex). The samples were randomly and independently selected, with the dependent variable identified as personality and the independent variable as sex. The test confirmed the crosstab findings that women perceive themselves to be very emotional, while men perceive themselves to be not very emotional ($z = -4.91$, $p = .0000$).

Demographics

The sample consisted of 101 college and 151 university students, of which 50.8% were male and 49.2% were female. The

¹Information gathered from previously validated scales dealing with sex differences.

average age was 20.7 years, although the range was between 17 and 62 years. Most respondents were 21 or less (76%); 52.9% were under 20 years (17-18, 31%; 19, 21.1%).

Most of the respondents were born in Canada (85.1%); 60.5% were born in B.C.; 12.8% were born in the Prairies; 7.0% in Ontario; 2.9% in Quebec; and 1.2% in the Maritimes. Only 14.9% were born outside Canada. Most of their parents were born in Canada (56.7%), 24.0% were born in B.C.; 21.4% were born in the Prairies; 6.9% were born in Ontario; 3.6% were born in Quebec; and 1.0% were born in the Maritimes. The largest groups born outside of Canada were from Italy (10.8%) and Britain (8.5%).

The most common religious groups were Roman Catholic (29.6%) and Protestant (28.7%), although 25.2% professed to have no religion. Most had brothers (62.7%) and sisters (72.5%), only 9.8% were only children.

Limitations

The major limitation of this survey, as with any other, is the attitude of the respondents. The subject of some of the questions was bound to cause some embarrassment and even discomfort to some individuals. This was quite obvious, with some students, because, when they reached the questions about sex, they would giggle. Although this behaviour may take away from the seriousness of the subject it seemed to provide an outlet for this embarrassment. It was important to make sure

that the respondents clearly understood what each question was asking, and therefore it was necessary to be explicit with language. For example, "How do you know when you are ready to have sex with a woman/man?" or "Have you ever had sexual intercourse?". Some respondents may have felt embarrassed or uncomfortable with this type of question and some refused to answer.

The questionnaire was rather long, but one had to complete the entire survey only if one was in a relationship that was verbally, physically and sexually abusive. Otherwise respondents skipped sections of questions. Most seemed, length notwithstanding, to take the time to answer the questions thoughtfully.

CHAPTER V

MYTHS IN ACTION: SURVEY RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The results of this study are broken down into two major parts: those dealing with all the respondents and those dealing with respondents who were in relationships. The entire sample was used in the first part of the chapter in a discussion of masculinity, femininity and various gender role stereotypes. Gender role stereotypes are evident in the answers to several attitude scales, including an attitudes towards women scale; a sexual attitudes scale; and an attitudes towards sexual assault scale. The entire sample will also be used in the second part of the chapter in a general discussion of dating which deals with attraction, perceptions of sexual intent and sexual activity. The entire sample is also used in the third part of the chapter where the respondents discuss their experiences with, and their perceptions of sex education in school.

As indicated in the previous chapter, those respondents who answered the questions in Part B of the questionnaire are those who were in relationships at the time of the survey or in the previous six months. These respondents will be the focus of the discussion of verbal, physical and sexual abuse in dating addressed in the second part of the chapter.

Masculinity, Femininity and Gender Role Stereotypes

One of the objectives of this study was to assess the acceptance of gender role stereotypes by the respondents. A masculinity-femininity scale (adapted from Spence & Helmreich, 1982) was used, consisting of 22 opposites on a five point scale (see Appendix A). An answer on one end of the scale would indicate femininity and on the other end, masculinity. It was hoped that, from these factors, a masculinity-femininity index could be generated, where a score of one would indicate a very feminine person and a score of five would indicate a very masculine person.

Crosstabs were run testing for the statistical significance of each of the 22 factors by the sex of the respondent. It was found that only 7 of the factors were significant. A check using the Mann-Whitney U-test confirmed this. The most significant characteristics were, how emotional the person is, how aware the person is of the feelings of others, whether the person cries easily and how easily the person's feelings are hurt.

Computing a personality index from these factors shows that 81.0% have an index of three, indicating individuals who are neither markedly masculine nor markedly feminine, but rather perceive themselves to be androgynous. Only 22 females and 10 males had scores of two (more feminine) and only 13 males and 1 female had scores of four (more masculine). There were no extreme scores (one's or five's). It is important to note that

these responses show how the respondents perceive themselves, not how they behave. As noted earlier, attitudes and behaviour are not necessarily consistent. Therefore, one could perceive oneself to be affectionate but that might not be indicated in one's behaviour.

The fact that 15 of 22 personality characteristics are not significant by sex seems to indicate that the masculinity-femininity scales developed in the late seventies and early eighties are no longer relevant. When these scales were developed they were useful in assessing how masculine or feminine a person was (Bem, 1973; Broverman et al., 1972). However, attitudes seem to have changed. Now some feminine characteristics are seen as desirable, in both men and women. These are characteristics such as emotional, affectionate, and caring. As well, masculine characteristics have also been found to be important to both sexes, producing self-assured and confident people (Pyke, 1980; Lamke, 1982).

The fact that attitudes have changed and there are fewer people who fit the masculine-feminine gender roles, as defined by the 22 personality characteristics is partly due to the research that has been done in this area. Social scientists attempt to improve human relationships by informing people of the results of studies on masculinity and femininity but this information may alter the very relationships being studied (Atkinson, 1987). Atkinson (1987) discussing the work of Kenneth Gergens and states that,

Much of what passes for unvarying scientific knowledge about human behavior and psychology is actually time bound, because "observed regularities, and thus the major theoretical principles, are firmly wedded to historical circumstances". (Atkinson, 1987:22)

It is necessary, therefore, to update scales used for assessing traditional roles and values. Perhaps, as is suggested from these results, masculine-feminine scales are no longer useful nor relevant.

Attitudes Towards Women

Atkinson (1987) focuses on attitudes towards women scales, and suggests that, as people become more nontraditional, it will become more and more difficult to generate variations in the scores. She tested the Spence and Helmreich (1982) Attitudes Towards Women Scale, using an undergraduate college class, and found that the students' answers were generally nontraditional. She had, however, added a statement about whether women should work alongside men in frontline combat and found that both men and women strongly disapproved, indicating very traditional values (Atkinson, 1987).

An attitudes towards women scale was used in this study to assess the presence of traditional values in the respondents. The respondents were presented with 17 statements, each with a six point scale where one was strongly agree and six was strongly disagree. Crosstabs were run for all statements to test for statistical significance by sex and it was found that 15 of the statements produced significant differences. In general males held more traditional views than did females. The difference in

views between females and males could indicate a basis for some conflict. If women who hold nontraditional views date men holding traditional views it is quite likely that, in some areas of the relationship, there will be conflict.

It is interesting to look at the relative views of males and females on specific items to see in which areas men and women hold traditional or nontraditional views and on which items their views diverge. Table 2 gives the results of the attitudes towards women scale. To the statement, "By nature, women are better at taking care of the home and children than are men", 70.8% of males and 56.5% of females agreed. This indicates rather traditional views from both sexes. As other researchers have found, the idea that women should have primary responsibility on the home front, and that this is natural, seems to persist (Hansen & Darling, 1985; Atkinson, 1987).

The respondents were not, however, adverse to a woman having a career, although that is where the agreement between women and men ends. In response to the statement, "The most important work for a woman is that of wife and mother", 26.8% of males and 13.8% of females agreed. While men also had a greater tendency to think that a career should be more important to a man than to a woman (25%) and that a husband should make more money than the wife (36.4%), only half that number of women shared those viewpoints.

Males were also more traditional when it came to males and females in competition. One quarter of the male respondents

Table 2

Attitudes Towards Women

| QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM | AGREE | | DISAGREE | |
|---|-------|-------|----------|-------|
| | M | F | M | F |
| By nature women are better at taking care of the home and children than are men | 70.8% | 56.5% | 29.1% | 43.5% |
| Women should have the same freedom of action as men | 89.0% | 95.2% | 11.0% | 4.8% |
| Swearing and obscenity are worse in the speech of a woman than a man | 65.0% | 50.0% | 35.0% | 50.0% |
| Men should pay all expenses of a date | 36.5% | 13.8% | 63.5% | 86.2% |
| Men should be given preference over women in hiring and promotion in certain jobs | 62.1% | 23.0% | 37.9% | 77.0% |
| The most important job for a woman is that of wife and mother | 26.8% | 13.8% | 73.3% | 77.0% |
| A career should be more important to a man than a woman | 25.0% | 8.2% | 75.0% | 91.8% |
| Competing with men makes women less feminine | 26.9% | 7.3% | 73.1% | 92.7% |
| It is more important for a woman to be pretty than smart | 14.4% | 2.4% | 85.6% | 97.6% |
| Women should work only out of necessity | 11.2% | 2.4% | 88.8% | 97.6% |
| It is okay for girls to play on the same sports teams as boys | 43.9% | 90.1% | 56.1% | 9.9% |
| It is better for the husband to make more money than the wife | 36.4% | 18.8% | 63.6% | 81.2% |

thought that competing with men makes women less feminine (females, 7.3%) and 62.1% of the males thought that men should be given preference over women in hiring and promotion in certain jobs. In other areas of competition, males showed equally traditional views. When asked if it was okay for girls to play on the same sports teams as boys, 56.1% of the males said they disagreed (females, 9.9%). In all three cases there is a striking difference between the answers of males and females. Of the females, 92.7%, thought that competing with men would not make women less feminine, 77% said that men should not be given preference in hiring and promotion in certain jobs and 90.1% said that girls and boys should be allowed to play on sports teams together.

