

HYPERGENDERISM: RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION IN SUBSTANCE
DEPENDENT MEN

by

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Running Head: HYPERGENDERISM AND RELATIONSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

Eighty six substance dependent males were surveyed with regard to relationship satisfaction and adherence to extreme gender ideation. Relationship satisfaction was measured using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976) and the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMSS; Schumm et al., 1986). Hypergenderism is defined as adherence to extreme gender role and measured using the Hypergender Ideology Scale (HGIS – 19; Hamburger et al., 1996).

Participants reported distressed relationships; however, a significant relationship was not found between Hypergenderism and overall Relationship Satisfaction. Two subscales of the DAS were negatively correlated.

The results may have implications for addictions therapy where treatment may emphasize gender role ideation as a significantly related to the complex etiological patterns that motivate an individual towards substance use and dependence. Practitioners may choose to assess hypergendered adherence in order to determine whether this construct may be a factor in relationship experience, therapeutic interventions and positive counseling outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Men dealing with substance dependence are the focus of this study. They often enter treatment with few resources, financially and socially bankrupt. They come from a wide variety of backgrounds. Some are wealthy; many originate from a low social economic status. There are professionals, laborer, tradesmen and artists. The causes of substance dependence have been studied for decades with researchers attempting to develop some common theory that binds them together.

The facility in which this study was conducted was a 55 bed residential treatment center for men. It is both privately and publicly funded and offers a voluntary five-week program that includes information on substances and their physical effects, experiential groups that encourage a balanced approach to life and relapse prevention strategies. It is my experience that many substance dependent men suffer from extreme beliefs of what a man ought to be. This motivates many of their behaviors including the ingestion of alcohol and other chemicals.

Hypergenderism and Relationships

Gender role identities are important to the understanding of behavior. People behave in ways that are consistent with their gender-role identities because gender identification is stable over time (Burke & Hoelter, 1989; Stryker, 1980). This study is concerned with the gender roles of hypermasculinity (HM) (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984) and hyperfemininity (HF) (Murnen & Byrne, 1991) and the influence of these extreme identities on relationship satisfaction.

Much research has been carried out on the factors that are related to dissatisfaction and instability in romantic relationships. Some factors are the history of

instability (Aguirre & Parr, 1982), relationships characterized by volatility in interactions (Fowers, Montel, & Olson, 1996),

The adherence to exaggerated or extreme gender roles has been found to have a negative impact upon relationship dyads (Ray & Gold, 1996; Norris & Kerr, 1993), whereas androgynous sex role behavior is primarily seen as having a positive effect upon the relationship (Bem, 1979; Juni & Grimm, 1994).

The Bem Sex Role inventory (BSRI) was originally developed as a self-report measure of the global constructs of masculinity and femininity in order to identify gender-typed and non-gender-typed (androgynous) individuals. Later work has supported challenges to the bipolarity assumption of masculinity and femininity (Blanchard-Fields, Suhrer-Roussel, & Hertzog, 1994). There is some consensus in the theoretical and empirical literature which maintains masculinity and femininity should be treated not as correlated, but as orthogonal constructs (Marsh & Myers, 1986).

Extreme gender adherence is most often researched in relation to the etiology of negative behaviors that occur in relationships. HF can serve to increase the acceptance and facilitate the maintenance of abusive patterns in the relationship by way of learned helplessness (Murnen & Byrne, 1991). HM involves favorable responses to violent sexual acts (Norris & Kerr, 1993) and promiscuity (Bogaert & Fisher, 1995). Maltreatment of the partner is more likely to occur when HM is coupled with alcohol (Ray & Gold, 1996).

This research will consider issues related to hypergenderism and attraction, masculinity and aggression, sexual coercion, hyperfemininity and attraction, how expectations may affect relationship satisfaction, and the development of a

hypergenderism scale.

Attraction. There has been considerable interest in studying which gender role types are attracted to each other (Desrochers, 1995; Lombardo, Francis & Brown, 1988; Maybach & Gold, 1994). Diverse character traits may motivate attraction (Ickes, 1991; Maybach & Gold, 1994). For instance, some women seem to be more attracted to men who possess both masculine and feminine characteristics (Lobel, 1994). The presence of androgynous characteristics has shown some connection to relationship longevity and happiness within the relationship (Green & Kenrick, 1994; Cramer, Cupp & Kuhn, 1993).

Lombardo, Francis and Brown (1988) studied the attraction of young men and women to other gender-typed individuals. The participants were pre-tested using the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). Individuals were identified as being masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated. The participants then read 3 fictitious protocols, which were supposedly completed by opposite-sex strangers. One protocol was by an androgynous individual, another by an individual exhibiting traditional gender role adherence, and the third protocol represented an undifferentiated individual.

After reading the protocol, the participant was asked to use the Interpersonal Judgement scale (Byrne, 1971) to measure the level of attraction. The participant was then asked to read the protocol again and complete the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem, 1974) for the person described in the protocol. Lombardo et al. (1988) found support for the hypothesis that individuals are attracted to others who bear similarities to themselves. However, individuals adhering to traditional gender-roles were equally attracted to traditional and androgynous individuals. Traditional types may be attracted

only to the traditional gender role characteristics of the androgynous individuals. The non-traditional aspects of their personalities may not be a factor in attraction. In light of this evidence, which androgynous characteristics are found to be attractive?

Desrochers (1995) studied the attraction of women to various types of men. Are women more attracted to “the strong, silent type” or to men who are “sensitive” and have more feminine personality traits? Female college students were given eight stimulus background profiles of men and asked to rate the profiles. The participants were led to believe that the profiles were based upon interviews and that each man was ready to meet the right person and begin a committed relationship. Each fictitious profile had one of three personality traits: masculine, feminine, or androgynous. The participants were asked to rate whether they found themselves to be romantically attracted or whether there was only a platonic attraction to the stimulus profiles.

The findings of Desrochers (1995) showed that romantic attraction was not always associated with profiles portraying traditional gender roles. Women in this study rated men with feminine traits significantly more romantically attractive than men with masculine traits. The women in the study preferred a platonic relationship with an androgynous man than either a more masculine or feminine man. Additionally, women indicated that sharing gender equality ideals is an important characteristic in both friendships and romantic relationships with men.

Cramer, Cupp and Kuhn (1993) also studied the effect of sex role upon attraction in women. Women in this study either listened to or read scripts of men answering questions about topics that are familiar to many people, such as car repairs, use of spare time and romantic interests. Two sets of answers were constructed by a previous sample

of women. The first set consisted of stereotypically masculine answers while the second included both stereotypically masculine and feminine answers (androgynous). The findings of the study showed that the females of the study perceived the androgynous male as being more intelligent, likeable, appropriate and honest.

Green and Kenrick (1994) studied both male and female attraction to stimulus profiles of varying gender role orientation. Attraction was studied at three different levels of commitment in relationship; dating, one-night stand and marriage. Once again, previous participants constructed responses, however, in this study men constructed male responses and women constructed female responses. The results showed that both men and women found androgynous individuals to be most attractive at all commitment levels. There was no evidence that showed traditional gender roles as being more important during dating than during the higher level of commitment of marriage. For both men and women the second most attractive profile was the one portraying high femininity, which may suggest that feminine qualities were more important than masculine qualities for this sample. It is important to note that the profiles exhibiting feminine personality attributes were not devoid of masculine traits but were on the lower end of the scale for masculinity.

In comparative research, Hoyt and Hudson (1981) studied the characteristics that were most important for mate selection in male and female college students. Their results seem to suggest several important changes in comparison to research conducted in 1971 with a similar age group. The participants in this study ranked education, intelligence, and physical appearance as the most attractive characteristics. It was found that both men and women placed less emphasis on children and family life than in

previous studies. As well, chastity declined from tenth place to seventeenth, a greater degree than any other characteristic. These differences may reflect changes in the expectations of gender role with traditional ideals becoming less important.

Homogenous versus Heterogenous. For some people, extreme gender roles do come in handy during the attraction phase of the relationship (Maybach & Gold, 1994) when aggressive and submissive styles of relating serve to initiate the romantic attraction. This can serve to illustrate a paradoxical relationship between personality differences.

On the one hand, many women are initially attracted to the risk-taking male with the “devil-may-care” attitude. She may find the assertive man who seems secure and in control as having the ability to provide protection for her and her future offspring. Men may be attracted to the woman who seems willing to expose her body, inviting sex and permissive of his lack of self-control and willingness to take risks. These differences, however, can antagonize the ability to develop a close relationship. For the hypergendered man, commitment to a relationship, may conflict with the personality characteristics he has developed as being a risk taker. This can cause conflict and relationship discord, creating a volatile relationship.

Homogamy theory states that similarities are of benefit to the relationship and therefore assumes that differences are a deficit. In partner interaction models, the relation of one partner's coping with adjustment varies as a function of the other partner's coping. Research has revealed that attitude similarity predicts marital satisfaction (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Similarly, homogamy in gender roles, may protect couples from distress (Larson & Olson, 1989), such that whether couples make high or low use of particular strategies does not matter, as long as they are similar (Kurdek, 1993).

Heterogenous qualities, on the other hand, can serve as a benefit to the relationship. In this way, diverse personalities may serve a complimentary function where deficits in one individual are taken up by strengths in the other. For example, a woman who finds it difficult to communicate may be facilitated by the strength of her husband in his interpersonal relationship skills. Although people tend to choose spouses much like themselves with respect to age, education, religion, and race, marital heterogamy has increased in recent years. Some researchers believe that the increase in heterogamy may reflect a relaxation of prohibitive social attitudes toward intermarriage (Amato, Johnson, Booth, & Rogers, 2003). However, despite a more supportive social climate, individuals in heterogamous marriages report less marital happiness and divorce more often than do individuals in homogamous marriages (Booth & Edwards, 1992; Heaton, 2002). The increase in marital heterogamy during the last few decades, therefore, may have lowered the mean level of marital quality in the population.

