Gender role conflict has been found to be a psychological condition that produces negative outcomes for men as they negotiate the tensions between who they truly are and who they feel they must be based on social expectations (O’Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986). Recent studies on college men’s gender identity development suggest diversity experiences in higher education may influence positive and healthy masculine identities (Harris III, 2010; Edwards & Jones, 2009). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identify relationships between fraternity men’s diversity experiences and their degree of gender role conflict.

The research subjects in the present study include 341 fraternity men at a comprehensive research university in the Pacific Northwest. Data was collected through a survey instrument that measured fraternity men’s degree of gender role conflict, interactional diversity experiences, and classroom diversity experiences. Descriptive statistics and inferential analysis is used to evaluate the existence of relationships between fraternity men’s diversity experiences and their degree of gender role conflict.
Findings indicate there is no significant statistical relationship between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences or gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences. However, results do show college men’s interactional diversity experiences may be an indirect negative predictor of gender role conflict because of the identified negative relationship interactional diversity experiences has on two out of the four patterns that make up gender role conflict: Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. These results suggest interactional diversity experiences is one educational opportunity in college that encourages men to make meaning of different social identities in a way that supports the expression of emotions and intimacy between men, which in return, lowers men’s degree of gender role conflict.

*Keywords: gender role conflict, college men, identity development, interactional diversity experiences, classroom diversity experiences*
Fraternity Men’s Diversity Experiences and Degree of Gender Role Conflict

by

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APPROVED:

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Major Professor, representing College Student Services Administration

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Dean of the College of Education

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Dean of the Graduate School

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Lucas L. Schalewski, Author
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College men are in trouble. Linda Sax’s (2008) impressive study of over 17,000 students from over 200 institutions found college men exhibit greater levels of academic disengagement and underachievement as compared to women. Similar behavior trends are also prevalent in campus programs and activities (Davis & Laker, 2004). These disengagement patterns may be understood within Edwards and Jones’ (2009) study who found men’s expectations of college to be: Excessive drinking, doing drugs, having sex with many women, breaking the rules, and not caring about academics. These insights are alarming considering the large number of enrolled college men. According to Hussar and Bailey (2011) there was a total of 7,067,000 enrolled college men in 2008, this number is projected to increase 12 percent to 7,941,000 million by the year 2019.

Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje (2005) indicated college men comprise the majority of students who are cited for nonacademic violations of university policies. More than 90 percent of students who are accused of sexual assault, relationship violence, and sexual harassment in college are men (Foubert, Newberry, & Tatum, 2007; Hong, 2000). Additional studies indicate college men have a harmful and life threatening relationship with alcohol and substance abuse (Capraro, 2000; Courtenay, 1998; Kuh & Arnold, 1993). College men display high levels of depression (Good & Mintz, 1990), poor coping skills (Good & Wood, 1995), and a greater likelihood to attempt and commit suicide (Pollack, 1999). Gender role conflict, a psychological condition many college men participate in, is produced from the tension between who men truly are and who they feel they must be (O’Neil et al, 1986), has been found to increases depression (Good &
Mintz, 1990), poor coping skills (Good & Wood, 1995), likelihood of becoming violent with women (O’Neil & Nadeau, 1999), homophobia (Kassing et al., 2005), and overall psychological distress (Good et al., 1995). The understanding of men’s experiences in higher education and the negative outcomes produced by gender role conflict illustrates a discouraging picture for college men.

Research continues to inform higher education scholars and practitioners as to the harmful outcomes gender role conflict may have on college men and campus communities. Gender role conflict occurs as men make meaningful conscious or unconscious decisions about what gender identity they desire to have or express compared to socially constructed gender norms (O’Neil et al., 1995). O’Neil et al., (1995) pointed out not all men fit into the role of social gender norms, which is understood as hegemonic masculinity. The result of not fitting in hegemonic masculinity standards is gender role conflict. College men who do not fit in the narrow roles of hegemonic masculinity (e.g. students of color, disabled students, LGBTQ, and low-economic status) may result in the psychological experience of gender role conflict. For example, college gay men may feel lonely and depressed as negative consequences from gender role conflict because of the inability to align with hegemonic masculinity which would include being heterosexual.

Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje (2005) described the process of gender role conflict and how it may impact college campuses, “On a college or university campus, male gender role conflict plays itself out as men seek to compensate for certain perceived inadequacies or attempt to interact with their same-sex peers in ways that are void of
emotion and closeness” (p. 572). Harper, Harris III and Mmeje (2005) stated the complex and numerous emotional responses produced from men’s gender role conflict are not able to be processed by many college men. “Unfortunately, many undergraduate men are both unable and unwilling to productively unpack their emotions, and therefore resort to violent and aggressive behavior as a form of expression. For instance, a student may choose to release anger and frustration caused by romantic rejection through vandalizing a university building or destroying another student’s property” (Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje, 2005, p. 571).

College men who experience gender role conflict can be categorized with four unique patterns: (a) Restrictive Emotionality (difficulty expressing my tender feelings), (b) Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (my career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life), (c) Restrictive and Affectionate Behavior Between Men (expressing my emotions to other men is risky), and (d) Success, Power, and Competition Issues (I strive to become more successful than others) (O’Neil, 2008).

Research has linked gender role conflict to increased anxiety (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), increased loneliness (Blazina, Settle & Eddins, 2008), promote poor relationships with others (Mahalik, 2000) and create barriers to healthy identity development (Edwards & Jones, 2009; Simonsen, Blazina, & Watkins, 2000). Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje (2005) argued men’s gender role conflict is a critical component that influences men’s misconduct on college campuses and their development of competence and self-efficacy.

The concerning research on college men has resulted in a shift in the literature from a focus on college men’s negative performance to research explaining why these
behavioral trends may happen. Gender, in particular masculine identity development, appears to be central to the troubles men face in college and the resulting challenges higher education and student affairs professionals encounter. Harris III and Lester (2009) stated, “At the heart of the issues concerning college men and identity development is the pressure men face to conform to narrowly constructed and stereotypical masculine behavior norms” (p. 102). The present study seeks to further understand the “heart” of issues behind college men by researching a critical aspect of men’s gender identity development – gender role conflict.