There are some interesting but rather contradictory findings in this attitudes towards women scale. Both men and women (89.0% and 95.2% respectively) thought that women should have the same freedom of action as men but the majority of respondents were more restrictive when it came to a woman's manner of speech. When asked about swearing and obscenity in speech 65% of males and 50% of females felt that it was worse in the speech of a woman than a man. These two answers seem to indicate that women can do what men do but they cannot speak as they speak. This sends a mixed and sometimes confusing message to women.

Sexual Attitudes

Another scale used to assess the existence of traditional views was a sexual attitudes scale. This scale was used to assess the acceptance of some of the popular myths surrounding sex and sexuality. Myths such as: once a man is turned on or sexually excited he cannot stop himself; sex is a test of love; being whistled at and having sexual comments made to her is a compliment or good thing for a woman; and women who dress or act suggestively are asking to be raped. There are several interesting findings shown in table 3, that warrant discussion. The idea that men are incapable of controlling their sexual urges is still accepted by 26.7% of the women and 34.6% of the men in this study. It is unfortunate that society is still not forcing men to take responsibility for their actions. If a man cannot control his sexual urges then it is the woman who must take responsibility for all unwanted sex.

Responsibility for sexual assault (sexual intercourse) is placed on women by one quarter of the male respondents if women dress or act suggestively. Of the female respondents, 17.1% accepted the notion that women who act or dress suggestively are asking to be raped. As noted earlier, 89.0% of males and 95.2% of females feel that women should have the same freedom of action as men, comparing these figures to the statement about the way women act and dress, 12.5% of all respondents send out mixed messages. They feel that women can act with the same freedom as men but not if it means they are acting or dressing

Table 3
Sexual Attitudes

| | AGREE | | DISAGREE | |
|--|-------|-------|----------|-------|
| | M | F | M | F |
| Once a man is turned on he cannot stop | 34.6% | 26.7% | 65.3% | 73.3% |
| Sex is a test of love | 25.0% | 3.3% | 75.0% | 96.7% |
| I worry about being forced to have sex | 15.4% | 33.9% | 84.6% | 66.1% |
| Being whistled at and having sexual comments made to her is a good thing for women | 35.9% | 25.0% | 64.1% | 75.0% |
| Women who dress or act suggestively are asking to be raped | 24.0% | 17.1% | 76.0% | 82.9% |

suggestively.

The myth that sex is a test of love is accepted by one quarter of the male respondents but only 3.3% of the females. This myth is used to manipulate one's partner into giving in to sexual demands. From this study it seems that men might use this manipulative tool more often than women. The implication and possible result is that, if the man's partner will not have sex, then she does not love him. Therefore, to prove her love, and thus avoid the guilt of hurting him, she will consent to sexual intercourse.

The third myth about sex and sexuality is that being seen as a sex object is a compliment to women. The statement was, "For a woman, being whistled at or having sexual comments made to you is a good thing", the majority of both men and women disagreed, however, one quarter of the women and 35.9% of the men agreed. It would seem, then, that objectification of women is still acceptable by almost one third of the men and women in this sample.

From the sexual attitudes scale it was found that more than twice as many females as males worry about being forced to have sex (33.9% and 15.4% respectively). This seems to be a rather sad statement about the relationship between women and men in society, that one third of the women are concerned about not having their wishes respected. Distrust of this kind might result in difficulties in communication between the sexes.

In an attempt to assess the respondents' attitudes about their sexual behaviour, they were asked how they knew when they were ready to have sex with someone. The results, in table 4, show that significantly more females than males used words such as "love", "trust" and "affection", to describe the feelings that had to be present for them to have sex (females, 70.3% ; males, 31.9%). Slightly more males than females, however, said that there had to be a relationship or some form of commitment before they would have sex (males 27.4%; females, 23.4%). More males than females said they would not have sex premaritally (8.0% and 3.6% respectively).

Table 4

How Respondents Know When They Are Ready to Have Sex

| | Males | Females |
|----------------------------|-------|---------|
| Affection Love Trust | 31.9% | 70.3% |
| Gut Feeling | 11.5% | 14.4% |
| Commitment or Relationship | 27.4% | 23.4% |
| Emotional | 7.1% | 6.3% |
| Physical | 21.2% | 9.9% |
| Other | 15.9% | 5.4% |

Twice as many males as females said that they knew when they were ready to have sex through physical cues (males, 21.2%; females, 9.9%), suggesting they would be "aroused" or that they would have a "sexual urge". Men were more likely than women to use explicit terms when describing these physical cues.

It seems, from the overall results, that women, more so than men, tend to desire an emotional or mental bond with their would-be lover. Men seem to have a greater tendency to react to physical cues. To develop an emotional or mental bond with someone takes time, therefore, it could be suggested that females take longer to decide to have sex than do males. Knox and Wilson (1981) found discrepancies between women and men as to the timing of sexual relations. They found that women, more than men, tended to think that sexual intercourse should wait until they got to know the person fairly well. These differences

in expectations for sexual relations could lead to misunderstanding and conflict in relationships.

Related to this is a question which asked the respondent for their view of sex before marriage. They were given a scale from one to six where one was "Absolutely Acceptable" and six was "Absolutely Unacceptable"; 48% of those answering the question said it was Absolutely Acceptable to have sex before marriage.

Attitudes Toward Sexual Assault

The third scale that was used to assess the existence of traditional views asked the respondents when it was okay for a man to hold a woman down and force her to have sex. The scale offered eleven situations and the respondents answered on a scale of one to six where one is strongly agree and six is strongly disagree (Adams et al., 1984). The assumption was that sexual assault is such a repulsive crime that all respondents would say that they strongly disagreed with any justification. This, however, was not the case, as seen in table 5. In fact, it was quite interesting, albeit disheartening, to see how the respondents varied their answers from strongly disagree to disagree to mildly disagree as the situation changed.

In the first four situations: he has spent a lot of money on her; he is so turned on he cannot stop; she has had sex with other men; and she is stoned or drunk, very few respondents agreed, although males did not disagree as strongly as did females. However, when faced with a scenario in which the woman

allows the man to touch her the respondents become more accepting of sexual assault. When a woman allows a man to touch her above the waist, 7.1% of males and 2.4% of females would tolerate sexual assault, if she allows him to touch her below the waist the percentages increase to 10.2% of males and 3.2% of females tolerating the assault. When the woman touches the man below the waist 12.0% of males and 6.4% of females would say that sexual assault is an acceptable outcome.

In a situation where the woman says she will have sex but changes her mind, or if she gets the man sexually excited 6.8% and 7.5% of the respondents agreed that the man could force the woman to have sex. Even more respondents would tolerate sexual assault if the woman led the man on (males, 13.4%, females, 6.4%). A total of 9.9% of all the respondents said that a man should be able to force a woman to have sex if she led him on. This is the largest percentage in agreement, the second largest being 9.1% saying that it is okay to force her to have sex if she touches the man below the waist. It seems that gender role stereotypes are still in operation, stereotypes in which women are held responsible for a man's sexual behaviour.

These results are rather startling. Given the assumption that the respondents would never agree to any justification for such a dehumanising crime as sexual assault and would, therefore, answer strongly disagree to all situations, it is surprising to note that where it is perceived that the woman has led the man on, only 61.4% of males and only 69.4% of females

Table 5
Attitudes Towards Sexual Assault

| IT IS OKAY FOR A MAN TO HOLD A WOMAN DOWN AND FORCE HER TO HAVE SEX IF: | AGREE | |
|---|-------|---------|
| | Males | Females |
| He spends money on her | 1.6% | 0% |
| He is so turned on he cannot stop | 4.7% | 0% |
| She has had sex with other men | 4.7% | 0% |
| She is stoned or drunk | 4.2% | 0% |
| She lets him touch her above the waist | 7.1% | 2.4% |
| She lets him touch her below the waist | 10.2% | 3.2% |
| She touches him below the waist | 12.0% | 6.4% |
| She says that she will have sex but changes her mind | 10.3% | 3.2% |
| They have dated a long time | 7.1% | 0.8% |
| She got him sexually excited | 10.2% | 4.8% |
| She led him on | 13.4% | 6.4% |

answered strongly disagree.

In reviewing the responses to this scale it was thought that those who had said, in the sexual attitudes scale, that they worried about being forced to have sex (females, 56, males, 33) would most certainly answer strongly disagree to all situations. As seen in the results in table 6, this was not the case. Not only did these respondents differentiate from strongly disagree to mildly disagree, they also, at times, would agree that it would be acceptable for a man to force a woman to have sex. Again the highest percentages were for situations in which the woman touched the man below the waist (4.3%) and when it is perceived that the woman has led the man on (5.1%). What is most interesting is that, in both these situations as well as when it is perceived that the woman has gotten the man sexually excited, more female respondents agreed than did male respondents. It would seem that those who worry about being forced to have sex tend to hold rather traditional views, although the percentages are not high enough to make conclusive statements.