Expectations and Relationship Satisfaction. Landis (1975) cites the following essential factors in the beginning and development of any love relationship that leads to marriage: a) Physical attraction; b) Satisfaction of certain personality needs, for example: to be understood; to have ideals respected; to have desired achievements appreciated; to have moods understood; to receive help in making decisions; to have one's ambition stimulated; to be given self-confidence; to have someone to look at, to appreciate and admire; to be supported in difficulties; to have someone to relieve loneliness, c) Sharing together special interests and cares, d) Same life goals.

The level of satisfaction that people experience is relative to the expectations that they have for the relationship (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). If we want to predict how

satisfied people will be in a relationship, we must take into account their experiences and expectations: the kinds of outcomes they have received in past relationships and based on this previous experience, the kinds of outcomes they expect to receive in the future.

Thibaut and Kelly (1959) called this average expected outcome for relationships the comparison level (or CL) and indicated that CL varies widely among individuals. Some people have a high comparison level; they expect to have positive relationships with others in which the rewards far outweigh the costs. For those expecting very little (a low CL), low rewards may be acceptable; for those expecting a great deal (a high CL), many rewards may be insufficient (Table 1.).

Relationship expectation may be one of the sources of stress experienced by individuals as they begin marriage (Sabatelli, 1988). The importance of the comparison level construct may lie in its role concerning the evaluation of relationship outcomes, and therefore it may determine the level of satisfaction derived from a relationship (Sabatelli, 1988). If behaviors are disappointing malicious interactions can arise. Markman and Hahlweg (1993) found that couples who affirmed and avoided invalidating each other were more likely to have positive relationship outcomes.

Several other studies (Acitelli, 1992; Lamke, 1989; Murstein & Williams, 1985; Noller, 1980; White, Speisman, Jackson, Bartis, & Costos, 1986) demonstrate that husbands' interpersonal skills (e. g., relationship awareness, expressiveness, intimacy, maturity) are more predictive of relationship and life satisfaction than are the same skills in wives. Similarly, Ferraro and Wan (1986), studying older married couples, have shown that the husband's perceptions of relationship satisfaction have a greater effect upon the overall relationship satisfaction of the couple.

Street, Kimmel and Kromrey (1995) studied the gender role perceptions of university students. These researchers used the Sex Role Trait Inventory (SRTI, Street & Meek, 1980) to assess perceptions of traits that are considered to be most applicable to gender roles. Results showed that Compassion and Deference are two factors that were highly correlated with the Feminine ideal on the BSRI. Intellect, Power, and Sexuality were correlated with the Masculine.

In addition, women in this study most often preferred individuals exhibiting traits of Intellect and Compassion, which are most commonly associated with an androgynous Ideal Woman. The traits that women preferred most in an Ideal Man were a combination of Intellect (a masculine trait) and Compassion (an androgynous trait). Women in this study considered Power and Sexuality to be of secondary importance in the Ideal Man image. This study indicated that Deference is not a trait that women find particularly attractive in men. Men also preferred an androgynous Ideal Woman, but their perception of how an Ideal Man ought to be was significantly higher in traditional masculinity than the ideal chosen by the women.

Street et al. (1995) also demonstrated that students' perceptions of Most Men and Most Women have not changed over time. Students in this sample continued to see Most Men and Most Women as being sex-typed. The cognitive ideals of men and women may have become more androgynous over time, but the reality is that traditional values have continued to be manifested.

However, economic roles of men and women in marriage have changed; men as well as women have adopted less traditional views about marriage. For example, the proportion of people who believe that husbands should be breadwinners and wives

should be homemakers has declined substantially since the 1950s (Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001). Several studies indicate that adopting less traditional gender attitudes is associated with lower marital quality among wives but higher marital quality among husbands (Amato & Booth, 1995; Cherlin, 2000). This difference may occur because wives who adopt less traditional views often encounter resistance from their husbands, whereas husbands who adopt less traditional views often receive support from their wives. Consequences of this shift in attitudes for marital quality may vary with sex.

In summary, the bases of relationships are indicative of relationship outcome. Specifically, qualities related to attraction, the level of congruency in personality and expectations of a the overall relationship are some of the many factors contributing to satisfaction. If a man who adheres to an extreme version of masculinity has been able to begin and maintain a relationship for any length of time his partner may, if previous research has been accurate, experience a discrepancy between her ideals and the personality characteristics of her partner. This may result in a lack of satisfaction with the relationships she finds herself in.

Hypergenderism and Personality

Masculinity and Aggression. Campbell and Muncer (1993) studied the relationship between gender roles and aggression. English men and women made up the sample for this study. This sample is distinguished from other studies in that it is not primarily made up of college students but rather of female nurses and enlisted men. The first questionnaire that they completed was a scale rating aggression expressivity. The masculinity and femininity scales of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence and Helmreich, 1976) were then completed. It was found that the men held more positive

attitudes toward aggression than women. Men would be more likely than women to express aggression in private rather than in a public place whereas women show a smaller difference in expression in private versus public places. Occupational role was found to be the strongest variable for differences in aggression among army members, who most often hold a traditionally masculine hypergendered ideal and have a more positive view of aggression (Campbell & Muncer, 1993).

Research has also determined that gender is the strongest correlate of crime and delinquency. Individuals engaging in aggressive violent crimes are most often men (Bartusch & Matsueda, 1996). Hayslett-McCall and Bernard (2002) found that boys experience disruptions of early attachment more than girls. Disruptions are characterized by less compassion and caring as well as aggressive acts directed toward children. According to the researchers, these disruptions are related to what is often described as the masculine gender role (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984). They confirm Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) theory of low self-control (impulsivity) in delinquent boys and argue that parenting techniques stabilize in the individual by the age of 8 and remain relatively constant. Real (1997) called this detachment the beginning of the isolation of the male which leads to anxiety and depression. Studies of rodents suggest that isolation leads to neurotic dispositions and paranoia (Valzelli, 1978). This is exhibited as aggressive and self-protective defense postures when introduced to interactions with others.

Men exhibiting these behaviors often have higher testosterone levels which is usually indicative of extreme masculinity, however, it is uncertain whether the testosterone levels are a result of the environment or if the behavior is a result of testosterone (Mazur & Michalek, 1998).

For males, gender roles pertain not only to magnitude of aggression but manner of aggression. Weisbuch, Beal and O'Neal (1999) researched masculinity in relation to the discrepancy between what others expect and what men actually express. Men high in masculinity, but low in concern of how they ought to act socially, expressed themselves in an overtly aggressive manner. The opposite was true of those men who repressed their aggression due to high sensitivity toward socially acceptable behavior. These men adopted more covert and coercive means of expression of dissatisfaction. The researchers found it ironic that insecurity about how masculine one ought to be resulted in males adopting a pattern of aggression more common with females in our society (Bjorkqvist, 1994).

Masculinity and Emotions. Studies have indicated that extreme masculinity contributes to the expression and tolerance of aggressive behavior. The inability or reduced skills in processing emotions of those men reporting higher levels of masculinity may explain some of the vulnerability to aggressive behavior. Conway (2000) found that higher masculinity was associated with less complex emotional awareness of one's own emotions and those of others.

Men are socialized by their fathers in their masculine ideologies. Guastello and Guastello (2003) utilized the BSRI and the Sex Role Behavior Scale (SRB; Orlofsky, Cohen, & Ramsden, 1985) in order to determine the level of emotional awareness and gender role ideation in college-aged children and their parents (Emotional Intelligence, EI). Older males were generally more masculine, less androgynous and scored lower on EI scales. A relatively low EI was found in fathers and their sons, however, no

significant relationship in EI between low EI fathers and daughters was found. This further suggests that father-son relationships reinforced low EI thinking or behavior.

The imposed independence that men are required to adopt also differs from that of women and may affect their ability to process emotions. Dear and Roberts (2002) found that men with higher masculine gender role identification report lower codependent attitudes and beliefs. Women, overall, tend to endorse codependency more often than men. Codependency was, in this case, a more positive coping mechanism than isolating.

At the same time, men appear to be more easily influenced by their surroundings than women when exposed to alcohol drinking in the workplace (Nusbaum, 2002). This may be due to availability, gender expectations (men are obliged to drink more) or reduced hypervigilance (women are faced with greater potential risk of harm from men) and increased risk taking behavior.

Men tend to have greater difficulty accessing and expressing emotional information (Carpenter & Addis, 2000). Researchers studied gender differences in alexithymia (difficulty in labeling and communicating emotions) and found that men have difficulty thinking or talking about internal states and are far less likely to report that they would think about their feelings and reasons for their mood than women with similar difficulties would. Thus, men's lesser likelihood of introspecting (entertaining awareness) about emotional issues may be due to a difficulty with emotion-related language.

This is significantly related relationship satisfaction. A lack of conscientiousness or sensitivity to one's partner is associated with poor relationship outcome (Kurdek,

1993). Physiological arousal prior to heated discussions has been found to be a predictor of relationship instability and divorce (Levenson & Gottman, 1985). Men tend to have a lower tolerance to emotionally laden interactions (Gottman & Levenson, 1988) although results have been mixed in other research (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 1996). The difficulty men have with emotion is specific to difficulty describing feelings, rather than difficulty identifying them (Carpenter & Addis, 2000). This distinction is important and could suggest either a specific behavioral deficit (e.g., skill with emotional language) or discomfort and reluctance in entertaining awareness of negative affect.

Consistent with previous studies, Carpenter and Addis (2000) also found that women were more likely than men to seek help for depressive symptoms, or to share feelings with friends or family members. They also found partial support for the hypothesis that alexithymic difficulties can account for observed gender differences in response to depressive symptoms. Men tended to avoid sharing their problems with others and were less likely to think about the reasons for the problems they encountered that led to depressive symptoms.

Masculinity and Coercion. Rapaport and Burkhart (1984) have examined adherence to traditional gender roles. They asked men about their participation in sexually coercive activities as well as their adherence to gender roles. The results showed that 28% of participants reported using a directly coercive method at least one time in the past, and 15% of the sample tested reported forcing a woman to have sex at least one time in the past. The best predictor of coercive sexual behavior is attitude toward women (Coercive Sexuality Scale – CSS; Rapaport and Burkhart, 1984). Men characterized as sexually coercive viewed women as being untrustworthy and

manipulative. Women were also believed to be adversaries and it may be this belief that is expressed in their sexual encounters with women.