Research has indicated there are promising practices in higher education on the horizon for college men though. Sax’s (2008) research on gender difference of college experience and performance found “diverse interactions and learning experiences as particularly eye-opening experiences for male students” (p. 132). Sax (2008) explained diversity activities alter college men’s worldviews and causes them to question their role in the world. Interactional diversity, student interaction with people who are different, and classroom diversity, diversity-related experiences in the formal in-class curriculum, have continued to support student learning and development in college (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002). Both interactional and classroom diversity may result in increased critical thinking skills (Laird, 2005), cultural awareness (Astin 1993a), and social self-confidence (Gurin et al., 2002). Conceptual framework of men’s gender identity supports Sax’s (2008) research and evidence supported development outcomes of diversity experiences. Harris III (2010) and Edwards and Jones (2009) studied men’s gender identity development and suggested diversity experiences in higher education may
influence positive and healthy gender identities. The present study seeks to explore the relationship between interactional and classroom diversity experiences and men’s gender role conflict.

**Significance of Study**

The present study seeks to explore the relationship between gender role conflict of college fraternity men and their diversity experiences in and out of the classroom. The present study is significant for the following three reasons: (a) the present study adds to current literature on diversity experiences, fraternity membership, and men’s gender identity development; (b) research indicates that college men are demonstrating academic underachievement, co-curricular disengagement, and health-risky behaviors; (c) diversity in higher education is projected to grow, making student diversity experiences critical to research to determine their impact on learning and development.

*The present study adds to current literature on diversity experiences, fraternity membership, and men’s masculine identity development.*

**Diversity Experiences**

The present study supports diversity experiences as a critical learning opportunity of higher education. Despite the abundance of literature showing positive student learning from diversity experiences, there are political and legal efforts towards discontinuing diversity from student learning initiatives in higher education (Orfield, 2001). Orfield (2001) argued there was no consensus on benefits diversity has for students and society.
Scholars have also challenged research results that demonstrate positive outcomes for students through engagement with diversity (Rothman, Lipset, & Nevitte, 2003; Wood & Sherman, 2001). Rothman et al., (2003) challenged the research that claims racial diversity in college increases student learning and improves race relations. Wood and Sherman (2001) argued the statistical analysis was altered and misguided to give more support to diversity value in education than there really is. Further research is needed to provide additional information on diversity related student learning. The present study provides evidence to inform decisions on diversity experiences in the curricular and co-curricular setting.

*Fraternity Membership*

Greek membership is estimated at 10-15% of undergraduates; however, there is a significant underrepresentation of research on fraternities considering their prevalence on college campuses (Molasso, 2005). Generally speaking, literature on fraternity membership lacks in addressing educational outcomes and well-being (Martin, Hevel, Asel, & Pascarella, 2011). Most of the research on fraternity membership has focused on understanding and preventing alcohol, sexual assault, and hazing (Molasso, 2005). Molasso (2005) argued some factors for the lack of research is due to the perceived power and wealth the community has, and scholars preferred to rather spend their time studying less privileged students. According to Molasso (2005), the perceived wealth and privileges fraternity membership may already possess has created conditions that lack funding for research.
Due to the lack of education outcomes and well-being research on fraternity life, professionals in the field do not always have the necessary evidence to make informed decisions for best practices. Molasso (2005) argued psychosocial and identity development are important aspects in the needed research of fraternity membership. Present research addresses the gaps of fraternity membership literature as the study includes exclusively fraternity men and their experiences of diversity and gender role conflict. The present study will provide knowledge that may guide fraternity life leaders to enhance fraternity participation experiences and learning outcomes.

**Masculine Identity Development**

The research may contribute to additional insight into men’s gender identity development research and practice as gender role conflict is a one main element of masculine identity development (Davis, 2002). The present study of men’s gender role conflict is vital for student affairs and higher education success. Davis (2002) stated there is little written about how gender impacts the psychosocial development of college men. Due to this lack of research, student affairs professionals are not trained to view issues affecting men through a gendered lens (Davis & Laker, 2004). Scholars argued one reason this may be is based on the incorrect assumption that most classic student development theory is a study of men (e.g. Chickering, 1969; Erickson, 1968; Marcia, 1980). Laker (2003) explained this is a misconceived assumption; the research did not study men but rather studied students who were men. Theory from this research cannot explain gender identity development for men or women. Davis and Laker (2004) argued one main reason for college men’s problems (e.g. substance abuse, sexual assault,
academic disengagement, and psychological distress) in higher education has to do with the student affairs failure of truly understanding men’s gender development. The more information that is available on men, particularly through a gendered lens, the more informed practitioners will be to support college men’s learning and development (Davis, 2002). The present research hopes to provide related information on men’s gender development.

Literature on gender role conflict, a critical aspect of masculine identity development, is also supported by the present study. O’Neil’s (2008) review of 232 empirical studies that used the gender role conflict scale indicated gender role conflict as a well-documented concept. Davis and Laker (2004) argued student affairs professionals should be aware of and understand gender role conflict patterns as they are aspects of men’s lives that they continue to experience in college. However, there is limited research on direct studies involving fraternity men and no published research on gender role conflict’s relationship with diversity experiences. The present study is therefore unique, as well as timely, as it fills the gap of gender role conflict and college diversity experiences in the literature.

Men’s gender role conflict is a psychological condition that may be experienced differently based the diversity of identities and cultures men have (O’Neil, 2008). That is, men develop masculine identities within a social context, social norms, and ideology. As social norms and related pressures change definitions of gender identity and performance, men who may experience gender identity development in 1985 would likely do so differently in 2013. Due to the complexity of gender role conflict and the
numerous variables involved in identity formation, gender role conflict needs to be studied within different settings and social contexts to fully understand how the psychological condition operates.

**Research indicates that college men are demonstrating academic underachievement, co-curricular disengagement, and health-risky behaviors.** There are growing fears surrounding college men’s emotional, mental and physical well-being (Davis & Laker, 2004). College-aged men between the ages of 18-24 are six times more likely to follow through a suicide than women in the same age group (Pollack, 1998a, 1998b, 2001a, 2001b). Numerous studies have also linked gender role conflict to increased psychological distress in college men (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Good & Mintz, 1990; Good, et al., 1995; Hayes & Mahalik, 2000; Liu, Rochlen, & Mohr, 2005; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991; Shepard, 2002; Wester, Christianson, Vogel, & Wei, 2007; Zamarripa, Wampold, & Gregory, 2003).