Dynamics of Dating

Attraction

Jeffery Nevid's (1984) study tested the hypothesis that, because of gender role stereotypes, the evaluation of women is more strongly related to their physical attractiveness than is the evaluation of men. Nevid found this hypothesis to be correct. In this study it was found that, although there is an

Table 6

Attitudes Towards Sexual Assault Held by Those Who Worry About Being Forced to Have Sex

| IT IS OKAY FOR A MAN TO HOLD A WOMAN DOWN AND FORCE HER TO HAVE SEX IF: | AGREE | |
|---|-------|---------|
| | Males | Females |
| She lets him touch her above the waist | 6.1% | 0% |
| She lets him touch her below the waist | 6.1% | 1.8% |
| She touches him below the waist | 3.1% | 5.4% |
| She says that she will have sex but changes her mind | 3.0% | 1.8% |
| They have dated a long time | 3.0% | 1.8% |
| She got him sexually excited | 3.0% | 5.4% |
| She has led him on | 3.0% | 7.1% |

indication that physical features are important to men, when choosing a partner, the majority, as shown in table 7, stated that personality and interpersonal characteristics are more important. When asked what they thought were the five most important characteristics for a girlfriend or boyfriend most respondents said it was the person's personality (Males, 85.9%; females, 81.5%). The second most common answer for males was attractiveness, 68.8%. Twenty-five percent said that the woman's build or figure was important.

Table 7
Attraction

| | Important Characteristics For Girl or Boyfriend | | What Respondents Think the opposite Sex finds Attractive | |
|-------------------|---|---------|--|---------|
| | Males | Females | Males | Females |
| HEIGHT | 5.5% | 8.1% | 24.6% | 5.7% |
| BUILD OR FIGURE | 25.0% | 5.6% | 65.9% | 67.5% |
| PHYSICAL STRENGTH | 0.8% | 0.8% | 42.9% | 0.8% |
| FACIAL FEATURES | 13.3% | 4.8% | 21.4% | 39.0% |
| CHEST, OR BUST | 2.3% | 0% | 2.4% | 25.2% |
| LEGS | 4.7% | 0.8% | 2.4% | 25.2% |
| FIDELITY | 7.0% | 13.7% | 4.9% | 4.0% |
| HONESTY | 46.0% | 61.2% | 36.5% | 21.1% |
| KINDNESS | 25.0% | 35.5% | 33.3% | 21.1% |
| WARMTH | 28.9% | 21.8% | 18.3% | 13.8% |
| SENSITIVITY | 23.4% | 43.5% | 25.4% | 18.7% |
| SEXUALITY | 18.8% | 10.5% | 19.8% | 48.8% |
| PERSONALITY | 85.9% | 81.5% | 69.0% | 69.9% |
| SENSE OF HUMOUR | 50.0% | 65.3% | 50.8% | 49.6% |
| INTELLIGENCE | 57.8% | 58.1% | 38.1% | 46.3% |
| ATTRACTIVENESS | 68.8% | 41.9% | 57.1% | 70.7% |
| MONEY | 3.1% | 4.8% | 43.7% | 8.1% |

Women tended to emphasise interpersonal characteristics such as sense of humour (65.3%), honesty (61.2%) and sensitivity (43.5%). Attractiveness was the sixth most common answer with 41.9% saying that this was an important characteristic for a boyfriend.

When reading the literature the question arose as to how these desires might affect male-female relationships. It asserts that women and men are evaluated differentially in society which might cause conflict, but it does not enable one to make statements about expectations, which, as has been stated in the literature, are a very important element in conflicts between men and women.

To assess expectations for a partner, this survey asked respondents to list the six characteristics that they thought the opposite sex would find attractive. These answers were then compared to the characteristics that the respondent said they were looking for in a partner. The comparison was done between what women said they wanted in a partner and what men said women find attractive in the opposite sex, the same comparison was made for male respondents (see Table 7).

The answers to what the respondents thought the opposite sex finds attractive better fit gender role stereotypes than the initial question about what the respondents were looking for in a partner. Comparing what men wanted to what women thought men wanted showed a difference in expectations. The most common answer by women was that men were interested in how attractive a

woman is (70.7%); this matches what men said with only a 2% difference. The second most common answer was personality (69.9%) which almost matches the importance men placed on this characteristic, although there is a 16% difference. The third most common answer women gave was that men were attracted to a woman's build or figure (67.5%). This is over two and a half times the percentage of men who said they looked at a woman's build or figure when choosing a girlfriend. In general, women emphasised the physical characteristics at a rate three to six times higher than what men said. Another example of this is sexuality, 48.8% of the women said that men would find this attractive while only 18.8% of the men said that this was important. Characteristics that were underestimated by women were, honesty, 46.9% of the men said that this was important while only 21.1% of the women said it would be; warmth, 28.9% of men said it was important while only 13.8% of women said it was important to a man.

The same misunderstanding appears when comparing what women say they think is important in a boyfriend with what men say women find attractive. Men tended to overestimate on physical characteristics such as height, 24.6% of males said this was important to females, only 8.1% of females said it was; build or figure, 65.9% of males to 5.6% of females; physical strength, 42.9% of males to 0.8% of females. The same magnitude of differences occur with all other physical characteristics. Men tended to underestimate the importance of interpersonal characteristics such as fidelity (males, 4.0%; females, 13.7%);

honesty (males, 36.5%, females, 61.2%); sensitivity (males, 25.4%; females, 43.5%). They also underestimated the importance of such characteristics as sense of humour, personality and intelligence.

The popular myth that women are looking for financial security is evident here. Of the male respondents, 43.7% said money was an important factor for women whereas only 4.8% of the women said that it was in their list of the five most important characteristics of a potential boyfriend.

Comparing this study to Nevid's study in 1984, one can see that, although important to one quarter of the males, physical characteristics are not as important as interpersonal characteristics. For women interpersonal characteristics are still the most important. More significantly this study shows that gender stereotypes are still operating in the perceptions of the criteria the opposite sex has for a partner. Men and women perceive the opposite sex to be superficial, interested in physical attributes, women also being interested in money, and not looking deeper for the personality of the potential partner.

An important question here is, how do these assumptions affect female-male relationships? If a person is interested in interpersonal qualities but thinks that the other person is only interested in superficial attributes, it seems that this could lead to a certain amount of animosity or antagonism, thus setting up barriers to communication between the sexes. If there is no honest and open communication there could be conflict and

misunderstanding.

When asked what the opposite sex would find attractive about them, the majority emphasised personal characteristics such as personality, sense of humour, intelligence, honesty, kindness and sensitivity.

Perceptions of Sexual Intent

Research done by Antonia Abbey (1982 & 1986) found that males tend to misperceive friendliness on the part of females. They tend, in general, to perceive friendliness as sexual interest or advances. In this study the respondents were asked how a man can tell, through a woman's words or actions, that she is interested in having sex, the results are shown in table 8. Both females and males said that a man could tell if a woman were suggestive in word or action (48% and 58.3% respectively). The second most common answer was, through her body language (males, 27.2% ; females, 30%).

Both of these cues are nonverbal and ambiguous. This was an open ended question, thus, the question does not give any clues as to what is the definition of suggestive or sexy. If a man thinks that a woman is being suggestive or that her body language indicates it he will assume sexual advances or interest. The woman, however, may be acting in a friendly manner, one which she perceives is neither sexy nor suggestive. If the man makes sexual overtures to the woman and receives a rebuff he may become confused or angry. These misperceptions

Table 8

How Can A Man Tell, Through a Woman's Words or Actions That She is Interested in Having Sex?

| | Males | Females |
|--------------------------------------|-------|---------|
| Suggestive or sexy in word or action | 58.3% | 48.0% |
| Body Language | 27.2% | 30.0% |
| Physical Advances | 8.7% | 8.0% |
| Verbally | 20.4% | 26.0% |
| Intuition | 6.8% | 3.0% |
| Man's Reaction | 11.7% | 11.0% |
| Cannot For Sure | 10.7% | 17.0% |
| Other | 10.0% | 3.0% |

have been the cause of conflict, as discussed in Abbey's work (1982 & 1986).

There are those who recognise that, to be certain, the cues must be verbal, 20.4% of men and 26% of women suggest that a man can tell a woman is interested in having sex if she makes direct hints or discusses it with him. There are others who also recognise the uncertainty of actions as cues to sexual interest, although the numbers are not large (males, 10.7%; females, 17%).

Some respondents suggested that men are equipped with sexual sensors and are able to tell a woman is interested through intuition (males, 6.8%; females 3.0%). Several respondents

simply stated that "a man can tell", without any explanation as to how he would be able to do this. Others suggest that the man, himself, is the sensor and that he can tell that a woman is interested in having sex through his reaction to her (males, 11.7%; females 11%). This category would be such statements as, "when she is turning you on". There is no acknowledgement here that his reaction may have more to do with what he wants than how the woman is acting.

Although this question did not fully address the problem of misperceptions, as in Abbey's (1982 & 1986) studies, it has produced, nonetheless, some very interesting results. Looking at some of the original statements made by the respondents one notes a few interesting answers. Several respondents said that a man could tell if a woman gives him a "seductive look", others suggest that a man can tell by the look in the woman's eyes and a couple suggested that if a woman has "watery eyes", this is a sign of sexual interest. The ambiguity and vagueness of these types of answers indicate a very strong possibility of misperceptions between males and females, supporting the conclusions of previous research (Abbey, 1982; Abbey & Melby, 1986).

The respondents were also asked how a woman could tell a man, through her words or actions, that she is interested in having sex without being thought of as forward. The results in table 9 indicate that only 6.3% of males and 13.5% of females said that a woman cannot do this and 13.5% of women and 6.3% of

men said they had no idea how a woman could do this. Most of the respondents said that a woman could let a man know she is interested in having sex verbally (males, 33.3%; females, 38.4%). The second most common answer was that a woman could indicate sexual interest by acting sexy or in a suggestive manner (females, 38.4%; males, 28.2%). Again there is a problem dealing with ambiguous terms such as "suggestive" or "sexy". As in the previous question, actions that are perceived as suggestive by one person may be seen as being friendly by another person.