There is evidence the extent that an individual may allow him/herself to be influenced varies as a function of gender. Eagley and Carli (1981) found that in certain situations some women were more likely to be persuaded than men were. In their study, sexual aggression was found to be more prevalent on traditional dates when the man initiates the meeting, pays for the expenses and drives. Traditional men were more likely to feel entitled to sexual contact than non-traditional men after paying for the expenses on a date (Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987).

Both men and women endorse traditional gender role stereotypes. There are sets of traditional beliefs about rape that are referred to as “rape myths”. These beliefs originate from culturally enforced ideals. Burt (1980) found that over half of participants believed that 50% of rapes were reported because a woman is seeking revenge against a man or she is attempting to cover up an illegitimate pregnancy. These rape myths were connected to other attitudes such as sex role stereotyping and the acceptance of interpersonal violence. Acceptance of interpersonal violence was the strongest indicator of the acceptance of rape myths.

Researchers have shown that that age and perceptions of sexual aggression may be linked. Hutchinson, Tess, Gleckman, Hagans and Reese (1994) studied the perceptions of sexual aggression in college and high school students. Results show that there were no significant differences between males and females at the college level. However, high school males reported being significantly more sexually aggressive than college males. Perhaps high school males do not have the education that college males

have had about sensitivity to sexual aggression or college males may have learned more socially desirable responses to sexually aggressive scenarios. As a caveat, the range of ages in this study is rather limited and the results may not be consistent with other age comparisons.

There are also studies predicting proclivity of men to rape or at least of men sympathizing with ideation associated with rape behavior. Malamuth (1989) asked participants about the number, kind and the amount of enjoyment experienced in sexual encounters. Sexual arousal was then measured in response to written scenarios. Participants read storylines of rape and no rape (neutral) scenarios and were asked about their perceptions of the women's experiences and the responsibility the men in the stories may have had in the situation. For example, in a rape scenario, a woman's is persuaded by the experience of the man's sexual mastery. Her initial revulsion turns to appreciation and acceptance which leads to a surrender to the man's aggression. During the fantasized encounter the female is almost always impressed with the ability of the man to give her pleasure.

Results showed that there was a relationship between attitude and proclivity to rape. Men who had a greater number of sexual experiences and who were also attracted to sexual aggression were more likely to be less sympathetic to the woman and to interpret the woman as having a pleasurable experience as the result of the rape. It seems that some men see women not only as adversaries but also as requiring demonstration of sexual prowess (mastery). It appears part of the fantasy embedded within the rape myth is the uncertainty of his sexual desirability. A man may see rape as a means to demonstrate his virility to an initially unwilling female.

In other research, levels of hypergender ideology were positively associated with levels of coercive sexual behavior (Hamburger, 1995; Hamburger et al., 1996). Hogben, McGowen and Hamburger (1996) expanded the assessment of coercive sexual behavior to include situations under which some people coerce, thus increasing knowledge of the scope of the hypergender ideology and its relation to coercive sexual behavior association. They found that intensity of sexual intentions, but not aggressive intentions, in script responses to a sexually ambiguous scenario were independently related to coercive sexual behavior and to hypergender ideology. Adherence to extreme gender role beliefs was associated with (a) situations under which some people coerce (e.g., a position of authority and the Sexual Experiences Survey - SES, Koss & Gidycz, 1985) and (b) specific methods of coercing (e.g., using a weapon, Coercive Sexuality Scale).

Masculinity and Substance Use. Men, particularly younger men, are more likely to consume alcohol in larger quantities than women (Nusbaumer, 2002). Yu, Evens and Perfette (2003) also found that men drink more and are less likely to seek preventive mental health treatment compared to women. Those who do acknowledge their need to reduce drinking are more likely to be problematic drinkers. Therefore, men who are studied in a treatment setting are very likely to have extreme problems with substance use or dependence.

The use of alcohol is related to aggression which is linked to hyper masculine beliefs (Weisbuch, Beal & O'Neal, 1999, Campbell & Muncer, 1993; Bartusch & Matsueda, 1996). Threats and physical battering of women are much more common as both recent and long term patterns among men who often drink to the point of intoxication, (Hutchison, 1999).

As seen earlier, men tend to develop maladaptive patterns of emotional control. There may be a direct association between impulsivity and affect lability and substance use. Simons (2003) found impulsivity to be characteristic of a general lack of behavioral control and is related to a reliance on affective rather than cognitive cues. Impulsivity may affect how someone acts while under the influence of alcohol. Impulsive individuals may be more likely to get into fights, neglect responsibilities, or miss school or work. High levels of lability may also be associated with impulsivity, arguments or causing embarrassment to others while using alcohol.

The relationship between affect dysregulation and use-related problems may reflect a lack of ability to control emotionally salient behavior. If a labile individual is using alcohol to regulate mood the individual may be more likely to use alcohol in contexts that may be problematic for him. Simons (2003) studied affect dysregulation in terms of impulsivity and lability, however, the same result (increased consumption of alcohol) can be seen in those who over regulate their emotional response (i.e. overly reserved individuals) and are seeking an opportunity to decrease regulatory control in affect management. The three most common drinking motives are drinking as a social activity, drinking to increase positive affect, and drinking to decrease negative affect (Cooper, et al., 1995). Thus, etiology for men's alcohol use can be linked to emotional forces.

Risk taking behavior is indicative of a hypermasculine belief system. Males have reported engaging in more risky, less safe activities and engaged in more illness-related and less health-related behavior than females (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 1998).

These differences held even when sex differences in levels of depression, hopelessness, and social desirability were statistically controlled.

These results are consistent with U.S. adolescent males' higher rates of lethal suicide behavior, single car accidents, and externalizing disorders (e.g., Kandel & Davies, 1982; Leadbeater, Blatt, & Quinlan, 1995). While the essential traits of masculinity vary by culture, most societies associate risk taking with being male. Indeed, many cultures include some risky activities as a right of passage toward manhood (Kimmel & Messner, 2004). Thus, males generally appear to engage in more impulsive and reckless behavior than females, perhaps because of their social role. Again, this impulsivity has been associated with suicidal behavior (Garland & Zigler, 1993).

In addition, when drinking, men report that they are less likely to practice safe sex. Alcohol use decreases the likelihood of condom use in college-aged men and, thus, increases the likelihood of HIV and other STD infections. Simons (2003) introduced a potential explanation for this increased risk among male drinkers--expectancy mediation. Alcohol expectancies for condom use help explain the relationship between alcohol consumption and sexual risk. In other words, men expected that they would most likely not use a condom when drinking.

Minugh (1998) found results that were consistent with previous studies. In her research, men drank more frequently and in greater quantities than women even after adjustments for body-water volume. It was found that men drank more frequently as education increased, whereas quantity consumed was inversely correlated with education. Less educated men drink less frequently but consume alcohol in greater quantities. Having employment was also related to consuming alcohol in greater

quantities. Marital status played a protective function with more frequent and heavier drinking occurring among never-married, divorced, and separated participants. Being single was associated with more frequent drinking than those men who were divorced or separated. Alcohol was consumed in greater quantities by younger men whereas older men drink more frequently.

Being extreme in either masculinity or femininity is problematic for positive mental health (Lengua & Stormshak, 2000). Additionally, a higher degree of extreme masculine beliefs predicted higher levels of both antisocial behavior and substance use and may be a risk factor in externalizing problems (Lengua & Stormshak, 2000; Mosher & Anderson, 1986).

Development of a Hypergenderism Scale

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and Other Androgyny Measures. Since the start of the feminist movement in the 1970's, gender roles and gender role stereotypes have been a focus of study for several psychologists (Bem, 1974 & 1979; Mosher & Sirkin, 1984; Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975; Williams & D'Alessandro, 1994). With the construction of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem, 1974), an inventory which that measured conceptualization of traditional gender roles, there was advancement in the understanding of the constructs of masculinity and femininity. The BSRI is based on the internalization of standard or appropriate behavior for men and women. The BSRI measures gender role ideation based upon the perception of socially desirable behavior and not on differential endorsement as previous gender role measures (Bem, 1974).

The measure of masculinity and femininity in the BSRI is based upon a dichotomous paradigm of gender roles. Critics have contested the dichotomous approach

and believe that the construct of gender roles would be better served by a scoring system that does not tend to categorize personality into masculine or feminine stereotypes.

Bem then revised her sex-role orientation scale by adding androgynous and undifferentiated categories to her study (Bem, 1979). This allowed for a more inclusive conceptualization of sex-role orientation and challenged the commonly held view that gender roles were two bipolar variables (Hoffman, 2001).

However, the BSRI has come under attack for not studying other aspects of sex-role orientation, such as the adherence to strict traditional gender roles like hyperfemininity (Maybach & Gold, 1994) and hypermasculinity (Mosher & Tomkins, 1988).

Williams and D'Alessandro (1994) utilized three methods of statistical analyses as a response to the critiques of the conventional method of scoring the BSRI. These researchers compared the BSRI with 1) a subscale of the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965), a 10-item Likert scale measuring the self acceptance aspect of self-esteem. 2) The Short Index of Self-Actualization (Jones & Crandall, 1986), a 15-item measure of self-actualizing tendencies. 3) The Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985), a five item scale used to measure subjective well-being. 4) The State-Trait Anxiety Scale (Spielberger, Grosuch & Lushene, 1983), a 40-item scale used to measure anxiety in the present state and anxiety as static trait. 5) The Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, 1967) is a 21-item scale use to measure clinical depression.

The BSRI androgyny score produced almost identical patterns of correlations with the other scales (Williams & D'Allessandro, 1994). Androgyny was found to be

positively correlated with high ratings on the Self-Esteem Scale, Short Index of Self-Actualization and the Satisfaction with Life Scale. It was also found that androgyny scores were negatively correlated with the State-Trait Anxiety Scale and the Beck Depression Inventory.

Another facet of gender role adherence is the characteristic of self-adjustment that is associated with androgyny. It has been argued that androgynous people are generally well-adjusted and have a higher self-esteem than those who are masculine, feminine or undifferentiated, (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1975). However, there is evidence that shows masculinity has a direct, positive relationship to self-esteem and adjustment (Taylor & Hall, 1982).