Edwards and Jones (2009) found many college men demonstrate a lack of interest towards student success and expect their college experience to include drug and alcohol abuse, video games, sporting events, sexual relationships and not caring about academics. Research indicates college men continue to engage in behaviors that place their health at risk in ways that tend to be more demonstrated than women. Courtenay and Keeling (2000) found many college men have unprotected sex, engage in physically violent altercations, carry weapons, and drive under the influence of alcohol (Courtenay & Keeling, 2000). Research on college men has indicated a lack of engagement and
performance within academics and co-curricular opportunities (Davis & Laker, 2004; Sax, 2008).

College graduates are expected to live in a demanding workforce and complex society. In some important ways, college men are not meeting this expectation. The delay of adulthood in college men and experiences of gender role conflict may create unprepared college graduates and negatively impact society. Kimmel (2008) found men between the ages of 16 and 26 are disconnected from society, less likely to read a newspaper, attend a church, belong to a religion or union, vote for president, and identify with a political party more than any other age group. Overall, these men believed others to be untrustworthy, unhelpful, unfair and basically bad people (Kimmel, 2008).

Harper and Harris III (2010) argued college men who do not mature or develop as adults may perpetuate emotional immaturity, patriarchy, bad health habits, sexism, homophobia, misogyny, sexual harassment and all forms of oppression on college campuses and after graduation. College men who receive little gender-related education are unprepared for society and workforce demands as they are confused, unauthentic, insecure, and destructive (Harper & Harris III, 2010). If more attention is not given towards men’s development, Kimmel (2008) foresees the lack of men’s development to adulthood to only increase.

College men who are facing challenges in life are less inclined to seek out help from others or campus support services (Good & Wood, 1995). Gender socialization promotes negative attitudes towards help-seeking behavior; many college men will not seek out help for their challenges (Good & Wood, 1995). Davis (2002) urged educators
to be aware this lack of expression for help should not be misunderstood as a lack of need for help. The present research is significant to better understand college men considering they are less likely to search out support services. Diversity experiences may be a purposeful practice to support men’s development in higher education for student affairs without them seeking it.

By the year 2019, the National Center of Education Statistics projected a total of 7.9 million enrolled male college students (Hussar & Bailey, 2011). As men continue to enroll in higher education, higher education and student affairs professionals must be equipped with the information needed to appropriately understand college men and support their development. Men, as a rising student population, in higher education are also arriving to campuses socialized to fully embrace traditional norms of masculinity (Harris III, 2010). Men who continue to conform to socially prescribed gender norms increase their likelihood of gender role conflict and the many resulting consequences (O’Neil, 2008).

In summary, college men are displaying behavior that limits learning and development. Literature describes why men are in trouble on college campuses. There are increased research results detailing negative trends of men’s behavioral, emotional and physical well-being in college, disengagement with academics and student involvement, lack of development towards adulthood, negative help-seeking behavior, and projected increase of enrolled male students who embrace socially prescribed masculine norms. These findings suggest the importance of understanding men’s gender role conflict as an aspect that greatly impacts a student’s experience in higher education.
There is a large projected increase of student diversity in higher education. The current state of diverse students in college campuses and projected future of higher education enrollment fosters new and growing college student experiences. The shift towards universal access (Trow, 2001) has increased the complexity of enrolling students. College campuses are now more diverse in race and ethnicity, country of origin, and political and religious beliefs (Hu & Kuh, 2003). Hussar and Bailey (2011) projected from 2008 enrollment, students of color will enroll with the following increases by 2019: 30 percent for students who are Black, 45 percent for students who are Hispanic, 30 percent for students who are Asian or Pacific Islander, and 5 percent for students who are American Indian or Alaska Native. These changes in higher education enrollment have increased student experiences and interactions with diversity among peers and, as projections show, will continue to do so.

The college years are an intentional time to help students explore who they are personally and in relation to the broader world (Settersten & Ray, 2010). Literature has demonstrated numerous positive outcomes of student diversity experiences (Bowman, 2010c). Settersten and Ray (2010) stated, “This makes college a prime setting in which young people can explore or wrestle with diverse perspectives and issues” (p. 164). Laird (2005) argued students are best off with opportunities to experiment with different roles and ideas before making commitments into adulthood. Without diversity, students may not have time to explore different options which leaves only a few pre-college ideas to select from (Laird, 2005). For example, Hu and Kuh (2003) found positive correlations between diversity experiences and general education, science and technology, vocational
preparation, intellectual development, diversity competence, and personal development. Umbach and Kuh (2006) argued the peer-to-peer interaction with people from different backgrounds may help students be more prepared for a pluralistic society and a diverse workforce. Considering the projected increase and significance to learning and development diversity experiences have on students, it is critical to understand in more detail diversity experiences’ relationship to a student’s experience in college.

**Research Questions**

Given the significance of this research topic, the researcher will address the following two research questions:

1. What is the relationship between fraternity men’s gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences?
2. What is the relationship between fraternity men’s gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences?

The researcher hypothesizes interactional and classroom diversity experiences are both negatively related to gender role conflict. That is, as a fraternity man increases his degree of interactional and classroom diversity experiences, his degree of gender role conflict will be lower. The well documented positive learning and development from student diversity experiences, and insights to diversity experiences influence on men’s gender identity development will moderate the degree of gender role conflict in fraternity men. Meaningful diversity experiences with which a fraternity man may engage might be an opportunity to explore alternative paths of masculinity for healthy identity development. Diversity experiences may create reflective opportunities to evaluate one’s
own gender identity, experiment with other masculine identities, and challenge preconceived expectations of what a man should be to accept a more authentic masculine identity, one that does not construct gender role conflict. For example, a fraternity man who takes a course focused on gender equality or race and ethnicity (classroom diversity) may foster healthy masculine identity development. A fraternity man who has serious discussions with a student who was from another country and/or whose political opinions are very different (interactional diversity) may also create an opportunity for healthy masculine identity development.