This too was an open ended question that produced some interesting answers several of which would likely produce misunderstanding. Answers such as "invite him to her place" (5.8% of respondents) raises questions as to when an invitation to a woman's apartment is not an invitation for sex. Another very ambiguous answer is the suggestion that a woman be "aggressive but not too aggressive". How is a woman to know when she is being too aggressive or not aggressive enough? One male respondent suggested that a woman could let a man know she is interested by "being submissive". This is similar to the 3.7% of the respondents who said that a woman could show sexual interest, without being thought of as forward, by "letting the man make the moves". The only result this appears to have is to perpetuate the traditional stereotype that males should be the aggressors in relationships and women should take their cues from their partners. The answers to this question are ambiguous and vague which indicates, as with the previous question, a

Table 9

How Can a Woman Tell A Man, Through Her Words or Actions, That She is Interested in Having Sex

| | Males | Females |
|--------------------------------------|-------|---------|
| Suggestive or Sexy in word or action | 28.2% | 38.4% |
| Body Language | 12.8% | 16.3% |
| Physical Advances | 15.4% | 15.1% |
| Verbally | 33.3% | 38.4% |
| Man's Reaction | 12.8% | 7.0% |
| Other | 14.1% | 11.6% |
| Don't Know | 13.5% | 6.3% |

strong possibility of misperceptions leading to misunderstandings between males and females.

Sexual Activity

The respondents were asked general questions about their sexual activity as well as specifically about the previous two months. When asked if they had engaged in some form of sexual activity other than intercourse, 89.8% said they had. The sexual activity included, kissing/necking, petting above and below the waist, and other. When asked about the previous two months 62.5% said they had engaged in sexual activity less than twice per week.

The respondents were then asked if they had ever had sexual intercourse; 72.4% said that they had, but most (71.6%) said that they had had intercourse less than twice a week in the previous two months. When asked about their use of birth control, 66.5% said they always use some form of birth control, only 9.7% never use any. The most common form of birth control to be the Pill (48.5%), second most common is the condom (29.1%). The respondents were then asked who they felt should be responsible for birth control, 91.2% said that both the man and woman should be responsible, only 1.6% said that birth control was wrong. When asked why, of those who responded, 72.2% said that it should be a mutual decision.

Relationships

Demographics

There were 189 respondents who were in relationships at the time that the survey was carried out or had been in a relationship in the previous six months. Of these respondents 42.5% have been in their relationship for less than six months; 13.8% have been in their relationship for more than six months but less than one year; 17.1% have been in their relationship over one year but less than two years; and 26.6% have been in their relationships for more than two years. Of those in relationships 31.1% are 18 years old, 20.8% are 19 years old and 13.7% are 20 years old. The sexes are almost equally represented, 46.9% are male and 53.1% are female.

Verbal Abuse in Dating

The respondents were asked if their partner had ever called them names or verbally abused them, 22.6% said that this had happened (males, 36.7%; females, 23.5%). Verbal abuse, like psychological abuse, is very difficult to define. What was interesting was that more respondents said that they had been called names when specific insults were presented than if they were asked to generalise, these results are shown in table 10. For example, of those who said they had been verbally abused or called names (N=57), 10 said that their partner had called them "fat". However, in general, 11 males and 14 females said that their partner had called them "fat".

Another example is being called "stupid". Of those who said they had been verbally abused or called names, 16 said that their partner had called them "stupid", whereas 15 males and 10 females said they had been called stupid. Not enough information is available to make conclusive statements as to why these people did not say they had been called names or verbally abused by their partner. Perhaps their partner had called them fat or stupid only once.

The other possibility is that they just do not perceive this name calling as abusive behaviour. The significance of this non-recognition must be emphasised. Verbal abuse is a manipulative tool used to batter one's partner into submission. For example, if a woman is constantly told that she is fat, ugly and stupid, she will, eventually, come to accept this as the

Table 10
Verbal Abuse*

| | Males | Females | Those who have been verbally abused |
|--|-------|---------|-------------------------------------|
| FAT | 11 | 14 | 10 |
| LOSER | 8 | 9 | 9 |
| UGLY | 1 | 4 | 4 |
| STUPID | 15 | 10 | 16 |
| QUEER | 4 | 7 | 4 |
| COULDN'T GET ANYONE TO GO OUT WITH YOU | 7 | 2 | 5 |

* Absolute numbers

truth. If she thinks that she is fat, ugly and stupid, then there is no question of her leaving her boyfriend, as he is the only man who would go out with her. If a man verbally batters his partner into believing this then it is more likely that she will not perceive this as verbal abuse but simply as the truth.

When asked what else their partner said to them, two thirds gave examples of negative comments made to them ranging from the more mild comments such as "stubborn" to more inflammatory or obscene comments. One third of the respondents said their partner made positive comments to them. When asked if they

called their partner names, 43.9% said that they had. Although this figure includes those who have made positive comments, over 90% of them said they had used negative or derogatory remarks.

Physical Abuse in Dating

Physical abuse was addressed in four scaled questions. These scaled questions asked about being hit with an open hand, a closed hand, being pushed or shoved and being kicked. As shown in table 11, males, in general, said they had been physically abused more than females, 28.1% said they had been hit with an open hand, 24.4% said they had been hit with a closed hand and 28.9% said they had been pushed or shoved. Only 10.1% said that they had been kicked. It would have been interesting, if the question had gone on to describe more violent forms of physical abuse, to see how the percentages change as the forms of abuse became more extreme, which is suggested in the literature (Makepeace, 1981, 1987; Cate et al., 1982; Henton, et al., 1983). For women, the largest percentage was for those who had been pushed or shoved (12.1%), all other types of abuse were under 8%.

In general, fewer males reported abusing than reported that they were abused, females were the opposite in all categories except kicking. Of the females 15% said they have hit their partner with a closed hand, 17.8% said they have pushed or shoved their partner, only 2.0% said they have kicked their partner.

Table 11
Physical Abuse

| Type of Abuse | Abused by Partner | | Abused Partner | |
|----------------------|-------------------|---------|----------------|---------|
| | Males | Females | Males | Females |
| Hit with open hand | 28.1% | 8.0% | 6.9% | 15.0% |
| Hit with closed hand | 24.4% | 5.0% | 3.4% | 8.9% |
| Push or Shove | 28.9% | 12.1% | 18.2% | 17.8% |
| Kick | 10.1% | 4.0% | 2.3% | 2.0% |

Male respondents reported less abuse than did females except for pushing or shoving their partner (18.2%) and kicking their partner (23%). Again, it would have been helpful to have extended this scale to incorporate more extreme forms of abuse in order to test the hypothesis that women sustain more extreme forms of physical abuse such as being beaten or assault with a weapon. From these results it seems that the women in this sample tend to be more physically abusive than do the men. It also seems that the males in this sample have sustained more physical abuse of all kinds than have the women.

Two things were not addressed in this study, first, who initiated the abuse; hitting in self defence is very different from striking out at one's partner. The other item not addressed is the threat of physical violence. Many women who have been

abused say that their partner had threatened them with violence to keep them in line. Threats of physical abuse are a manipulative tool used to get one's partner to do as one wishes. As the respondents were not asked if they had been threatened, this form of manipulation has been missed.

Sexual Abuse in Dating

The respondents were asked if their partner had ever pressured or forced them to have sex when they did not want to. Of those in relationships, 19.0% said this had happened (N=36, males, 24; females, 12). Of the 36, 72.2% did have sex with their partner. The type of pressure used most of the time, was verbal persuasion (80.6%). The second most common was physical intimidation (30.6%). Males were more likely than women to say that it was just a difference in timing or that they were seduced (20.8% (5 respondents) and 8.3% (1 respondent) respectively).

Males and females viewed the incidents differently in that women treated them more seriously. When asked what they did to try to stop their partner, 50% of the males and 41.7% of the females reasoned with their partner or used an excuse or both. Women were more likely to say that they were angry and physically resisted than were men (58.3% and 8.3% respectively). More women than men found the experience to be upsetting or degrading. When asked how they felt afterward, 37.5% of the males and 83.3% of the females said they were upset and angry and felt cheated or violated. Men were more likely than women to

say that they felt nothing or that they felt fine (54.2% and 16.7% respectively). Very few did anything afterward, 58.3% of men and 50% of women said they did nothing, 25% of women told a friend or family member and 20.8% of the men said that it was "no big deal".

The respondents were also asked if they had ever pressured or forced their partner to have sex when the partner did not want to have sex. Of those who had been pressured or forced to have sex by their partners, 33.3% said they had done the same to their partners. Of all the respondents 9.5% have pressured or forced their partners to have sex (16 males and 2 females).

The two females who had pressured or forced their partners to have sex said that their partners reasoned with them or gave an excuse, one woman said her partner was upset by the incident, the other said she did not know how her partner felt. Both women said that they felt fine after the incident.

When the males were asked how their partner reacted 62.5% said their partner reasoned with them, used an excuse or got angry; 18.8% said their partners gave in to the pressure. When asked how their partners acted afterward, 18.6% of the males said their partners were upset, hurt or depressed. Most, however, either did not know how their partners felt (37.5%) or said that they felt fine (37.5%). Most of the males said that they were ashamed and embarrassed after the incident (56.3%) while 31.3% said they felt satisfied or proud.