Pei-Hui and Ward (1993), in a cross-cultural study, compared masculinity with neuroticism and extraversion. College students in Singapore completed the Singapore Androgyny Inventory as well as the Neuroticism and Extraversion Sub-scales of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. The results concluded that participants who scored high on masculinity were more extraverted and less neurotic than those who scored low on masculinity. The evidence from this study shows that androgyny may not be the best indicator of adjustment.

In addition, Marsh and Byrne (1991) determined that the contribution of Masculinity on total self-concept was more significant than Femininity. Taylor and Hall (1982) also found the Masculinity component of androgyny provided unique variance to self-esteem above other factors. However, research finds conflicting evidence in determining factors relating to a healthy mental attitude (Woodhill & Samuels, 2004). Some researchers have found that there is no significant difference between sex-typed

individuals and androgynous women and men on measures of depression, anxiety and maladjustment. Other research confirms that Androgyny is a positive factor for mental health however it was a significant variable for females but not for males (Woodhill & Samuels, 2004).

Holt and Ellis (1998) replicated Bem's research in order to reassess the validity of the scale. They found that there was a significant decrease in the desirability for adjectives describing males and females. For example, the magnitude of difference in desirability for males versus females for the masculine adjective "acts as a leader" has decreased since Bem's (1974) study. On the positive side, this suggests that the gender role stereotyping in the present sample was weaker than the 1974 sample and that the population of university students may be moving toward androgynous beliefs. However, this may also imply that the validity of the BSRI may be decreasing over the years and may eventually become invalid.

To conclude, although the BSRI has had a significant impact upon the understanding of gender roles its usefulness may be diminishing. As understanding of gender developed there were other researchers who attempted to improve upon Bem's measurement tool.

Sex Role Trait Inventory (SRTI) (Street & Meek, 1980). The SRTI was developed to measure the gender role perceptions of five conceptual objects: Idea Man, Ideal Women, Most Men, Most Women and Self. A five-point Likert scale is used for 33 masculine and feminine traits. The Ideal Man and Woman are defined as being near perfect and Most Men and Women are defined as being the way men and women really

are. The Self category is defined as how closely a trait is descriptive of the person completing the inventory.

Sex Role Behavior Scale (SRB; Orlofsky, Cohen, & Ramsden, 1985). The BSRI measures androgyny relative to personality, whereas the SRB gives scores on interests and activities valued by men and boys and interests and activities valued by women and girls. Global scores are available, as are subscale scores on recreational activities, vocational interests, social and dating behavior, and marital behavior. Individuals' survey responses are scored in a manner similar to Bem's median split method. Respondents who score high (above the median) on both sets of interests and activities are rated as androgynous. Those who score above the median on activities or interests preferred by men and boys only are masculine, whereas those who score high on activities or interests preferred by women and girls only are rated as feminine. Those respondents who score low (below the median) on both are undifferentiated.

Hypermasculinity Inventory (HMI) (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984). Believing that the measurement of gender role adherence could be improved upon, Mosher and Sirkin (1984) set out to develop a new scale assessing the personality of men. Gender researchers have criticized the BSRI for placing masculinity and femininity on a continuum with masculinity and femininity as opposite extremes. Mosher and Sirkin (1984) strongly believed that the gender roles of masculinity and femininity are so vastly different that viewing these traits as a continuous variable would misconceptualize the construct.

Administered to men to assess adherence to a stereotypic male gender role, the HMI is composed of 30 forced choice items that measure three dimensions of

hypermasculinity: (a) callous sexual attitudes toward women, (b) violence as manly, and (c) danger as exciting. For example, respondents are asked to agree either with the statement “I win by not fighting” or “I fight to win” (HM men should choose the latter response). The latent variable, the macho personality pattern, is a relatively homogenous factor and should be used as a single scale however the subscales can be used individually.

The construct of the macho personality is viewed as a script – a set of rules, magnified by affect, for predicting, interpreting, controlling and evaluating a group of related scenes. This script is seen as a learned set of beliefs and behaviors. Mosher and Sirkin (1984) hypothesized that parents’ use of contempt and humiliation to control their son’s fear and distress during childhood may produce a boy who is unusually receptive to the socially inherited script of macho as warrior and hero deserving dominion over inferiors. The HM male experiences excitement and pride in mastery of fear and distress and, as a result, can tend to distance himself from his authentic character potential.

Using a sample of 135 college men, Mosher and Sirkin (1984) reported a Cronbach alpha of .89. Construct validity of the HMI was supported by a predicted pattern of correlations with the Jackson Personality Research Form (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984) and by macho men’s reports of less affection, disgust, anger, fear, distress, shame, contempt, and guilt while imagining committing realistic, violent rape (Mosher and Anderson, 1986).

Scores from the HMI were significantly correlated with self-reported drug use, aggressive behavior and dangerous driving following alcohol consumption, delinquent behavior during the high school years and aggressive sexual behavior (Mosher &

Anderson, 1986).

In meta-analysis, researchers used 11 different measures of masculine ideology to determine how strongly each was associated with sexual aggression. One of the largest effects was for Mosher and Sirkin's construct of "hypermasculinity" (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984). Scores on general measures of gender-role adherence, such as the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974), were not strong predictors of sexual aggression (Murnen, Wright, & Kaluzny, 2002).

Hyperfemininity Scale (HFS) (Murnen & Byrne, 1991). After the HMI was constructed and found to be demonstrating itself as a valid measure for men, Murnen and Byrne (1991) sought to develop a similar scale for women. Thus, the Hyperfemininity Scale (HFS) was established to measure a similar construct as the HMI. The personality dimension of hyperfemininity was defined by Murnen and Byrne (1991) as an exaggerated attitudinal adherence to a stereotypic feminine gender role. The expression of this aspect of a woman's personality is specifically in application to the context of a heterosexual sexual relationship. Hyperfeminine women would be conditioned to be more accepting of women's lower status as it applies to sexual subordination and be accepting of sexual aggression against women. McKelvie and Gold (1994) found that hyperfeminine women were more likely to report being alienated from themselves and others and to suffer from psychological symptoms, such as anxiety and high levels of interpersonal sensitivity.

Murnen and Byrne (1991) found that it was socially undesirable to report Hyperfeminine responses. That is, endorsement of hyperfeminine items was negatively associated with the tendency to report socially desirable responses. A woman is not

merely reporting a socially desirable response when endorsing hyperfeminine attitudes. In fact, the opposite is true and social desirability might have a suppressing effect on the accuracy of reporting hyperfeminine ideals.

Scores on the HFS were unrelated to scores on a scale of endorsement of socially desirable feminine traits. Therefore, hyperfemininity and femininity are probably not the same personality traits. This scale measures an aspect of femininity that is not socially desirable as femininity measured by other scales. Hyperfeminine behavior appears to be a successful influence strategy to use in relating to some college men (Matschiner & Murnen, 1995) and therefore indicates that there are some societal rewards for this behavior in connection with the opposite sex but perhaps it is less rewarding in respect to relationships with women.

The HFS is administered to women to assess adherence to a stereotypic feminine gender role. The HFS is comprised of 276 forced choice items that measure three dimensions of hyperfemininity: 1. Relationships with men are of the utmost importance; 2. Attractiveness and/or sexuality can be used to gain or maintain a romantic relationship; and 3. A preference for traditional male behavior in partners. Respondents are asked to agree, for example, either with the statement “Most women need a man in their life: or “I believe some women lead happy lives without a male partner”, the former being the HF response. The alpha coefficient of internal consistency was .76, and test-retest reliability of the HFS over a two-week period was .89 (Murnen & Byrne, 1991). Murnen and Byrne (1991) reported support for the construct validity of the scale, as HF was found to be negatively correlated with the importance of having a job ($r = -.22$) and being job competitive ($r = -.32$) but was positively correlated with the importance of a spouse

having a prestigious, lucrative career ($r = .46$).

Hypergender Ideology Scale (HGIS) (Hamburger, Hogben, McGowan & Dawson, 1996). Hamburger (1995) found that relying on a gender-specific measure precludes the ability to directly compare men and women. The HGIS is a gender-neutral measure that identifies a broad constellation of attitudes that encompass many of the attitudes assessed by the HMI (flirtation with danger, holding calloused sexual attitudes) and HFS (primacy of relationships, using ones sexuality as a commodity).

The gender-specific nature of the HMI and HFS makes it impossible to compare directly the influence of hypermasculinity in men and hyperfemininity in women. Differences that are found in comparing HF with HM may, according to Hamburger, Hogben, McGowan, and Dawson (1996), result from any of three possible sources. First, hypermasculinity and hyperfemininity may represent tremendously different personality dimensions. Consequently, attempting to compare HM and HF would not be relevant. Secondly, it may be likely that particular item content within the HMI and the HFS may explain divergent findings with respect to hypermasculinity and hyperfemininity. Third, differences between hypermasculine men and hyperfeminine women may be solely attributed to gender difference and not the socialized acceptance of extreme gender role beliefs. Hamburger et al. (1996) believed that a single scale would avoid these problems if the items were worded in a gender-neutral manner.

The HGIS capitalizes on the information gained from previous gender-specific measures including the work of Bem, Street and Meek, Mosher and Sirkin as well as Murnen and Byrne. By utilizing a gender-neutral format, men's and women's attitudinal correlates can be directly compared.

Research Questions

It is a generally accepted view that an androgynous person (in the case of the present study, a low hypergendered male) would report a higher degree of satisfaction in their relationship. The degree of hypergenderism may affect the way in which substance dependent men relate to their partners and may clarify the following questions:

How is hypergenderism related to the quality of relationships for the men at this treatment center for substance dependence?

What is the relationship of demographic factors, such as occupation, age, or income, to gender role adherence and relationship satisfaction?

Were the men in this present study significantly more hypergendered than men from previous research and to what extent?