Sax’s (2008) research indicated diversity experiences as very eye-opening for college men. The researcher hypothesizes that diversity experiences will challenge pre-college socialized gender identities and encourage the new development of more authentic masculine identities. Based off of Edwards and Jones (2009) Grounded Theory of College Men’s Gender Identity Development Model, college men who engage in diversity experiences are more likely to transcend from external expectations of masculinity and modify traditional definitions of masculinity to create a more positive one.

**Summary**

The present research focuses on relationships between diversity experiences and college men’s gender role conflict may support higher education and student affairs professionals in order to better serve college students. The present research seeks to accomplish this through analysis of the relationship between gender role conflict and diversity experiences. The results may be used to inform programs and practices to
encourage more self-authored and healthy masculine identities among college males by lessening their degree of gender role conflict. Results may benefit all students, not only men, because gender role conflict is potentially problematic to every student and numerous university goals.
Chapter 2 – Literature Review

The following review of literature discusses existing knowledge relevant to the present study. The literature review begins with defining key terms pertinent to the present study. Afterwards, the review will include an analysis of five main areas. First, identity development theory provides a conceptual framework to understand gender role conflict. Second, gender role conflict is examined as follows: consequences, patterns, themes and foundations, and research on diverse men. Third, diversity experiences are examined in three categories: (a) structural, (b) classroom, and (c) interactional. Fourth, literature seeks to show theoretical connections between diversity experiences and gender role conflict within men’s development. Lastly, the review indicates gender role conflict’s relationship with fraternity membership.

Definition of Terms

The following terms and definitions are important to understand in context of the present study of gender role conflict and diversity experiences.

*Classroom diversity:* Diversity-related experiences in the formal in-class curriculum or participation in diversity workshops (Gurin et al., 2002).

*Diversity:* Encompasses student’s race and ethnicity, language, religion, culture, ideology, dis/ability, socioeconomic status, gender, sexual orientation and other attributes (Bowman, 2010a).

*Gender Role Conflict (GRC):* “a psychological state occurring when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles learned thorough socialization, result in personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self” (O’Neil, 1990, p. 25).
Man’s Gender Role Transition: “events in a man’s gender role development that alter or challenge his gender role self-assumptions and consequently produce GRC or positive life changes (O’Neil & Egan, 1992, O’Neil, Fishman, & Kinsella-Shaw, 1987; O’Neil & Fishman, 1992).

Masculine Identity Development: “an interactive process involving men’s awareness of society’s expectations of performing masculinities, challenges men’s experience in meeting societal expectations, and men’s efforts to transcend societal expectations by redefining what it means to be a man and performing masculinities according to their own beliefs and values” (Harris III, 2010, p. 298).

Gender role: “behaviors, expectations, and role sets defined by society as masculine or feminine which are embodied in the behavior of the individual man or woman and culturally regarded as appropriate to males or females” (O’Neil, 1891b, p. 203).

Identity: “the interface between the individual and the world, defining as it does what the individual will stand for and be recognized as” (Josselson, 1987, p. 8).

Interactional Diversity: Student interaction with people who are different (Gurin et al., 2002).

Structural diversity: Diversity demographics of the student body (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002).

College Student Identity Development Theoretical Background

Student development theories describe establishing identity, including gender identity, as a central task most college students encounter and must manage (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Erikson, 1968; Marcia, 1996). Therefore, gender role conflict, a critical
aspect of gender identity development, may be understood in greater detail within the framework of student development theory (Figure 1). Erikson’s (1968) model of development sets a foundation of a person’s lifetime developmental stages to achieve a healthy personality and positive social interactions. Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) Theory of College Student Identity Development focuses on Erikson’s fifth and sixth stages and provides seven vectors that explain a successful college student’s identity formation. Gender role conflict, one element of gender identity development conceptualized within Chickering and Riesser’s model, is argued to negatively impact all seven identify formation vectors. That is, college men who experience gender role conflict are less likely to establish a healthy identity and purpose. Lastly, Edwards and Jones’s (2009) Theory of College Men’s Gender Identity Development further details how college men develop a masculine identity and experience the developmental process.
Erikson’s (1968) Theory of Psychosocial Development provides a framework to understand college men’s gender identity development. Erikson (1968) stated eight stages may describe individuals’ psychosocial development throughout their life. An individual may encounter events that produce two possible outcomes for each stage. Erikson (1968) argued healthy personality and interactions with others is a result to the successful resolution of each stage. Therefore, failure to successfully resolve a stage of
psychosocial development may negatively affect how future stages are approached and achieved (Erikson, 1968). The following includes Erikson’s (1968) eight stages of psychosocial development as summarized by Evans et al. (2010):

1. Trust vs. Mistrust (0-1 years-old): Babies learn to trust parents will meet their basic needs. If a child’s basic needs are not properly met at this age, he or she might grow up with a general mistrust of the world.

2. Autonomy vs. Shame & Doubt (2-3 years-old): Children begin to develop independence and start to learn they can do things on their own. They may feel shamed or guilty for not having the capabilities to perform such behavior that is expected of them.

3. Initiative vs. Guilt (4-6 years-old): A consciousness is developed and they become aware of their actions as right or wrong. Independence is exercised through interactions with self and others. Consequences of interactions and actions may result in guilt.

4. Industry vs. Inferiority (4-12 years-old): Children continue to develop self-confidence through learning new things. Children should be encouraged and praised as they want to feel useful. If children do not develop appropriately, they may experience feelings of inferiority.

5. Identity vs. Identity Diffusion (13-19 years-old): Adolescents creates social experiences and personal identity questions for definition of oneself. The core sense of self, values, beliefs, and goals are important to establish. The question of “Who am I?” is at the heart of stage five.
6. **Intimacy vs. Isolation (20-34 years-old):** Individuals work towards establishing intimate relationships between friends and family. If identities are not established, they may distance themselves from others.

7. **Generativity vs. Stagnation (35 – 64 years-old):** Individuals seek to contribute to society in different ways. If they do not find ways to give back to their communities they may experience stagnation.