Sex Education

As discussed in Chapter 3, schools are a very important socialising force in people's lives. A great deal of how people think stems from their schooling. If students are taught traditional gender roles and sexual attitudes these may be internalised and will affect their relationships. If, however, students are taught to question the traditional gender roles and sexual attitudes and to take nontraditional views about relations between the sexes, these alternative views may be internalised. The most logical venue for teaching nontraditional views is through sex or family life education.

The respondents were asked about their exposure to sex education in general, as well as their experiences with formal sex education in high school. The respondents were asked from whom they received their first sex education. The largest group was those who first received sex education from school (34.0%). Parents taught 30.4% and 29.1% first learned about sex from their friends. Most of the respondents (50.4%) had this first sex education between the ages 5-11, 34.6% learned between the ages 12-13. In high school, 68.4% did receive some form of sex education. Of those who did receive sex education in high school, 88.7% said it was interesting and 81.5% found it useful. Most (51.7%) said it was useful because these courses increased their knowledge. When asked what they would like to see added to sex education courses in high school, 40.6% said they would like more information on birth control and sexually transmitted

diseases, 21.7% said they would like to have more discussion of relationships.

The respondent were asked if they felt sex education courses in high school are worthwhile, 91.4% said they are useful. Their reasons are concentrated in three answers: sex education in high school would destroy myths about sex that students have (29.4%), school offers the only opportunity to learn about sex (27.2%), and it is best to be prepared and have information about sex and the consequences before getting involved (28.9%).

Summary

In general, it seems that there are some rather significant differences between the women and men in several areas of this study. Males seem to hold more traditional attitudes related to working women and when men and women are in competition. When it comes to sexual attitudes both males and females showed rather traditional views, although relatively more males than females were traditional.

The results indicate some mixed messages are being sent to women saying that they should be able to have the same freedom of action as men but at the same time, their manner of speech is limited in that they should not swear or use obscenity; and their actions and choice of dress are restricted if they are perceived to be suggestive.

Both women and men exhibited sexual assault excusing attitudes, when they perceive the woman in any way responsible for being in a position where sexual assault might occur. For example if she touches him; she lets him touch her; and she has led him on. These findings as well as some of the findings from the sexual attitudes scale, indicate that society still holds women responsible for unwanted sexual activity. Even those respondents who said that they worried about being forced to have sex did not say that it was absolutely unacceptable, in any situation for a man to sexually assault a woman.

In the discussion of dating relationships it was found that, when listing the most important attributes for a boyfriend or girlfriend, both males and females said that personality was the most important, but men tended to emphasise the physical characteristics and women tended to emphasise the interpersonal characteristics. The perceptions of what the opposite sex wants in a partner, however, indicate strong traditional stereotypes. Both sexes perceive the other sex to be superficial. Women think men are looking at their bodies and men think women are looking at their bank accounts. These differences in perceptions are sure to set up rivalry and animosity between the sexes.

Perceptions of expectations are very important when one discusses the perception of sexual intent. Both sexes think that acting suggestively or in a suggestive manner is quite sufficient an indication of sexual interest. What "sexy" means to each of the sexes is not clear. However, given the results

noted in the area of misperceptions of friendliness, it is quite possible that males may perceive a woman's behaviour as sexual interest when, in fact, this is not at all the woman's intent. The vagueness of the terms such as "sexy", "body language", "seductive look", or "when she comes on to you", leaves the definition of the situation up to the individual thus increasing the possibility of misunderstandings and conflict.

Conflicting sexual expectations were found in the results when the respondents were asked about the timing for sexual intercourse. Women were more likely than men to suggest that there must be an emotional and or mental bond between her and her would-be lover before she would have sex. Emotional and mental bonds take time, thus indicating that they would be willing to wait longer to have sex than men who were more likely to suggest or react to physical cues for sexual readiness.

Most of the respondents are sexually active and think that premarital sex is acceptable. Most are sexually responsible using birth control, although a small, but significant, number are at risk of pregnancy. The most common form of birth control is the pill, despite the discovery, in the last two decades, of some serious side effects. The respondents were very egalitarian in their views on responsibility for birth control, as they believe sex is a mutual decision.

The second part of the chapter focussed on those in relationships and the types of abuse they may have experienced. A significant number of respondents said that they had been

called names or verbally abused. Twice as many who had been abused called their partner names or had verbally abused their partner. Some respondents did not identify specific name calling as verbal abuse. As this form of abuse is a very powerful manipulative tool, the non-recognition of this name calling as abuse is significant.

In general the male respondents seem to have been physically abused more often than were the female respondents. As well, the males tended to report less abusive behaviour on their part than did the females. This study did not address threats of violence by one's partner. As verbal abuse is a manipulative tool, so too are threats of violence a powerful method of manipulating one's partner.

The final type of abuse addressed is sexual abuse. Twice as many males than females said that they had been pressured or forced to have sex by their partner. The perceptions of the incidents, however, were different for males and females as females tended to take the act more seriously. The fact that twice as many men as women said that they had been forced pressured or forced to have sex raises some questions. Physically, there would be a greater difficulty in forcing a man to have sex than in forcing a woman to have sex. However, their statements regarding how they felt about and reacted to the situation indicate that, for most of them, the keyword of the question was "pressure" not "force" as they tended to suggest that the timing was not right or they were seduced, not forced

against their will.

Males, on the other hand, were eight times more likely to pressure or force their partner into having sex than were women. These results seem to contradict the relative numbers of the previous question. The assumption, given the results of the previous question, was that approximately twice as many women as men would say that they had pressured or forced their partner to have sex. One possible explanation for this difference is that if men perceived pressure or force to be seduction or a difference in timing, then they would use this definition of pressure or force for both questions.

Another reason for this difference is that women are less likely to perceive pressure to have sex as abusive behaviour (Lewis, 1987). Society teaches girls to say "no" and boys to pursue girls despite rejection. In some cases girls learn about sex from their boyfriends who indicate that abusive sexual behaviour is "normal". If their experiences and knowledge are limited, girls are less likely to question their boyfriend's teachings. Also, popular culture tells us that the male sex drive is stronger than the female sex drive. Therefore, girls are more likely to think that pressure is normal and that they are just "frigid" (Lewis, 1987).

Results from the final section of the chapter indicate that there are three sources for sexuality education. These sources are parents, schools, and friends. Most of the respondents had taken sex or family life education in school. However, noting

each year from grades seven to twelve separately, there is no consistency in the amount or type of course given. The courses range from one seminar given by a public health nurse to two classes per week for one year. The results indicate that, not only can a sex education course in high school be interesting, this type of course can be useful and is perceived by the respondents to be a worthwhile and much needed addition to the core curriculum.

There are many interesting findings in this study. The ramifications of some of the findings are more apparent than others. Taken separately these results are significant, although it is the relationship between the various findings which is most important and ultimately the most critical in the explanation of the relationships between the sexes.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This study has examined the relationship between gender role stereotypes and gender relations by analysing the various factors or areas of study that connect these two foci. The research began with a review of the theories of gender role acquisition, as it is important to understand their source in order to understand their impact. This review noted the inadequacies of the theories as they each tended to take one side of the nature/nurture debate to the exclusion of the other side. The preferred theory, first described by Phyllis Katz in 1979, takes into account both sides and can be seen, therefore, as the comprehensive or mixed approach to gender role acquisition that has been called for by some social scientists.

Katz's (1979) model is, relative to the other theories of gender role acquisition, the most inherently reasonable model as it takes into account various influences in a person's life including socialisation agents such as: parents and family, the media, and the school environment, but she also suggests that biology can be a major source of influence at various times in one's lifespan. Katz does not accept the notion that gender roles are acquired in childhood and continue, unchanged throughout one's adult life, which is suggested in most of the other theories. She utilises a lifespan approach suggesting that one's gender role identity and one's ideas about gender roles are modified throughout one's life as the various influences

shift in importance. This survey is a snapshot within the model, focussing on late adolescence and early adulthood and cannot, therefore, give support to the appropriateness of the model.

The model identifies one's peers as the most important socialising force at this time. Therefore gender role stereotypes that may be espoused by one's peers may have an impact on one's behaviour and gender role identity. The survey found that, generally, males held more traditional views than females. There is the potential, then, for conflict as traditional males and nontraditional females seek partners. There were some instances, however, in which both males and females indicated the adherence to gender role stereotypes. It would seem, therefore, that females and males are receiving mixed messages, suggesting that they must be both traditional and nontraditional, depending on the situation. Although Katz does acknowledge that some stages in one's life could be more traditional than others, she does not specify which stages are traditional and which are nontraditional.

The ideas one has about gender roles are very important in the context of dating relationships, as they set up expectations about one's own and one's partner's role or behaviour. This study assessed the existence of traditional gender role stereotypes through an attitudes toward women scale, a sexual attitudes scale, and an attitudes towards sexual assault scale. Across the three scales, males were found to espouse more gender role stereotypes than females. Men were more restrictive of

women's activity, although a large majority said that women should have the same freedom of action as men. Men were also more likely to shift the responsibility for unwanted sexual activity onto women. There were some scale items, however, which indicated that women were restrictive of women's behaviour, although they too, slightly more so than men, believe women should have the same freedom of action as men. It seems, then, that the acceptance of gender role stereotypes varies according to the situation although, in general, the sample felt that men and women should be able to do as they wish, a very confusing message for women that may cause differences in expectations.