Hypotheses

The first prediction is that there will be a negative correlation between Hypergenderism (HG) and Dyadic Adjustment (DA). HG seems to be a negative factor in establishing and maintaining relationships that are stable and free from coercion, abuse and substance usage. The partner of a man scoring high on HG would most likely not experience satisfaction in their relationship. This may result in relationship maladjustment factors such as conflict, coercion, abuse, substance use and a decreased commitment to the relationship. Consequently, as HG increases the less likely it is that a man would find fulfillment of his relationship expectations in his partner. It would then follow that one of the antecedent effects would be a lower score in DA.

We would also expect to find a negative correlation between HG and Relationship Satisfaction (RS as defined by the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale -

KMSS). Since the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) and the KMSS are highly correlated in previous research it would follow that if there is a negative correlation between HG and DA then RS would also be negatively correlated.

It is also anticipated that age, marital status, occupation, income, and history of abuse would be useful factors in predicting levels of HG and consequently DA and RS. To clarify, this would mean that younger, single, separated or divorced men that are 'Blue Collar' workers earning lower incomes and with a history of abuse by others would adhere to Hypergendered beliefs more frequently.

It is further anticipated that the level of HG in men undergoing treatment for substance dependence in this study is greater than men in other populations.

A goal of this study was to explore insights for therapists working with men experiencing substance dependence and/or relationship dissatisfaction. Understanding core belief systems may facilitate insight into expectations upon relationship partners (Johnson & Greenberg, 1988; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) and may resolve some of the tension experienced by unhappy couples.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Design of the Study

This present study was a quantitative exploratory analysis. Participants were within a relatively homogenous population with respect to substance dependence and were assigned to groups according to their self reports on a gender ideation scale.

Predictor variable

Hypergenderism. Hypergenderism is defined as exaggerated adherence to a stereotypic gender role. It is measured by using the Hypergender Ideology Scale (Hamburger, Hogben, McGowan & Dawson, 1996).

A hypermasculine male avoids and even ridicules "soft-hearted" emotions. He celebrates and views as inevitable male physical aggression, blocks attempts by women or others to appeal to emotions by belittling sexual relations or women in general, and exhibits sensation-seeking behaviors that bring a welcome sense of vigor and thrill (Zaitchik & Mosher, 1993).

Characteristics of the macho orientation are a lack of empathy or sensitivity especially in regard to sex; pursuing excitement, adventure, and sensation seeking; and espousing the belief that violence is normative and acceptable for men.

A low hypergendered person would hold to more androgynous views of gender role behavior (Bem, 1979). They would be egalitarian in nature and more flexible in their expectations of self and their partner. Dominance would be viewed as a negative characteristic and they would avoid aggression as an acceptable form of interaction in romantic relationships.

Criterion variables

Relationship satisfaction. Relationship satisfaction, as defined by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), is a process which is determined by the degree of: (1) troublesome dyadic differences; (2) interpersonal tensions and personal anxiety; (3) dyadic satisfaction; (4) dyadic cohesion; and (5) consensus on matters of importance to dyadic functioning.

Relationship satisfaction, as defined by the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMS; Schumm et al., 1986), determines the degree of satisfaction with one's partner, relationship, and general relationship between spouses.

According to Spanier (1976), it is important for couples to establish a common language for communicating about important events and processes in their relationships. In addition, the development of a shared reality may be the most crucial element in relationship adjustment.

Procedure for Data Collection

Upon approval of the measurement instruments by the administration of the treatment center, participants residing at the center were given the voluntary option of participating on two separate occasions (6 weeks apart). This was to ensure that there were no participants that had completed the forms during the previous 5 week program. The participants assembled in the main meeting area and were given instructions on how to complete the measures by this researcher. Following the instructions the participants received one response packet and were asked to read and sign the informed consent form if they approved. Responses to the measures were written independent of researcher involvement. Administration times ranged between 15 to 45 minutes. Participants were

instructed to not discuss the forms during completion and were given time to informally debrief their reactions to items with the researcher.

Measurement Instruments

Background questionnaire. A demographic measure was designed to study interactions between income, occupation, and age (among other factors) with gender-role and relationship satisfaction (see Appendix B.).

Hypergenderism. Hypergender Ideology Scale – Short Form (HGIS-19). The HGIS-19 (Hamburger et al., 1996) is a 19-item dispositional measure using a 6-point Likert-type scale with Strongly Disagree at one extreme (1) and Strongly Agree (6) at the other (Appendix C.). As a result of creating a scale applicable for either sex, Hamburger et al. (1996) found evidence in their analysis to suggest that the HGIS-19 may be regarded as a unidimensional scale. That is, gender ideation may be part and parcel of a similar personality characteristic expressing itself in differing forms relative to gender roles performed.

Relationship Satisfaction. Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976) was designed to measure the quality of intimate relationships and consists of 32 items that can be summed to provide a general measure of satisfaction in marriage or similar dyads (see Appendix D.). The DAS yields an overall score and has a range of 0 to 151 for both sexes.

Spanier intentionally used the term Dyad and developed item wording without specific reference to marriage to allow the measure to be applicable to any committed couple relationship including unmarried cohabiting persons (PSU, 1986).

The DAS total score is reported to have excellent internal consistency with a

coefficient alpha of .96 (Spanier, 1976, 1982). Criterion validity of the DAS was demonstrated by the instrument successfully discriminating between married couples and divorced couples. Scores on the DAS also have high positive correlations with another widely used relationship satisfaction inventory, the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (Locke & Wallace, 1959), with resulting coefficients ranging from .86 to .88 (Spanier, 1976). The DAS consists of four subscales: Cohesion, Affectional Expression, Consensus and Dyadic Satisfaction.

Dyadic Cohesion refers to the degree of unity, affiliation and connectedness experienced in the relationship via the common interests and activities shared by the couple. According to Spanier et al. (1976), this subscale is similar to Locke and William's (1958) subscale of Companionship. The five items in this scale include: "How often have you: 24. Engaged in similar interests together. 25. Had a stimulating exchange of ideas. 26. Laughed together. 27. Calmly discussed something. 28. Worked together on a project."

Affectional Expression is related to the extent expressive acts occur in the relationship which convey affiliative emotion (items 4, 6, 29 and 30). This subscale parallels the Affectional Intimacy subscale of Locke and Williams (1958) and includes items such as: "(Indicate if either items are difficulties in your relationship.) 29. Being too tired for sex. 30. Not showing love."

Dyadic Consensus is concerned with the level of perceived agreement on important issues. This includes items such as: "8. Philosophy of life. 9. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws."

Dyadic Satisfaction is a measure of the degree to which a respondent may believe

that their relationship is rewarding and fulfilling or disappointing and lacking. Examples of these items include: “17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight? 20. Do you ever regret that you married?”.

Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMSS). The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (Appendix E.) was developed to assess one's satisfaction with the marriage, spouse, and the marital relationship (Schumm, et al., 1986).

The KMSS is a three-item, self-report measure of satisfaction with one's spouse, marriage, and general relationship between spouses (e.g., "How satisfied are you with your marriage?"). Items are scored using a 7 seven-point Likert scale from 1 = Extremely dissatisfied to 7 = Extremely satisfied. Scores are summed to yield an overall score of marital satisfaction.

Schumm, Nichols, Schectman, and Grigsy (1983) report reliabilities of each item ranging from .89 to .98, with a test re-test reliability of .71 (times one and two separated by 10 weeks). They also reported the KMSS to be significantly correlated with two other established measures of relationship satisfaction, the Quality of Marriage Index and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Demographic Information

A total of 86 male clients from a residential addictions treatment center volunteered to participate. No incentives were given in order to motivate involvement in the research. Five response forms were discarded either due to poor responses (unclear or insufficient indication of response) or an incomplete confirmation of the informed consent form. A further seven respondents were excluded from data analysis due to missing data. The men were distributed in three age categories ($M = 38.5$) with 5% 19 to 24, 77.8% 25 to 49 years and 17% in the 50 to 64 age category (see Table 1).

Participants were coded into the two categories of Low and High Hypergenderism using the median split method. Across the sample, the median score for Hypergenderism was 49.0. Thus, any participant who scored above the median for HG was classified as High Hypergendered, whereas those who scored below or equal to this median were classified as Low Hypergendered.

The clients at the treatment center receive care for a variety of substance dependence concerns (alcohol and other depressants, stimulants, opiates or any combination of these). The substance use distribution was 55% related to alcohol, 49% identifying use of some type of opioid, 66.2% reporting usage of stimulants and 15% associated with use of prescription medications (psychoactive drugs such as Risperadol, Ritalin or other anti-psychotics; see Table 2).

Table 1

Percentage of Participants in Each Age Category for Low and High Hypergenderism.

Age	Low Hypergendered		High Hypergendered		Total	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>
19-24	3	4	1	1	4	5
25-49	28	34	35	44	63	78
50-64	10	12	4	5	14	17
	41	50	40	50	81	

Total N = 81

Table 2

Distribution of Participants in Each Substance Use Category.

Substance Use	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>
Alcohol	41	55
Opiates	36	49
Stimulants	49	66
Prescription Drugs	11	15

Total N = 74

There was concern whether this present study acquired an adequate number of respondents in order to continue to evaluate the data. According to Cohen's (1988) tables, if the statistical procedures used in correlational analysis utilized one-tailed independent samples, an N of 70 or more would be sufficient. The appropriate alpha level he suggests is .05 or less for correlations of .3 or more. Since the present study found Pearson Product Moment correlations with p values of less than .05 and sufficient effect size (5-6% on two subscales), it was believed that there was adequate reason to continue data analysis.

Outlier analyses were performed to ensure that there were no violations of parametric assumptions. There were no clear outliers based on analyses of scattergrams. All participants were normally distributed on all scales based on histogram analysis with a slight positive skew on the KMSS.

A brief overview of intercorrelations (Table 3) indicate that the HGIS Mean score was 50.48 ($N = 81$), the DAS was 93.89 ($N = 74$) and the KMSS was 13.76 ($N = 80$) the Alpha's were .89, .87 and .93 respectively. It was noted that the mean scores for the DAS and the KMSS were within the range indicating distressed relationships.