8. **Identity vs. Despair (65+ years-old):** As senior citizens, people tend to look back on their lives and reflect on their successes or failures. If adults are satisfied with their life decisions and experiences they will experience integrity. If not, they will experience despair and desire to start over again.

College men are seeking to discover what it means to be a man in today’s society. Once masculine identities are established within stage five, college men often progress to stage six and work towards establishing intimate relationships with friends and family. College men who do not have commitments to their gender identity and are still exploring different alternatives to identifying as a man may delay stage six and distance themselves from others. The resulting feelings of isolation may explain negative emotions from gender role conflict (e.g. depression, psychological distress, poor attachment with parents, and lack of capacity for intimacy) (Blazina & Watkins, 1996; Good & Wood, 1995; Good & Mintz, 1990; Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995). College men who experience gender role conflict may be wrestling most with stages five and six of Erikson’s developmental model.
Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) student identity development model is a well-supported theory that evaluates development of college students (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010). Chickering and Reisser (1993) built upon Erikson’s (1968) work on psychosocial identity development. In particular, their theory focuses on Erikson’s identity and intimacy developmental processes, stages five and six. Chickering and Reisser (1993) purposefully investigated these areas of development suggesting they are the most critical for college students (Evans et al., 2010). Chickering and Reisser (1993) indicated identity development involves growth in the following seven vectors:

1. Developing Competence: The development of intellectual, physical, and interpersonal competence to create a sense of confidence for the achievement of goals.

2. Managing Emotions: The ability to understand, accept, and express emotions. Individuals must learn how they appropriately act on the feelings they experience.

3. Moving Through Autonomy Toward Interdependence: The successful achievement of learning how to be emotionally independent. Become free from consistent need for comfort, affirmation, and approval from others. Individuals see themselves as autonomous but part of a whole and interdependent on others.

4. Developing Interpersonal Relationships: Individuals learn to appreciate and understand others.

5. Establishing Identity: Individuals become comfortable with one’s own self and gain self-acceptance. This may include physical appearance, gender and sexual
identity, ethnicity, and social roles. It also includes becoming stable and gaining self-esteem.

6. Developing Purpose: An individual develops commitment to the future and becomes more competent at making and following through on decisions.

7. Developing Integrity: Sequential stages of humanizing values, personalizing values, and developing congruence occur to establish integrity. Individuals balance their own personal interest and the interest in others while also affirming and establishing their core beliefs. Congruence develops as one’s actions and values match. A sense of social responsibility becomes part of personal integrity.

According to Chickering and Reisser (1993), the vectors symbolize the "direction" and "magnitude" of college student identity development (p. 8). The vectors describe elements of student identity development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). The authors described vectors as "elements" instead of "stages" considering college student identity development is extremely complex, diverse, and each unique in some capacity. Therefore, development does not occur in specific stages but rather, "movement along any one [vector] can occur at different rates and can interact with movement along the others" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 34). Movement from one vector to another does not have to be linear. For example, Vector 5: Establishing Identity may occur and foster more development in Vector 4: Developing Interpersonal Relationships. Chickering and Reisser (1993) view development along the vector model as an integrated emotional and cognitive process as students encounter complex tasks and reconcile new positions. As college students moves through the seven vector model of identity development they
experience and gain awareness, emotions, competency, and skills. Men’s gender role identity development, an aspect of identity development during college, impacts growth of Chickering and Reisser’s identity development model.

![Chickering & Reisser's (1993) Seven Vectors: General Developmental Directions](image)

**Figure 2.** A conceptual paradigm explaining college men’s gender role conflict impacting seven developmental vectors. This figure describes how gender role conflict negatively impacts healthy college student development (O’Neil, 2011).

Stage five of Chickering and Reisser’s development model is the formation of a gender identity. O’Neil (2011) conceptually illustrated how a college man’s gender role identity negativity relates to Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) development vectors
(Figure 2). The arrows in O’Neil’s (2011) visual model displays college men’s complex interaction and engagement of masculinity. The top of O’Neil’s (2011) model indicates the dynamic processes that create narrow, rigid, and sexist masculine ideology to which college men feel compelled to conform to. The illustration of gender role identity development, a significant identity development task within Chickering and Reisser’s vector model, is recognized here as a dominant issue for college men.

O’Neil (2011) designated the question “Who am I, as a man?” to describe gender identity development among college men. This question and college men’s search for an answer to establish identity affects the college experience. All of the masculinity issues on the top of O’Neil’s (2011) model may negatively affect the seven identity vectors stated by Chickering and Reisser (1993) (O’Neil, 2011). O’Neil’s (2011) conceptual paradigm explains how patriarchy, sexism, stereotypes, masculine norms, patterns of gender role conflict, and gender role conflict derived emotions of anger, fear, guilt, anxiety, and shame are interrelated and inhibit men’s identity development. O’Neil (2011) clarified how gender role conflict stands as an important role in student development:

“Developing competence and managing emotions are difficult for a young man who experiences a restrictive gender roles and GRC. Autonomy, interdependence, and developing mature relationships are compromised when restrictive gender roles shape attitudes and behaviors during the college experience. Identity development and finding purpose in your life are difficult if you are distorting major gender role schemas and experiencing gender role conflict. Likewise,
integrity is difficult to define and embrace if you are a prisoner to your sexist gender role socialization.” (p.1)

**College Men’s Gender Identity Development**

There is not much written about how masculinity impacts the psychosocial development of college men (Davis, 2002). Edwards and Jones partially filled this gap in the literature in their 2009 qualitative research of 10 college men that resulted in a theory to describe college men’s gender identity development, one aspect of identity formation viewed within Erikson’s (1968) and Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) identity development theories.

Barriers to healthy identity development may occur due to an inability to adhere to the traditionally socialized gendered norms. College men’s gender role identity development, a component within Chickering and Riesser’s (1993) development model and Erikson’s (1968) theory, may be impacted by gender role conflict. For example, a college man may be seen in Chickering and Riesser’s (1993) Vector 5: Establishing Identity as he seeks out comfort and stability for his gender identity. The college man gains awareness of how his sense of gender identity relates to his culture and social communities, determines one’s role and lifestyle as a man, gains self-acceptance and self-esteem based on the determined gender identity, becomes stable, and integrates the gender identity as a part of the large holistic identity. Barriers to gender identity formation may occur due to the awareness of one’s determined gender identity is contradictory to expectations of gender from social communities, cultural heritage, and society. For example, a gay man who has a more feminine identity and related behavior
may not achieve self-acceptance and self-esteem through Vector 5: Establishing Identity. The failure to achieve an accepted and stable gender identity may restrict other development on Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) vector continuum, such as mature relationships, intimacy, sexuality, race/ethnicity, purpose and integrity.