This research also looked at areas in which differential expectations may be caused by lack of communication between the sexes. The first area discussed is attraction, what people are looking for in a partner. Coupled with this is a question about what people think the opposite sex is looking for in a partner. Both men and women seem to be looking at personality or interpersonal skills of a potential partner, but they believe that the opposite sex is looking at superficial qualities. The answers about what the opposite sex finds attractive indicates gender role stereotypes in action; males thought females were looking at their money, and females thought males were looking at their bodies. These differences in perceptions may cause animosity and distrust, thus making honest communication very difficult.

One area of differing expectations which has been found to be a source of conflict in relationships is sex and sexuality. Perceptions of sexual intent and timing of sexual activity were examined and the results indicate that this could be a cause of conflict. The respondents were asked when they felt they would be ready to have sex and the results show that men would be ready to have sex earlier than women. Women tended to want a mental or emotional bond with their lover, whereas men rely on physical cues as an indication of sexual readiness. As indicated in the discussion of the literature, males tend to expect or want sexual involvement earlier than females; this finding seems to be supported by these results.

Perceptions of sexual intent held by males and females can also be misperceptions. Under consideration here was how men can tell if a woman is interested in having sex and how a woman can tell a man she is interested in having sex. Both sexes used vague and ambiguous terms in their answers. Most suggested that a man can tell if a woman is "suggestive" or "sexy". As previous research has shown that men and women perceive these types of behaviour in different ways (Abbey, 1982; 1986), the potential is very strong that there will be a misunderstanding or a misperception of friendliness.

Misperceptions of sexual intent or friendliness, misunderstandings stemming from lack of communication or differing expectations based on one's ideas about gender roles that are not met by one's partner, all cause conflict in

relationships. The result of the conflict can be an argument, or conflict can lead to more serious problems in the form of abusive behaviour.

This research looked at three types of abuse in relationships: verbal, physical and sexual abuse. It was found that at least 23% of those in relationships had been called names or verbally abused, and approximately 40% have verbally abused their partners. Even more significant is the number of respondents who did not recognise name calling as verbal abuse. Physical abuse occurred in between 7% and 20% of the relationships depending on the type of physical abuse. Missing from these results are threats of physical violence and the incidence of extreme forms of abuse such as beating and assault with a weapon, both of which have been found, in the literature, to be experienced by women more than by men. This may help to explain the findings that males seem to be experiencing physical abuse more often than are females. Sexual abuse was reported by 19% of the respondents, who said that their partner had pressured or forced them to have sex, and 9.5% said that they had pressured or forced their partners to have sex. Twice as many males as females said they had been pressured to have sex but eight times as many males as females said that they had pressured or forced their partner to have sex.

The next step in the study of gender roles and gender relations is to assess what can be done to stop this abuse. How can society prevent the conflict that is caused by differing

expectations based on gender role stereotypes? It would seem that the long term goal should be to help people understand how gender role stereotypes affect their perceptions of themselves and their perceptions of others, thereby affecting their relationships. A short term objective might be to prevent the dissemination of gender role stereotypes in society.

As discussed in Katz's model, and in some of the literature, the media has a great deal of influence in the development of gender role identity. As a short term objective, then, that which is under public control that contains gender role stereotypes could be censored. This, however, is a negative approach and, as in any effort to censor views, would come up against a great deal of opposition. This approach makes decisions for people as to what are inappropriate views and thoughts and it does not really help those who hold stereotypic views to understand the impact of these views on their perception of themselves and others. This approach is similar to the censorship of pornographic materials, where there does not seem to be a consensus as to what should be censored.

In order to have a greater and longer lasting impact one needs to take a different approach. The long term goal of ridding society of gender role stereotypes can only be accomplished through education. This is a more positive approach than censorship as it allows people to discover for themselves the effect of gender role stereotypes. The most appropriate place for this education is in the schools as this is one of the

three main socialisation agents in a person's life. The educational system is preferred over parents and peers because it is a universal system and therefore offers the opportunity to standardise what is taught and to ensure that the curriculum is current and contains correct information. The ideal time would be adolescence, as this is a time when males and females are becoming aware of their sexuality and interested in the opposite sex.

The biological changes adolescents are experiencing are linked to masculinity and femininity, and it has been found that, during this time, rigid sex typing occurs (Atkinson, 1987). Adolescents are attempting to define appropriate gender roles in order to find their place in society and among their peers. This need to fit in with their peers causes some adolescents to be very traditional in their perceptions of their own and other's behaviour. This rigidity causes, what some call, "sexual polarization", whereby males must act in a masculine manner and females must act in a feminine manner (Katz & Boswell, 1986; Atkinson, 1987). The polarization of males and females sets up certain expectations which, if not met, could lead to conflict in the relationship, possibly resulting in abuse. Henton et al. (1983) found that, on the average, dating abuse began at the age of 15.3 years.

It would seem, then, that adolescence would be the most appropriate time to teach a broad based course with four main objectives. The first objective is to increase the students'

self-esteem and sense of personal power. The second objective is for students to understand the effects and limitations that gender role stereotypes place on both males and females. The third objective is to teach the students to recognise manipulative and abusive behaviour, specifically that behaviour which is not readily recognised as manipulative and abusive. The final objective is to enable males and females to open the lines of communication so as to diminish the chances of misunderstandings and incorrect expectations.

The course would deal specifically with:

1. Gender Roles - theories of how they are acquired; gender role stereotypes; influence of the media on gender role stereotypes;
2. The effect of gender role stereotypes - on self-perception; self-esteem; perception of others; decision making; expectations regarding sexuality and sexual behaviour;
3. Results of gender role stereotypes - lack of communication and openness between the sexes;
4. Relationships - how gender role stereotypes affect relationships; expectations of partners; and
5. Abusive Behaviour - verbal, physical and sexual abuse; what is abuse; what is manipulation; is manipulation abuse; why people will suffer abuse just to keep a relationship going.

This material does not need to be presented in a separate course, in fact, since many of the ideas could be seen as "feminist" views, it might be best if they were presented in the

context of another course, most logically a course on sex education. The difficulties with presenting views that are seen as "feminist" is discussed in research on sex-role courses that have been given in the United States. It was found that male students felt threatened and therefore tended to reject the material presented (Kahn & Richardson, 1983).

The Ministry of Education for the province of British Columbia has developed a Family Life Education programme into which the elements of the course described above would easily fit. At present, the Family Life Education programme does cover some of these subjects. The junior curriculum (grades 7-9) has some discussion of gender role stereotypes in the area of careers and dating, but the treatment of this subject is very superficial and there is a need for further discussion in the senior curriculum (grades 10-12) (Ministry of Education, 1987; 1987b). The influence of the media is mostly dealt with at the junior level and, again it is necessary to continue this discussion at the senior level as the students gain a better understanding of gender role stereotypes.

The subject of relationships is dealt with in both the junior and senior curriculum. The junior curriculum discusses attraction and what males and females are looking for in a girlfriend or boyfriend. At the senior level there is a discussion of the differences in expectations of sexual behaviour in dating relationships. However, the advice is not to consider all options and make the decision that is best for

them. Instead, the curriculum strongly encourages the students to abstain from sexual activity until they are in a "multidimensional relationship, such as marriage". The senior curriculum has some discussion of exploitive or manipulative behaviour, but, it does not deal with this subject adequately as it only deals with sexually exploitive behaviour. There are other forms of manipulative behaviour such as verbal abuse and threats of physical violence which should be addressed.

In general, although the government has shown some willingness to deal with sex education in the school system, this programme does not do enough to further the four objectives identified for this type of course. Throughout the programme there is an undertone of a specific morality that: discourages sex before marriage and is anti-choice in the matter of abortion, themes which are tied together with a touch of fire and brimstone. For example, from the Teacher Resource Module for grades 7-9 and grades 10-12 come the following quotes.

...emphasize that only consenting sexual relations in the context of an emotionally gratifying and multifaceted, mature relationship such as marriage hold out the prospect of satisfaction and happiness.
(Ministry of Education, 1987b : 18)

Point out that the only way to be 100 per cent sure of not having to deal with an unplanned and unwanted pregnancy is to postpone sexual intimacy. (Ministry of Education, 1987b : 36)

Abortion is identified as soley an ultimate recourse, legally allowable only under certain circumstances and fraught with ethical and emotional difficulties.
(Ministry of Education, 1987b : 85)

Conclude the class by indicating once more that, despite the limited medical risks that abortion presents for the mother (assuming abortion is legally allowable in her

case), there are significant ethical concerns associated with abortion - concerns that could later engender negative thoughts and feelings, if not heeded. (Ministry of Education, 1987b : 89)

...consequences of premature sexual involvement could possibly affect students' future. (Ministry of Education, 1987a : 124)

In one of the videos used in the grade 7-9 course a teenage mother says

...never have sex unless you plan to be a mother. (Ministry of Education, 1987a)

An "educator" in the same video said

...the only fool proof form of birth control is abstinence. (Ministry of Education, 1987a)

Throughout the curriculum, specifically the Teacher Resource Modules, are statements that are difficult to assess as they seem true but they also seem to have another meaning.

The reiteration of the statement that abstinence is the only 100% sure way of avoiding pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases and possibly death will not scare adolescents away from sexual experimentation, nor encourage informed and well thought out decisions regarding sexuality. Instead adolescents may become sexually active but will be unwilling to discuss their decision for fear of encountering recrimination rather than understanding. This is probably not the best way to approach the education of adolescents as adolescence is a time of experimentation, testing limits and rebellion. What might be better, or more productive is courses that are not judgemental or moralistic and take into account the needs and interests of the students.