According to previous research, a score of less than 100 on the DAS is considered suggestive of a distressed relationship (Eddy, Heyman, & Weiss, 1991). Also, it was determined by Crane, Middleton and Bean (2000) that a cutoff score of 17 for the KMSS, is an appropriate indicator of distress in relationships.

Hypotheses

The relationship between perceived Hypergenderism and perceived Dyadic Adjustment was investigated (see Table 3) using the Pearson product-moment

Table 3

Intercorrelations, Means, Standard Deviations and Internal Consistency Reliabilities
for Key Variables (N = 81)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Hypergenderism ^a	--	-.06	-.17	-.15	-.14	-.24*	-.22*
2. Kansas Marital Satisfaction ^b		--	.66**	.60**	.68**	.56**	.34**
3. Total Dyadic Adjustment ^c			--	.97**	.90**	.74**	.65**
4. Dyadic Consensus ^{c, d, e}				--	.78**	.73**	.61**
5. Dyadic Satisfaction ^{c, d, f}					--	.66**	.46**
6. Dyadic Cohesion ^{c, d, g}						--	.44**
7. Affectional Expression ^{c, d, h}							--
Mean	50.48	10.23	93.89	55.70	30.27	14.03	7.80
Standard Deviation	14.36	4.12	19.78	11.77	7.50	3.81	2.41
Coefficient Alpha	.87	.89	.93	.88	.81	.71	.47

^aItem ratings ranged from 1 to 6 (19 items). ^bItem ratings ranged from 1 to 7 (3 items).

^cItem ratings ranged from 0 to 6 (32 items). ^dSubscale of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

^eItem ratings ranged from 0 to 5 (13 items). ^fItem ratings ranged from 0 to 6 (10 items).

^gItem ratings ranged from 0 to 5 (5 items). ^hItem ratings ranged from 0 to 5 (4 items).

* $p < 0.05$ (one-tailed). ** $p < 0.01$ (one-tailed).

correlation coefficient. There was no direct correlation between HG and the overall DAS score, $r(74) = -.06, p > .05$. However, correlations between HG and two subscales of the DAS did achieve significant levels of correlation (See Post-Hoc Analysis).

Secondly, there was no direct correlation between HG and RS in this group of males, $r(74) = -.17, p > .05$. This suggests hypergenderism was not associated with less relationship satisfaction as expected.

The final hypothesis predicted that six demographic variables would predict DAS and KMSS scores (Tables 1, 2, 7, 8, 9, 10). No significant findings were found therefore this assumption was not supported.

Post-Hoc Analysis

Independence of Hypergenderism from Relational Satisfaction. The relationship between the KMSS and the DAS is well documented in literature (Schumm et al., 1983). Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether HG may be a contributory mechanism in addition to the influence that RS has upon DA. Separate regression analyses were calculated for the two subscales of Dyadic Adjustment that appeared to have a significant relationship to HG. Dyadic Cohesion, $r(74) = -.24, p < .05$ and Affectional Expression, $r(74) = -.22, p < .05$ both generated significant results in correlational analysis.

As shown in Tables 4 and 5, results of the hierarchical regression indicated that Hypergenderism accounted for significant variance above and beyond Relationship Satisfaction. In Dyadic Cohesion, 7.4% of the variance was explained by HG over and above that which was explained by RS (ΔR^2). Hypergenderism accounted for 6.2% of the variance in Affectional Expression over and above that which was explained by

Table 4

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Correlated with DyadicCohesion (N = 74)

Variable	R^2	ΔR^2	β	F	df _{1,2}	p
Step 1	.32	.32		33.6	1, 73	
KMSS			-.56			< .001
Step 2	.39	.07		22.0	2, 72	
KMSS			-.58			< .001
HGIS			-.27			.004

Table 5

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Correlated with AffectionalExpression (N = 74)

Variable	R^2	ΔR^2	β	F	df _{1,2}	p
Step 1	.12	.12		9.86	1, 73	
KMSS			-.34			.002
Step 2	.18	.06		7.94	2, 72	
KMSS			-.26			< .001
HGIS			-.35			.023

Relationship Satisfaction (ΔR^2). Therefore, HG shows independent explanation of DAS when RS was partialled out.

Comparison of Hypergenderism in Treatment Centre and University Men.

Finally, it was anticipated that the overall level of HG of men at the treatment center would be higher than that of men in other populations. The overall mean of HG of men in this study was compared with university men studied by Hogben et al. (1996).

One sample t -tests were conducted to compare levels of HG (see Table 6). This would give an opportunity to determine if there were a significant difference in a substance dependent group versus a group that may represent the North American population more readily.

In two studies Hogben et al. (1996) studied men from a large northeastern US state university. The first study recruited 114 men (age $M = 19.5$ years, $SD = 1.0$). The university students reported higher levels of HG ($M_{diff} = -5.11$) this was significantly higher than the men in the present study, $M = 55.59$, $SD = 16.84$; $t(186) = -3.20$, $p = .03$. In the second sample, 131 men were recruited ($M = 18.6$ years, $SD = 1.0$). There was not a significant difference between this present study and the university students ($M = 52.14$, $SD = 15.28$; $t(203) = -1.04$, $p = .45$).

The mean age of men at the treatment center was 38.5 years. This is a mean difference of 19 years for study 1 and 19.9 years for study 2. Further analysis of the differences between this study and Hogben's research was not completed. No further demographic correlates were given by Hogben et al. (1996) other than age and university attendance in order to explain differences in the HG mean between their two samples.

Table 6

One-Sample t-test Results Comparing Hypergenderism Scores for Treatment Center Men
To University Men in Two Studies

	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M_{diff}</u>	<u>t</u>
Treatment Center	50.48	14.36	--	--
University (Study 1)	55.59	16.84	-5.11	-3.20*
University (Study 2)	52.14	15.28	-1.67	-1.04

Note: * $p < .05$

Summary

The present study explored whether males who are higher in Hypergenderism would report less relationship satisfaction than those who report lower Hypergenderism. This hypothesis was not supported in correlational analysis for the overall score Dyadic Adjustment Scale's or the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. Furthermore, there was no statistical evidence to substantiate correlation with any demographic variables. However, two DAS subscales significantly correlated with Hypergenderism (Dyadic Cohesion and Affectional Expression). Further analysis of the subscale's relations with study variables was therefore conducted. Hierarchical regression analysis helped explore the extent to which Hypergenderism could explain Dyadic Adjustment. After controlling the effect of Relationship Satisfaction (KMSS), Hypergenderism explained 7% of the variance in Cohesion and 6% in Affectional Expression.

Overall the men at the treatment center reported distressed relationships. This may not be completely attributed to Hypergenderism nonetheless it is a significant finding for addictions research in general.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The present study investigated the hypothesis that hypergendered men would have less relationship satisfaction than those who did not adhere to extreme gender role ideation. The degree to which the men in this study believed that they were connected with their partner was significantly affected by Hypergenderism. Hypergenderism also played a significant role in the expression of affection in their relationships over and above their satisfaction with their relationship. Hypergenderism is a relatively new construct that may contribute to the study of gender identity. The creators of the HGIS have a unique perception that gender beliefs can be measured as an influence upon either masculinity or femininity. Previous research dichotomizes masculinity and femininity with the tendency to favor either androgyny, femininity or masculinity as ideal. The HGIS distances itself from an endorsement of gender role and begins new study into adherence that, for one example, influences maladjustment in relational experience. HG is therefore a valuable concept in exploring the various influences it may have upon proclivities to relationship instability, abuse, aggression and substance using behaviors.

Methodology

There may be some factors that contributed to the outcome in the present research. First, the results may be skewed due a positive reporting bias. Men with hypergendered ideation may resist responding in agreement to thoughts or attitudes that may suggest that they are lacking in acceptability. HG men tend to be prone to anxiety and can be hypervigilant to threat. If there was distrust that confidentiality would be upheld at the treatment center there could be some motivation to avoid acknowledging adherence to some items. Consequently, maintenance of a harm avoidance stance could

affect the results. Another possible overlapping but distinct confounding variable is that the administrator of the measures was working at the treatment center as a Clinical Addictions Counselor Intern. Perhaps this would motivate participants to respond in perceived socially desirable ways. Furthermore, the men in this population may have a tendency to report in positive ways due to the treatment center's influence. The impact of the new psychological environment may alter the manner in which they agree to beliefs indicated in the instruments. Individuals attempting to change their substance dependent behaviors look at many personality factors that may contribute to their use. There is often an extreme change in beliefs in order to establish a new outcome for their lives.

Secondly, a limitation of the present study is a lack of a clear difference in HG between treatment center men and university men. Comparability between the three samples is ambiguous. This ambiguity implies possible underlying mechanisms that govern extreme gender role ideation. Age differences (20 years) and environmental differences (substance dependence and its psycho-social consequences) may have an impact here. Many men at the treatment center have seen consequences related to beliefs and subsequent behavior. Loneliness and guilt as a result of their choices may cause some to reflect upon possible changes in ideation. In comparison, men at the age of 19 have most likely fewer relational effects related to their gender beliefs or are less concerned about loss of relationship, job or career.

Given that there was a significant difference in HG in comparison with one study there may be some justification for further research. Some issues that need to be resolved are: Is the lower level of HG in the present study attributed to age differences or other factors (such as conducting research the context of a treatment center)? A positive aspect

of the present research is that examining hypergenderism in a community sample is a beginning step in establishing the psychometric properties of the HGIS. Understanding HG in other groups of men thus extends the research and contributes to the overall understanding of personality and its development.

Less cohesion and physical affection in relationships may be related to substance usage patterns and may not be an indicator of Hypergenderism. Relationship unhappiness will most likely be a consequence of substance dependency for one or both members of the dyad. There is a tendency to become preoccupied with using or obtaining more of the substance which, in turn, results in lack of consideration and attending to other's needs. In short, a person prone to substance dependency can be self-focused. Relationships will lack a sense of togetherness (Cohesion) and physical intimacy (Affect Expression).