Edwards and Jones’s (2009) development model describes college men’s process of negotiating with society’s expectations of men (Figure 3). “In order to try and meet these expectations and be seen as men, the participants in the study put on a performance that was like wearing a mask” (Edwards & Jones, 2009, p. 214). Edwards and Jones (2009) found college men perform masculinity according to social norms through three phases: (a) Feeling a Need to Put On a Mask, (b) Wearing a Mask, and (c) Experiencing and Recognizing Consequences of Wearing a Mask.

Phase 1: Feeling a Need to Put On a Mask based on dominate society’s expectations and cultural group expectations describes the pressure to adhere to hegemonic masculinity (Edwards and Jones, 2009). Factors that formed external pressures for men included, “being competitive, in control of emotions, or unemotional, aggressive, responsible, the breadwinner, in a position of authority, rational, strong, successful, tough, and breaking the rules” (Edwards & Jones, 2009, p. 214-215). These men also reported they experienced pressures not only how to be a man but how not to; such as being gay, feminine, or vulnerable (Edwards & Jones, 2009). These expectations to put on a mask were not new to the participants. The college men reported feeling these expectations on how to be a man for their entire lifetime. Based on the feelings, college men consciously or unconsciously wear the mask.
Figure 3. Grounded theory of college men’s gender identity development. This figure illustrates a process college men experience through masculine development within the context of “wearing the mask” (Edwards & Jones, 2009).

Phase 2: Wearing a Mask, describes those men who perform masculinity to cover up the ways where their true sense of self did not match society’s expectations of manhood (Edwards & Jones, 2009). College men reported they wore the mask to intentionally prove their manhood and cover up their insecurities (Edwards & Jones, 2009). College men also unintentionally put on the mask by “falling in” to society’s expectations of them (Edwards and Jones, 2009). Edwards and Jones (2009) described many of the men who performed actions that were contradictory to their own values and

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<th>Social Context: External Expectations of What It Means To Be a Man</th>
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<td>• Dominant society’s expectations</td>
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<td>• Subordinated cultural group expectations</td>
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<tr>
<th>Performing Masculinity According to External Expectations</th>
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<td>Phase 1: Feeling a Need to Put On a Mask:</td>
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<td>• To meet society’s expectations after feeling like one does not measure-up as self</td>
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<td>• To portray an image of a man according to society’s expectations</td>
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<td>• To cover-up aspects of self that do not fit society’s expectations</td>
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<td>• Both intentionally/consciously and unintentionally/unconsciously</td>
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<th>Phase 2: Wearing a Mask:</th>
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<td>• By “partying” as college men</td>
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<td>• To make transgressing against society’s expectations in other ways acceptable</td>
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<td>• In response to experiencing oppression</td>
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<td>• By creating one’s own mask based on society’s expectations</td>
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<th>Phase 3: Experiencing and Recognizing Consequences of Wearing a Mask</th>
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<td>• Demeaning and degrading relationships and attitudes towards women</td>
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<td>• Limited relationships with other men, including friends and fathers</td>
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<td>• Loss of authenticity and humanity</td>
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<th>Beginning to Transcend External Expectations</th>
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<td>• Accepting the ways the mask doesn’t fit</td>
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<td>• Critical influences and critical incidents helped men transcend the performance in certain aspects of their lives and/or in specific circumstances</td>
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did so without being conscious of it; for example, drinking until blacking out and unknowingly waking up next to a woman. Wearing the mask of masculinity led to a focus on partying and demonstrating disinterest in academics (Edwards & Jones, 2009). Edwards and Jones (2009) found college men when wearing a mask would experience and recognize consequences of having the mask on.

Phase 3: Experiencing and Recognizing Consequences of Wearing a Mask is described men’s awareness of negative behavior towards women and lack of intimacy with other men (Edwards & Jones, 2009). Edwards and Jones (2009) also reported, “They [men] lost some of their authenticity by pretending to be someone they were not and sacrificed some of their humanity by denying aspects of who they really were” (Edwards & Jones, 2009, p. 219). The men in Edwards and Jones’s (2009) research reported the complex and challenging process of taking off the mask. According to Edwards and Jones (2009), taking off the mask may begin through acceptance of a more true and authentic self or by experiencing a critical influence or incident that served as a catalyst. Catalysts may include becoming a father, death of a loved one, or establishing a serious relationship. However, the mask may be put back on as soon as men were perceived as not meeting external expectations on how to be masculine and felt insecure (Edwards & Jones, 2009). Edwards and Jones (2009) found none of the 10 participants successfully transcended society’s expectations of masculine identities but it was a clear goal for all of them.

In summary, a college man’s gender identity development is described in detail how it aligns with college student identity development theory. Erikson’s (1968) Theory
of Psychosocial development details eight stages through a person’s life time that if successfully resolved would result in healthy personality. Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) model focuses on the fifth and sixth identity development stages that best describes the identity development of college men. O’Neil (2011) conceptually frames a man’s gender role identity development as negatively impacting all seven identity development vectors of Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) development of a healthy college student. Harris III and Edwards (2009) illustrate the external pressures to wear a mask of masculinity in their grounded theory research to understand the gendered experiences and identities men have in college. As men begin to form gender identities, they transcend from society’s external expectations of what a man should be to achieve a more authentic and healthy masculine identity (Edwards & Jones, 2009).