There does exist a course that teaches about self-esteem and assertiveness, but it is a course on sexual assault avoidance and is only for girls. The girls emerge from this course feeling empowered and positive about who they are and have nontraditional views about women's place in society. Boys, too, have a programme, but this is for those who are already abusers. There are no programmes for boys that are equivalent to the self-esteem courses for girls. It would seem that, because boys are perceived to be less at risk of abusive behaviour than girls, society feels that they are high in self-esteem and they do not need to be empowered. It is time that society began to focus some of its energy on boys. As differences in expectations are one of the main sources of conflict in relationships it is important that society avoid a situation in which girls are emerging from these courses to meet boys who still hold traditional views about gender roles.

Gender role stereotypes are a very important element in the equation that produces abusive relationships. Gender role stereotypes are myths about what are "real men" and "real women" but gender roles are really a false dichotomy and gender role stereotypes are just caricatures of human experiences (Hare-Mustin, 1988). The separation of females and males is preserved and supported by accentuating the differences and marginalising the similarities. Gender role stereotypes depict men as superior, freer and capable of coping in the world alone; they depict women as inferior, emotional, and in need of a man's guidance. It would seem, then, that any alleged benefits of

these stereotypes would accrue to males, not to females. It is usually in the interests of the dominant group, in this case males, to maintain their differences from others. However, those who seek to limit the behaviour of women also place limits on themselves. If we do not help men to move away from the traditional gender roles, they will be bound to lives that are as limited as they are privileged.

APPENDIX A

Instructions

Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Please answer the questions in the space provided. If you do not have enough space, write on the back of the page but please identify the question you are answering.

If at some point you do not wish to continue with the survey, please give the questionnaire to the Researcher and it will not be used in the study.

*NOTE - This is the questionnaire given to male subjects. The same questionnaire was given to females with appropriate changes. i.e. girlfriend is changed to boyfriend.

~~PART A~~

1. The items below are to find out what kind of person you are. Each item is a pair of contradictory characteristics, you cannot be both at the same time. Between the two extremes is a scale, circle the number where you think you would fall on the scale.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------------------|
| Not at all aggressive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very aggressive |
| Not at all independent | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very independent |
| Not at all emotional | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very emotional |
| Very submissive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very dominant |
| Very passive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very active |
| Very rough | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very gentle |
| Not at all helpful to others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very helpful to others |
| Not at all competitive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very competitive |
| Very home oriented | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Not at all home oriented |
| Not at all kind | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very kind |
| Indifferent to others' approval | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Highly needful of others' approval |
| Feelings not hurt easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Feelings hurt easily |
| Can make decisions easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Has difficulty making decision |
| Not at all aware of feelings of others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very aware of feelings of others |
| Gives up easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Never gives up easily |
| Never cries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Cries very easily |

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------------------|
| Not at all self-confident | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very self-confident |
| Feels very inferior | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Feels very superior |
| Not at all understanding of others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very understanding of others |
| Very affectionate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Not at all affectionate |
| Very little need for security | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very strong need for security |
| Goes to pieces under pressure | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Stands up well under pressure |

2. If you could have any career, what would it be?

3. What do you think you will be doing in 20 years?

4. Using the following scale, where would you place your response?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| strongly agree | agree | mildly agree | mildly disagree | disagree | strongly disagree | Don't Know |

By nature, women are better at taking care of the home and children than are men. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

Women should expect to have the same freedom of action as men. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

Swearing and obscenity are worse in the speech of a woman than a man. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

| 1 strongly agree | 2 agree | 3 mildly agree | 4 mildly disagree | 5 disagree | 6 strongly disagree | 9 Don't Know | | | | |
|--|------------|----------------------|-------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|--------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Men should always pay the expense of a date. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| There are certain jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired and promoted. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| The most important work for a woman is that of wife and mother. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| A career should be more important to a man than to a woman. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| Competing with men makes women less feminine. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| It is more important for a woman to be pretty than to be smart. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| Women are happier when they work for men than for women. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| If a man doesn't want a girlfriend there's got to be something wrong with him. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| Women should not work outside the home except in cases of financial necessity. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| Men generally prefer women who are not too intelligent or competitive. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| Men are happier when working for other men than for women. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| It is okay for girls to play on the same sports team with boys. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| It is better for a husband to make more money than a wife. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| If a woman doesn't want a boyfriend there's got to be something wrong with her. | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |

5. Do you live with your parents?

YES _____ (go to next question)
NO _____ (go to question 7)

6. If YES, Do you live with

Both? _____
Mother? _____
Father? _____

7. If NO, Do you live:

alone? _____ with other relative? _____ with spouse? _____
with friends? _____ other(explain) _____

8. Are your parents :

Married? _____ Common-Law? _____
Divorced? _____ Separated? _____
Widowed? _____ Single? _____
Other? _____

9. Have your parents encouraged you to have a girlfriend?

Mother: Yes _____ Father: Yes _____
No _____ No _____

If YES, How was this done? _____

10. Have your parents ever told you that it was about time for you to settle down and get married?

Mother: Yes _____ Father: Yes _____
No _____ No _____

Is there pressure on you to do so?

from Mother: Yes _____ from Father: Yes _____
No _____ No _____

11. Using the following scale, describe your family relationship.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
|--|----------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|------------------------------|
| | strongly agree | agree | mildly agree | mildly disagree | disagree | strongly disagree | Don't Know Not Applicable |
| My parents really love each other. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| My Mother's main concern is cooking, cleaning and taking care of the family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| My Father tends to dominate my Mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| My siblings and I get along well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| My parents have an equal partnership; one is not stronger than the other. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| When my Father loses his temper it can be pretty scary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| My Mother tends to dominate my Father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| When my Mother loses her temper it can be pretty scary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| My Father's main concern is his career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |

Use the following list of personal attributes to answer questions 12 through 15:

| | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| Height | Ethnic Background | Religion |
| Build Figure | Physical Strength | Attractiveness |
| Fidelity | Facial Features | Intelligence |
| Honesty | Warmth | Legs |
| Personality | Sexuality | Sensitivity |
| Patience | Weight | Political Views |
| Skin | Chest Bust | Temperament |
| Kindness | Clothing | Money |
| Sense of Humour | | |

12. List in order of importance the five(5) characteristics that you feel are the MOST IMPORTANT in a girlfriend.

(most important) 1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

13. List the five(5) characteristics that are the LEAST IMPORTANT in your choice of girlfriend.

1. 2.
3. 4.
5.

14. List six(6) things that you think girls find attractive in boys.

1. 2.
3. 4.
5. 6.

15. List seven(7) things that girls would find attractive about you?

1. 2.
3. 4.
5. 6.
7.

16. How can you tell if you are ready to have sex with a woman?

17. Do you think it is okay to go out with a woman you don't like? Yes ___ No ___ Why? _____

18. How long would you have to go out with a woman to consider her your girlfriend?

19. Have you engaged in any sexual activity (other than intercourse)? NO ___ (go to question 21)
YES ___ (go to next question)

If YES, What? Necking|Kissing _____
Petting-above the waist _____
Petting-below the waist _____
Other _____

20. If YES; How often in the past two months?

21. Have you ever had sexual intercourse?
NO ___ (go to question 25)
YES ___ (go to next question)

22. If YES, How often in the past two months? _____

23. Do you use birth control?

always ___ often ___ once in a while ___ never _____

24. What kind of birth control do you use?

rhythm___ withdrawal___ diaphragm___ IUD___
condoms___ foam|cream___ combined condom and foam|cream___
Pill___ other(explain)_____

25. Who do you think should be responsible for birth control?

man___ woman___ both___ birth control is wrong___
Why?_____

26. Using the scale, how do you view sex before marriage?

Absolutely 1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely
Acceptable Unacceptable

WHY?_____

27. Using the following scale, place your response.

1 2 3 4 5 6 9
strongly agree mildly mildly disagree strongly Don't
agree agree agree disagree disagree Know

Once a man is turned on he 1 2 3 4 5 6 9
can't stop.

It is not rape if you know 1 2 3 4 5 6 9
the guy.

Sex is a test of love. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

I worry about being forced to 1 2 3 4 5 6 9
have sex.

Sometimes women will have sex 1 2 3 4 5 6 9
even if they don't want to.

| | | | | | | |
|----------|-------|--------|----------|----------|----------|-------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| strongly | agree | mildly | mildly | disagree | strongly | Don't |
| agree | | agree | disagree | | disagree | Know |

Alcohol would not affect my ability to make a decision regarding sex. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

For a woman, being whistled at or having sexual comments made to you is a good thing. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

Sometimes men will have sex even if they don't want to. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

Women who act or dress suggestively are asking to be raped. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

28. How can a man tell, through a woman's words or actions, if she is interested in sex?

29. How can a woman, through words or actions, tell a man she is interested in sex without being thought of as forward?

30. Using the scale, where would you place your response to the following statements?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| strongly agree | agree | mildly agree | mildly disagree | disagree | strongly disagree | Don't Know |

IT IS OKAY FOR A MAN TO HOLD A WOMAN DOWN AND FORCE HER TO HAVE SEX IF:

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| He spends a lot of money on her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| He is so turned on he can't stop. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She has had sex with other men. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She is stoned or drunk. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She let him touch her above the waist. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She lets him touch her below the waist. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She touches him below the waist. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She says she is going to have sex with him but changes her mind. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| They have dated a long time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She gets him sexually excited. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| She has led him on. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |

31. Are you married? Yes ___ (go to PART B)
 No ___ (go to next question)

32. Are you going out with someone now?
 No ___ (go to next question)
 Yes ___ (go to PART B)

33. In the past SIX(6) MONTHS have you had a girlfriend?
 No ___ (GO TO PART C)
 Yes ___
 If yes, How many? ___ (go to PART B)

PART B

USE YOUR MOST RECENT OR YOUR PRESENT RELATIONSHIP TO ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

1. How long is your present or was your most recent relationship?(Married persons, please state length of marriage and length of time you went out with your spouse before you were married)

2. How old is your girlfriend? _____

If you know, what is her birthdate?