Lastly, agreement with some items on the HGIS may be difficult due to their extreme nature. For example some respondents added comments such as: "What the hell?", "This is sick!" and "What do you mean by that?" (See HGIS Appendix C). Assessment of gender role ideation may be more useful with an instrument that is less blunt and more subtle in its approach. A Likert type scale may not be enough to overcome the aversion to some statements and may make detecting subtle differences in the general population difficult. As it stands, the HGIS may only be effective in determining those that are very extreme in their beliefs. Furthermore, the treatment center group was, on average, older than Hogben's studies. Therefore, the HGIS wording may be too blunt, abrupt or rude for older males.

Significance of the Study

Assessing extreme gender role ideation may serve a predictive function in

determining distress a couple may experience in their relationship. In view of the fact that extreme gender role ideation has some effect upon the relationship experience encountered by the men in this study. And, given that hypergendered beliefs are correlated with the activities a couple engages in together (cohesion) and expression of emotions and sex in this study, assessing extreme gender role ideation may serve a predictive function in determining distress a couple may experience in their relationship.

Relationship distress may stem from a variety of factors that lead to dissolution of the relationship. Research has identified many determinants of divorce that may be related to personality factors. For instance, the history of relationship instability (previous divorce) has a significant predictive value for the present relationship of a couple (Aguirre & Parr, 1982).

Conflicted relationships, those relationships characterized by disagreement that tends to be volatile in nature, are at greater risk for negative relationship outcome (Fowers, Montel, & Olson, 1996). As mentioned earlier, male coercion and aggression are significantly related to extreme masculine gender ideation which contributes to the volatility of relationship interaction.

Mazur and Michalek (1998) found that married men had lower testosterone levels in comparison to men with antisocial tendencies. Men with higher levels tended to avoid marriage or were unsuccessful at it resulting in divorce. This may be due to a state, a stable level of testosterone throughout one's life, or a trait, a reciprocal effect of one's environment.

If there is stability of testosterone over time, this may be the result of situational factors which usually remain fairly constant. The low testosterone of married men is seen

as an effect of a stable environment, not as a cause of it. Higher levels of testosterone may be influenced by an atmosphere of dominance and competition. Therefore, men may be vulnerable to Hypergenderism due to biological determinants or due to socialization; however, the consequence of relational instability is unquestionable.

Impulsive behavior is related to extreme masculine ideation (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Garland & Zigler, 1993; Real, 1997; Simons (2003). This may be related to an impulsive attitude toward relationship commitment. Research has shown that knowing one another only a short time prior to marriage is predictive of relationship problems. Kurdek (1993, 1991) identified impulsivity in the initial attraction and commitment of a relationship as a factor contributing to relationship instability.

Physiological arousal prior to problem-solving discussions is also correlated with relationship problems (Levenson & Gottman, 1985). As mentioned earlier Hypergendered men tend to lack emotional control in relationship conflict. There is a tendency to annihilate the opponent. Men with extreme masculine ideation, according to Rapaport and Burkhart (1984), can tend to see women as adversaries. The emotions associated with an adversarial approach to relationship are related to defensive strategies such as a self-protective relational stance. The hypergendered male may become competitive with their partner and disapproving language can become a pervasive way of relational interaction. Markman's (1981) research indicated that a lack of positive communication at the beginning of the relationship is an indicator of future relationship instability and Kurdek (1993) found low conscientiousness is related to poor relationship outcome.

Proclivity to relationship instability has also been shown to be determined by

wives' employment and income (Greenstein, 1990), a potential source of discomfort to the hypergendered male due to the threat of having a lack of control in financial matters.

Research has also determined that agreement in values (congruency) is essential to relationship satisfaction. If partners do not hold to similar beliefs their relationship could experience dissolution (Kurdek, 1993; Larson & Olson, 1989).

Furthermore, negative patterns of couple interactions are much more salient and more predictive than the positives in predicting the future prospects of the relationship (Gottman, 1993). A 12 year longitudinal study found that couples who eventually became distressed or divorced had higher levels of invalidation in their premarital interaction than couples who remained non-distressed (Markman & Hahlweg, 1993).

Implications for Counselors

The use of a measure of hypergenderism may be an effective means of determining some of the reasons for distress in relationships. The beliefs that men have towards how they should be as a man and how their partner ought to relate to them could have significant bearing upon their relationship stability. Perceptions of positive experiences in relationships may be moderated by beliefs of gender role performance. Practitioners may wish to assess adherence to hypergendered beliefs in order to determine if it is a factor in relationship experience. Consequently, they may use this knowledge to guide therapeutic interventions which could result in more positive counseling outcomes.

Again, identifying extreme gender role beliefs is only the first step. The next course of action is to determine how an HG belief system developed. Research such as Hayslett-McCall and Bernard (2002) and Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) have offered

some help with attributing extreme behavior to insecure attachment.

The results may have implications for addictions therapy where treatment may emphasize gender role ideation as significantly related to the complex etiological patterns that motivate an individual towards substance use and dependence.

Hoffman (2001) provides a good history of masculinity and femininity research and implications for counseling practices. For instance, O'Neil, Good and Holmes (1995) recommend the intervention to focus on the Gender Role Conflict that a couple brings to their counselor. This intervention method focuses upon four non discrete areas: cognitions, affective experience behaviors and unconscious experiences. Philpot, Brooks, Lusterman and Nutt (1997) recommend that the counselor have a thorough knowledge of gender issues and support the clients' desire to break from the restriction of gender socialization. The concepts of what is appropriate for behavior must eventually be challenged.

Feminist interventions work well in gender therapy providing sex-role analyses, power analysis, relabeling, and bibliotherapy (Worell & Remer, 1992). Philpot et al. (1997) stressed the exploration of clients' meanings of masculinity and femininity in a nonjudgmental or coercive manner.

Gender Inquiry is a semi structured opportunity for clients to explore how they learned to be a boy or girl, a female or male adolescent and how they learned to be a man or a woman (Philpot et al. 1997). The origin of gender messages received is analyzed at the micro level (early interactions with care givers and later with peer groups) and the macro level (messages from media). These parallel the further categorization of beliefs that are identified as idiosyncratic (the specific realm of the individual's close

attachments) and nomothetic (norms contained within the dominant culture or the ethnic ties of the client and family).

Hoffman contends that the examination process is rooted within the self-examination of the counselor. My own gender beliefs must be evaluated and I must work to revise biases, stereotypes and behaviors that may be offensive or exacerbate maladjustment in my clients. This self-evaluation is an effective means to model the process from counselor to client or from educator to student.

Gender Aware Therapy (GAT) (Good et al. 1990) is derived from an integration of feminist therapy and gender knowledge is applied by Hoffman (1996) to counselor education. She recognizes five factors that can benefit the counselor's approach: 1) a recognition of the pervasiveness of gender-related issues, they are prevalent, dominant and constant, 2) the importance of a societal context, 3) the urgency of social advocacy, 4) the necessity for collaboration, and 5) the value in the freedom to choose.

The constructs of gender are fluid and change within the individual and in the society that they live in, however we are assessing them the way we did decades ago (Hoffman, 2001). New approaches that explore gender issues need to be investigated.

Limitations of the study

Results of this study were limited by the demographic characteristics of men voluntarily choosing to attend treatment at an addictions treatment center. Given that random sampling procedures of the general population were not used, the generalizability of this study is questionable; there is no way of knowing whether the men in this study are representative of men outside residential treatment settings. It is also possible that variables other than the ones being studied may have an impact on relationship

satisfaction and create a false connection given that relationship satisfaction is a complex issue.

Additionally, the instruments that the students completed were self-report, and it was not difficult to determine the socially desirable responses for most of the questions.

Another limitation is the sensitivity of the HGIS, the DAS and the KMSS as measurements of HG and RS. Perhaps Hypergendered men are not as aware of their emotional experience (Carpenter & Addis, 2000) and the agreement that they experience with their partner (Dyadic Cohesion) as well as the expression of emotions (Affect Expression) are most salient when assessing the quality of their relationship experience.

Further Research

The relationships of hypergendered men deserve further exploration. For example, each person within the dyad ought to be studied. Assessing only one individual does little to confirm the veracity of the claims made in responding to measures.

Congruency between personalities may have a stronger outcome on relationship satisfaction than HG beliefs alone. In addition, Hypergenderism may have positive effects upon relationship outcome. It may also be possible that there are negative aspects of adherence to lower HG. For instance, a hypergendered couple may be compatible in their extreme beliefs and find that the agreement in the relationship leads to a satisfaction that is not found in couples that have low HG expectations of their partner.

Although the theoretical reasoning that it is possible to use a single measurement for either sex is sound there may be some room for improving the measurement tool. The HGIS, as stated earlier, tends to be a rather crude instrument for populations other than perhaps a young university population. The HGIS may only give an indication of

those who hold extreme beliefs and may not be sensitive enough to tease out more subtle ideations that may be an indicator of underlying hypergendered beliefs. It may be beneficial to norm a revised instrument that can be of practical use for other populations.

Further research ought to identify whether HG is significantly related to substance dependence. If there is a connection between drug using behaviors and extreme gender role ideation then health care practitioners may consider revising treatment interventions.

Finally, and perhaps most important for the practitioner, there is room for further research into the causations of extreme gender role adherence. Correlates of HG should be teased out in order to better understand the development of HG adherence. Longitudinal studies could be carried out in order to assess whether HG is a stable trait or a state that is influenced by environmental variables. If HG does change over time, then what factors influence its change? It may be of some benefit for practitioners to identify Hypergendered personality in order to target treatment interventions. The extent to which occupation, history of abuse or neglect, attachment mechanisms and learning influenced by caregivers, peers and media role models motivate this adherence remains open for further study.

Conclusion

Generally, men at the treatment center considered their relationships to be distressed. There was no evidence that Relationship Satisfaction and Hypergenderism were related to occupation, age, history of abuse or any other demographic variables. According to the present research there was reason to believe that Hypergendered Men at

a treatment center have significant effects upon their experience of Affect Expression and Dyadic Cohesion in their relationships. An older male population may score lower in HGIS ratings than younger men, however, results were ambiguous.

Measuring levels of gender ideation may be advantageous in the treatment of men seeking treatment for substance dependency. The revision of extreme beliefs may reduce motivations for substance usage and subsequent dependency. The clinician may also find benefits for couples in relational distress when extreme gender beliefs are exposed and addressed directly.