**Gender Role Conflict**

Edwards and Jones (2009) Phase Three: Experiencing and Recognizing Consequences of Wearing a Mask best illustrates negative outcomes from gender role conflict. Loss of authenticity, limited relationships with men, and negative attitudes towards women all represent experienced consequences of gender role conflict (O’Neil, 2008). Male gender role conflict is a produced condition when gender socialization and adherence to masculinity ideology and norms have negative consequences on the person or others (O’Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1995; O’Neil, 2008). Gender role conflict is defined as the tension between who men truly are and who they feel they must be (O’Neil, et al., 1986). Gender role conflict is the result of the inability to conform to these rigid, sexist and restrictive gender roles; resulting in the restriction, devaluation, or violation of others
or self (O’Neil et al., 1995). That is, as men develop they must make meaningful conscious or unconscious decisions about what gender identity they desire to have or express (O’Neil et al., 1995). Men who are affected by gender role conflict are experiencing discomfort within gender identity conformity and development (O’Neil, 2008). To better understand potential relationships between diversity experiences and gender role conflict, it is important to have a grounded understanding of gender role conflict, how it is shaped in society, and the four main patterns of gender role conflict.

**Gender role Conflict Underpinnings and Patterns**

Gender role conflict, and personal and institutional sexism are the two overall themes that enable or prohibit men’s development and life experiences (O’Neil, 2008) (Figure 4). Gender role conflict is based on men’s gender role socialization and masculinity ideology and norms (O’Neil et al., 1995). These two foundations are responsible for fear of the femininity and the four patterns of gender role conflict (O’Neil, 1981; 1982). O’Neil (2008) argued fear of femininity is enforced through men’s interaction in a sexist and patriarchal society. Masculine stereotypes are promoted and reinforced through gender socialization. The described development of fear of femininity describes the complex process where stereotypes and beliefs of men, masculinity and femininity are learned and foster gender role conflict (O’Neil, 1981a, 1981b, 1982). Gender role conflict is a critical feature in the cycle of a patriarchal and sexist society. Gender role conflict results in personal and institutional sexism, which in turn fosters gender role conflict, thus creating the cycle.
Gender role conflict as measured by the Gender Role Conflict Scale can be observed within four themes. Four empirically derived patterns of men’s gender role conflict have been established: (a) Restrictive Emotionality, (b) Conflict Between Work and Family Relations, (c) Restrictive and Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Success, Power, and Competition Issues (O’Neil et al., 1986) (Figure 2). Restrictive Emotionality includes fears of expressing one’s own feelings and limitations to express basic emotions (O’Neil, 2008). Conflict Between Work and Family Relations are experienced through negative outcomes from men trying to balance work, family and school (O’Neil, 2008). Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men is defined as difficulties touching other men and feeling restrictions in expressing ideas or feelings with other men (O’Neil, 2008). Success, Power, and Competition Issues may arise when

*Figure 4. Gender Role Conflict. This figure illustrates theoretical foundations, connections, and patterns of the gender role conflict (O’Neil, Good, & Homes, 1995).*
personal ideology defines success as gained through competition and power (O’Neil, 2008). The present study examines and measures fraternity college men’s degree of gender role conflict within these four themes. Together, the four themes form the psychological construct known as gender role conflict. Research demonstrates numerous negative outcomes from gender role conflict.

*Gender Role Conflict Consequences*

Higher levels of gender role conflict have been found to increase low self-esteem and anxiety (Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Research also indicated gender role conflict is positively related correlated with depression (Good & Mintz, 1990) and overall psychological distress (Good et al., 1995). Men who experienced gender role conflict have a higher likelihood of also experiencing these harmful and dangerous psychological conditions. Another significant aspect of gender role conflict is the promotion of negative attitudes towards asking and receiving help (Good & Wood, 1995). The lack of help-seeking behavior may allow for the psychological conditions to be maintained or increase. Good and Wood’s (1995) research suggested this relationship; men who experience psychological distress from gender role conflict are less likely to seek out support services that may reduce the harmful conditions of distress. Gender role conflict’s outcomes of psychological distress and negative help-seeking attitudes may explain gender role conflict’s positive relationship with suicide risk (Borthick 1997; Borthick, Knox, Taylor, & Dietrich, 1997; Houle, 2005; Houle, Mishara, & Chagnon, 2007).
Additional research indicates gender role conflict interferes with healthy relationships with others. Blazina and Watkins (1996) not only indicated gender role conflict’s positive relationship with anger and substance abuse but also poor attachment with parents. Research indicates a higher degree of gender role conflict lowers the capacity for intimate relationships (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Rochlen & Mahalik, 2004; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Mahalik (2000) found gender role conflict increased hostility and general rigid interpersonal behaviors. Researchers have also found gender role conflict has a significant positive relationship with: homophobia (Kassing et al., 2005), fear of femininity (O’Neil et al., 1995), racial bias (Mahalik, 2000), sexual aggression (Kaplan, 1992), sexual harassment tolerance (Glomb & Espelage, 2005; Jacobs, 1996; Kearney, King, & Rochlen, 2004), and likelihood of becoming violent with women (O’Neil & Nadeau, 1999). These relationships with gender role conflict shows how men’s experiences of gender role conflict may be harmful to campus communities who come across one or more of the following behaviors or attitudes: violence, aggression, homophobia, sexism and racism.

Edwards and Jones (2009) argued many sexual or racial minority college students are confronted with pressure to form traditionally accepted gender identities but are unattainable considering hegemonic masculinity includes being white and heterosexual. Research illustrates how gender role conflict is negatively linked to healthy identity formation. Simonsen, Blazina, and Watkins (2000) found higher levels of gender role conflict to limit gay men’s sexual identity development. Wade (1996) found racial identity development as externally defined was also limited in men who reported a high
degree of gender role conflict. These studies indicate the impact gender role conflict may have on college students. A theoretical examination of gender role conflict is critical to understand the psychological effect on college men.

Davis’s (2002) qualitative study of 10 college men’s experience of gender role conflict found the following five themes: (a) awareness of self and other’s perceptions of self-expression based on gender norms, (b) communication restrictions based on masculine norms, (c) fear of femininity, (d) being overly challenged without adequate support, and (e) confusion about masculinity. These five themes describe college men’s experience of gender role conflict and the related negative outcomes gender role conflict promotes.