Day ___ Month ___ Year ___

3. Are you in the same: University|College? Yes ___ No ___
Year? Yes ___ No ___

4. If you are in the same University or College how many of your classes is your girlfriend in? _____

How many classes are you taking? _____

5. What is your MAJOR? _____

6. How often do you see each other outside of school hours?

| | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| once a day _____ | once a month _____ |
| several times a week _____ | several times a month _____ |
| once a week _____ | less than once a month _____ |

7. How often do you spend time alone with your girlfriend?

| | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| once a day _____ | once month _____ |
| several times a week _____ | several times a month _____ |
| once a week _____ | less than once a month _____ |

8. Using the following scale, indicate your response to statements about yourself within your relationship.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 9 |
|-------------------|-------|-----------------|--------------------|----------|----------------------|---------------|
| strongly agree | agree | mildly agree | mildly disagree | disagree | strongly disagree | Don't Know |

I am happy with my life. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

I don't mind going out without my girlfriend. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

My friends like my girlfriend. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

I like going out with my friends. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

I wish I could spend all my time with my girlfriend. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

If I didn't want to go out with my girlfriend when she wanted to, she would understand. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

My girlfriend is more important to me than my friends. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

My girlfriend likes to keep me all to herself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

Since I started going out with my girlfriend I don't do some of the things I used to do. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

I spend more time with my friends than I do with my girlfriend. 1 2 3 4 5 6 9

9. Has your girlfriend ever called you names or verbally abused you?

YES _____
NO _____
Don't Know _____

10. How often, if ever, does your girlfriend say the following to you?

| 1 always | 2 often | 3 once in a while | 4 never | 9 don't know | | |
|---|------------|----------------------|------------|-----------------|---|---|
| You're fat. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You're attractive. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You're a loser. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| I love you. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You're ugly. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You're stupid. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You look really nice. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You're queer. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You couldn't get anybody else to go out with you. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| I don't like your clothes. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You're very intelligent. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |

11. What other things, positive or negative, does she say or names does she call you?(please specify)

12. How do you respond to your girlfriend?

13. Have you ever called your girlfriend names? No___(go to question 16)

Yes___ If YES, How often?_____(go to next question)

14. What do you say to her? _____

15. How does your girlfriend respond to you?

16. Using the following scale, does your girlfriend:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
|-----------------------------|--------|-------|-----------------|-------|------------|
| | always | often | once in a while | never | don't know |
| Hit you with an open hand? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Hit you with a closed hand? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Push or shove you around? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Kick you? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |

17. Other (please explain) _____

If you answered NEVER to all of the above
go to question 19.

18. How do you respond to your girlfriend?

19. Using the following scale, do you:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 | | | |
|--|--------|-------|-----------------|-------|------------|---|---|---|
| | Always | Often | Once in a While | Never | Don't Know | | | |
| Hit your girlfriend with an open hand? | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Hit your girlfriend with a closed hand? | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Push or shove your girlfriend? | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Kick your girlfriend? | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |

20. Other (please explain)? _____

If you answered NEVER to all of the above go to question 22.

21. How does your girlfriend respond to you?

22. Has your girlfriend ever pressured or forced you to have sexual intercourse when you didn't want to?

YES _____ (go to next question)

NO _____ (go to question 32)

23. If YES, Did you have sex with her? Yes _____
No _____

24. What kind of pressure or force was used?
(Check all that apply.)

verbal persuasion _____ verbal threats _____

physical intimidation _____ other (specify) _____

25. If the pressure or force was VERBAL use the scale to indicate if your girlfriend has said any of the following?

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
|--|--------|-------|-----------------|-------|------------|
| | always | often | once in a while | never | Don't Know |
| If you loved me you would. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| Everybody else is doing it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| You can't tease me and leave me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| I want to make you feel like a real man. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| If I can't have you there's no reason to live. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| What's the matter, don't you know how? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
| We've had sex before; you can't say no now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 9 |
|--|-------|-----------------|-------|------------|
| always | often | once in a while | never | Don't Know |
| You really want it, I know you do. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |
| If you don't, I'll tell everyone that you did, anyway. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |
| What's the matter? Are you gay? | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |
| It will help our relationship grow. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |
| You're my boyfriend you owe it to me. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |
| You should be grateful, you're so ugly nobody else would want you. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |
| You're not the only man I could date. | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | | 4 | 9 |

26. What did you say or do to stop your girlfriend?
(Check appropriate response(s))

I tried reasoning with her _____

I used an excuse such as:

"I don't feel well" etc. _____

I got angry _____

I screamed or yelled _____

I physically resisted and fought back _____

I tried to escape or run away _____

I froze _____

other (please specify) _____

27. How did you feel afterwards? (Check appropriate response(s))

Upset _____

Hurt physically _____

Depressed _____

Hurt emotionally _____

Violated _____

Betrayed _____

Cheated _____

Don't Know _____

Other (please explain) _____

28. How did your girlfriend act afterwards?
(Check appropriate response(s))

Satisfied _____

Embarassed _____

Powerful _____

Proud _____

Ashamed _____

Angry _____

Sorry _____

Other (please explain) _____

29. What did you do afterwards? (Check appropriate response(s))

I told my closest friend _____

I told my brother/sister _____

I told my parents _____

I told her parents _____

I contacted a social worker or other counsellor _____

I called a Crisis Centre _____

I called the police _____

I took no action _____

Other (please specify) _____

30. Did you continue to go out with your girlfriend
after this incident? No _____ Yes _____

Why? _____

31. Did you want the relationship to continue after
the incident? No _____ Yes _____

Why? _____

32. Have you ever pressured or forced your girlfriend to
have sex with you when she didn't want to?

YES _____ (go to next question)

NO _____ (go to PART C)

Don't Know _____ (go to PART C)

33. If YES, How did your girlfriend respond?
(Check appropriate response(s))

Tried reasoning with me _____
Used an excuse such as: "I'm having my period" |
"I don't feel well" etc. _____
Got angry _____
Screamed or yelled _____
Physically resisted and fought back _____
Tried running away _____
Froze _____
Other (please explain) _____

34. How did your girlfriend feel/act afterward?
(Check appropriate response(s))

Upset _____ Hurt physically _____
Depressed _____ Hurt emotionally _____
Violated _____ Betrayed _____
Cheated _____ Don't Know _____
Other (please explain) _____

35. How did you feel/act afterward?
(Check appropriate response(s))

Satisfied _____ Embarrassed _____
Powerful _____ Proud _____
Ashamed _____ Angry _____
Other (please explain) _____

36. Did the relationship continue afterwards?

No _____
Yes _____

Why? _____

37. Did you want the relationship to continue afterwards?

No _____
Yes _____

Why? _____

PART C

1. From whom or what did you first receive sex education?

parents _____ friends _____ other (please explain) _____
school _____ books _____

2. How old were you? _____

3. Did you take a course in sex education in high school?

Yes _____
No _____

4. In what grades?

How often was the class?

grade 7 _____
8 _____
9 _____
10 _____
11 _____
12 _____

5. In what grades was sex education part of the required curriculum? What course was it?

6. Was it a mixed class? (ie. both boys and girls) Yes _____
No _____

7. Did you find it interesting? Yes _____ No _____

8. Did you find it useful? Yes _____ No _____

Why? _____

9. What would you like to see added to sex education courses in secondary schools?
(special topics, specific information etc.)

10. Do you think sex education courses in secondary schools are worthwhile? YES _____ NO _____

WHY? _____

11. What is your favourite type of music?

Pop|Rock _____ R&B _____ Folk _____
Heavy Metal _____ Punk|Newwave _____ Classical _____
Other(specify) _____

12. List in order of preference your five(5) favourite musical groups or singers.

(Favourite) 1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

13. Have you ever read any of the following magazines?

Playboy _____ Penthouse _____
Playgirl _____ Hustler _____
Other of same type(specify) _____

14. Which of these magazines have you bought?

Playboy _____ Penthouse _____
Playgirl _____ Hustler _____
Other of same type(specify) _____

15. Which do you read on a regular basis? _____

16. What other magazines do you read on a regular basis?

17. In some magazines and on television there are advertisements for certain services you can get by calling a specific number. Have you ever called for any of the following services? How often in the past two months?

| | NO | YES | # of times in past 2 months |
|-------------------|-------|-------|--------------------------------|
| time of day | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| jokes | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| erotic messages | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| astrology | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| romantic messages | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| dial-a-prayer | _____ | _____ | _____ |

18. Sex M _____ F _____

19. Date of birth day _____ month _____ year _____

20. Where were you born? _____

21. Where were your parents born?
 Mother _____ Father _____

22. What is your Religion? _____

23. Do your parents work?
 Mother: YES-Full-time _____
 YES-Part-time _____
 NO _____
 Not applicable _____

Father: YES-Full-time _____
 YES-Part-time _____
 NO _____
 Not applicable _____

24. Family Income: -\$9,999 _____
 \$10,000 -19,999 _____
 \$20,000 -29,999 _____
 \$30,000 -39,999 _____
 \$40,000 -49,999 _____
 \$50,000 -99,999 _____
 \$100,000 + _____

 Don't Know _____

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