If Hypergenderism operates within individuals in a covert manner there may be instability that is unexplained. Providing insight and awareness redefining definitions of masculinity healthy adjustment and happy relationships

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Appendix A.

Demographic Results of the Participants

Table 7

Percentage of Low and High Hypergendered Participants According to CurrentRelationship Status.

Relationship	Low Hypergendered		High Hypergendered	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>
Common-Law	10	12.2	12	15.0
Divorced	12	14.7	12	15.0
Married	6	7.3	3	3.8
Never Married	12	14.7	12	15.0
Widowed	1	1.2	1	1.3
	41	50	40	50
Total <u>N</u> = 81				

Table 8

Percentage of Low and High Hypergendered Participants According to Occupation.

Occupation	Low Hypergendered		High Hypergendered	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>
'Blue Collar'	32	39.0	32	40.0
'White Collar'	9	11.0	8	10.0
	41	50	40	50
Total N = 81				

Table 9

Percentage of Low and High Hypergendered Participants According to Income.

Income	Low Hypergendered		High Hypergendered	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>
15,000 or less	13	15.9	9	11.3
15,000 to 25,000	10	12.2	9	11.3
25,000 to 45,000	6	7.3	12	15.0
45,000 to 60,000	9	11.0	6	7.5
60,000 or more	3	3.7	4	5.0
	41	50	40	50
Total <u>N</u> = 81				

Table 10

Percentage of Low and High Hypergendered Participants According to History of Abuse.

Abuse	Low Hypergendered		High Hypergendered	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Frequency (%)</u>
No	4	16.7	12	30.0
Yes	8	33.4	8	20.0
	12	50	20	50

Total N = 32

Appendix B.

Demographic Questions

Please begin the questionnaire. You may discuss your answers after completing the forms.

<u>Age</u>	<u>Week in Treatment</u>	<u>DRUG(S) OF CHOICE</u> (choose any of the following)
<input type="radio"/> 19-24 <input type="radio"/> 25-49 <input type="radio"/> 50-64 <input type="radio"/> 65 and over	Open Group <input type="checkbox"/> T1 or I1 <input type="checkbox"/> T2 or I2 <input type="checkbox"/> T3 or I3 <input type="checkbox"/> Relapse Prevention	<input type="checkbox"/> Heroin <input type="checkbox"/> Cocaine <input type="checkbox"/> Alcohol <input type="checkbox"/> Meth Amphetamine <input type="checkbox"/> Other:
<u>Sex</u>	<u>Sexuality</u>	
<input type="radio"/> Female <input type="radio"/> Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Homosexual <input type="checkbox"/> Heterosexual	
<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Family Background:</u>	
<input type="radio"/> Common-Law <input type="radio"/> Divorced/Separated <input type="radio"/> Married <input type="radio"/> Never Married <input type="radio"/> Widowed	<input type="checkbox"/> Intact <input type="checkbox"/> Separated/divorced <input type="checkbox"/> Foster family <input type="checkbox"/> Adopted <input type="checkbox"/> Other:	
<u>Gross annual income?</u>	<u>Have you ever suffered abuse as a child?</u> <u>If yes, by whom (check all that apply):</u>	
<input type="radio"/> 15,000 or less <input type="radio"/> 15,000 to 25,000 <input type="radio"/> 25,000 to 45,000 <input type="radio"/> 45,000 to 60,000 <input type="radio"/> 60,000 or more	<input type="checkbox"/> Stranger <input type="checkbox"/> Aunt <input type="checkbox"/> Mother Father <input type="checkbox"/> Cousin <input type="checkbox"/> Sister <input type="checkbox"/> Other: <input type="checkbox"/> Brother <input type="checkbox"/> Uncle	
<u>Occupation?</u>		
<input type="radio"/> Trade (electrician, welder, plumber, pipefitter) <input type="radio"/> Technical (engineer, nursing, medical technician) <input type="radio"/> Non-tradesperson (laborer, physical therapist) <input type="radio"/> Service Industry (sales associate, cashier, waiter) <input type="radio"/> Professional (doctor, lawyer, psychologist) <input type="radio"/> Other (please specify)		
<u>If you are in a relationship, how long have you been together?</u>		
<input type="radio"/> Less than a year <input type="radio"/> One to 5 years <input type="radio"/> 6 to 10 years <input type="radio"/> 11 to 25 years <input type="radio"/> Other (please specify):		<u>Language spoken at home:</u> _____ <u>Ethnic Background:</u> _____

Appendix C.

The Hypergender Ideology Scale – Short Form (HGIS – 19)

The following survey contains various statements about attitudes concerning the relationships between men and women. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, in the space to the right of the item, the extent you agree with the statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1 A true man knows how to command others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2 The only thing a lesbian needs is a good stiff cock.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3 Men should be ready to take any risk, if the payoff is large enough.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4 No wife is obligated to provide sex for anybody, even her husband.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5 Women should break dates with female friends when guys ask them out.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6 Men have to expect that most women will be something of a prick-tease.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7 A real man can get any woman to have sex with him.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8 Women instinctively try to manipulate men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9 Get a woman drunk, high, or hot and she'll let you do whatever you want.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10 Men should be in charge during sex.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11 It's okay for a man to be a little forceful to get sex.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12 Women do not mind a little force in sex sometimes because they know it means they must be attractive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Table continues

13 Homosexuals can be just as good at parenting as heterosexuals.	0	0	0	0	0	0
14 Gays and lesbians are just like everybody else.	0	0	0	0	0	0
15 Pick-ups should expect to put out.	0	0	0	0	0	0
16 If men pay for a date, they deserve something in return.	0	0	0	0	0	0
17 Effeminate men deserve to be ridiculed.	0	0	0	0	0	0
18 Any man who is a man needs to have sex regularly.	0	0	0	0	0	0
19 I believe some women lead happy lives without having male partners.	0	0	0	0	0	0

22. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. How often do you kiss your partner?						
Everyday	Almost everyday	Occasionally	Rarely	Never		
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>		
24. Do you and your mate engage in interests together?						
All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them		
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>		
How often would you say the following events have occurred between you and your partner?						
	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
25. Had a stimulating exchange of ideas.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. Laughed together.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
27. Calmly discussed something.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. Worked together on a project.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate if either item below are difficulties in your relationship.

	Yes	No
29. Being too tired for sex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. Not showing love.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. Please select which option best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.		
<input type="radio"/> Extremely unhappy		
<input type="radio"/> Fairly unhappy		
<input type="radio"/> A little unhappy		
<input type="radio"/> Happy		
<input type="radio"/> Very happy		
<input type="radio"/> Extremely happy		
<input type="radio"/> Perfect!		

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel/felt about your relationship?

- I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all that I can/could to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am to help it succeed.
- It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am to keep the relationship going.
- My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I could do to keep the relationship going.

Appendix E.

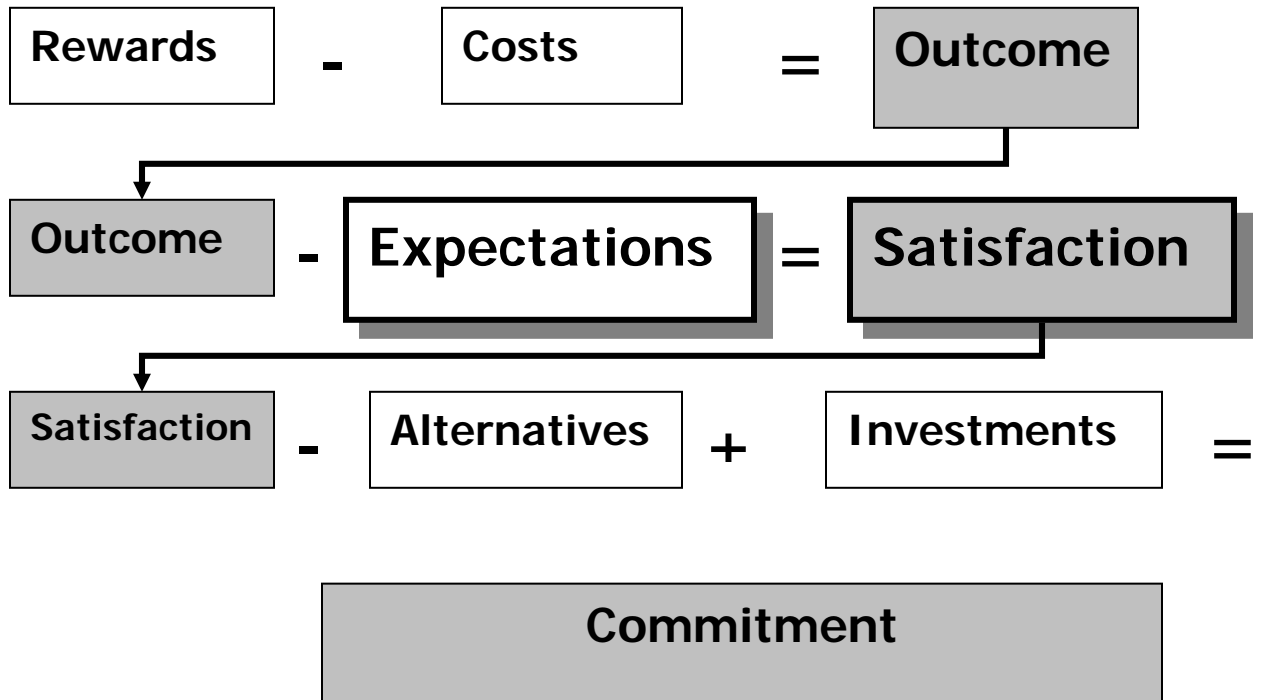
The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale

Directions: Please choose the answer that best describes your level of satisfaction.

	Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Mixed	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
How satisfied are you/were you with your relationship?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How satisfied are you/were you with your partner?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How satisfied are you/were you with your relationship with your partner?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Remember...Check *one* only for each question:

Figure 1
 Social Exchange Model (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).



The fundamental premise of social exchange theory is that relationships that provide more rewards and fewer costs will be more satisfying and will endure longer.