The first theme of gender role conflict’s experience in college men described the heightened sensitivity on how men communicate to others to ensure they were doing so within the boundaries of traditional masculinity norms. Davis (2002) reported college men are very self-aware of how they and others view themselves based on traditional masculine norms. For example, awareness of the self and how others perceive one’s self-expression as a man may include wearing traditionally appropriate masculine clothing, walking in a certain way to illustrate masculinity, and expressing little to no emotion. Davis discussed the participants wanted to express emotions but were extremely aware of negative consequences if they did so based on the narrow parameters of traditional masculine performance.

Second, men’s experience of gender role conflict also demonstrated communication styles based on masculine norms (Davis, 2002). Men were able to
express themselves in a more authentic way to women compared to men. College men felt they didn’t have to act as masculine around college women as they did college men. Comfort around women made communication more genuine instead of feeling forced to demonstrate untrue masculine performances when with college men. Participants who communicated with other men did so with humorous comments and “put-downs”. Affection was communicated by participants to other men in a misunderstood way. Participants typically reported verbal expression was done in a “side-by-side” manner. Activities like video games and gambling were considered avenues for men to bond.

Third, participants also described a fear of femininity (Davis, 2002). Participants were fearful of how others interpreted their behavior based on gender ideals. The college men also illustrated frustration based on the fear to be viewed as feminine in different behavior. Masculinity was an acceptable and desired interpretation of behavior while femininity was the perceived as the opposite. The fear of connecting femininity or gay as a label to participants was critical to the students own performance and behavior in college. Davis found all the participants reported openness to talking, cologne, and clothing choices as behavioral actions that may produce their sexuality to be questioned. Therefore, these actions would not be taken based on the fear of being interpreted as feminine. According to O’Neil (1981), fear of femininity is at the center of men’s gender role conflict. Davis’s research supports this critical aspect of gender role conflict in his qualitative study. Participants’ fear of being interpreted as feminine would restrict emotional expression and limit communication.
Fourth, Davis (2002) reported a common theme of feeling left out on college campuses. Davis described this theme of participants’ experiences of gender role conflict as a sense of challenge without support from others. The college men reported awareness of support services intentionally created for women without a consistent focus on men. One participant reported confusion on why different genders were supported in different ways in college.

Lastly, Davis (2002) asked each participant what it was like to be a man on campus. Davis found participants communicated a general sense of confusion in regards to masculinity and their identities as men. Davis described a lack of reflection about what it means to be a man in college but aware of the traditional norms set forth by masculinity. Davis’ (2002) research on the experiences men have with gender role conflict suggests gender role conflict outcomes do not support healthy development or learning in college.

In summary, the theoretical features of gender role conflict and documented outcomes demonstrate the complexity it has as a psychological condition for college men. Research indicates numerous negative consequences of gender role conflict and how these can be experienced in gender role transitions, interpersonally, from others, and intrapersonally within cognitive, affective, unconscious and behavior dimensions. Evidence supports four patterns of gender role conflict that are fostered from men’s gender role socialization, masculinity ideological norms, and the fear of femininity.
Diversity Experiences

Gurin et al. (2002) established diversity experiences as critical aspects of student development because they provide the necessary challenge needed for a healthy sense of self and intellectual thinking. Gurin et al.’s theory is based on Piaget (1971, 1985) and Erikson (1946, 1956) as well as research that found peer groups as significant aspects to college learning and development (Astin 1993b; Pacarella & Terenzini, 1991). Gurin et al. (2002) suggested diversity experiences allow students to learn about new and different ways of living, experiences, and perspectives that are different from their own. This learning allows for students to develop and commit to attitudes, roles and relationships (Gurin et al., 2002). According to (Gurin et al., 2002) there are three different kinds of diversity experiences in college: (a) structural, (b) interactional, and (c) classroom.

Structural Diversity

Structural diversity refers to the demographic diversity of a study body (Gurin et al., 2002). This may include race/ethnicity, sex, international students, students with a disability, LGBT students, intersecting identities, or any additional social minority identities that may exist. Structural diversity is also one area where most efforts are being placed to enhance interactional diversity experiences (Hu & Kuh, 2003). This includes multicultural recruitment and persistence efforts of diverse students in college. The significant influence structural diversity has on student learning is through its positive relationship of increasing interaction diversity experiences among students.
**Interactional Diversity**

As stated, structural diversity contributes to student development by providing opportunity for diverse experiences through peer interaction. Gurin et al. (2002) argued structural diversity is significant for interactional diversity to occur. Evidence illustrates the more structurally diverse the study body the more likelihood students are to interact with someone of a different background (Chang, 1999; Chang, 2002; Gurin, 1999; Springer, 1996). Interactional diversity is the degree of informal contact and interaction from students with diverse backgrounds (Gurin et al., 2002). Interactional diversity is grounded in research that suggests peer groups are critically important to college students’ learning and development (Astin, 1993b, Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991). Interactional diversity experiences heighten a student’s openness to diversity (Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, & Terenzini, 2001), promoting other diversity experiences. Gurin et al. (2002) found interaction across race to be related to intellectual and social self-confidence, critical thinking, and problem solving. Denson (2009) and Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) indicated interactional diversity experience caused a reduction of racism, stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination. Bowman (2010a, 2010b) found positive psychological well-being to be increased due to interactional diversity experiences. Locks, Hurtado, Bowman, and Oseguera (2008) showed interactions with diverse peers also increased a sense of belonging to one’s college community. Hu and Kuh’s (2003) indicated interactional diversity generally has positive effects on all students.

Porter’s (2012) quantitative and qualitative research found the more time spent in fraternity organizations and in leadership positions increased the frequency of
interactional diversity experiences. Porter argued the size and structural diversity of the organization, formality, time commitment, and advisor influence within the groups all contributed to interactional diversity opportunities. Porter’s research concluded Greek student leaders benefited from interactional diversity experiences by understanding others, being open to others’ perspectives, and learning from their peers.

*Classroom Diversity*

Classroom diversity is the degree to which cultural diversity in the curriculum is experienced through the classroom (Gurin et al., 2002). Hu and Kuh (2002) described this mode of diversity experiences also to be a well-supported method to engage students in diversity. This is due in part to the accessibility and student contact with classes while in college (Gurin, 1999). Literature indicates classroom diversity has positive cognitive and developmental growth. Laird (2005) found students who take more diversity classes were also more likely to have higher social agency, academic self-confidence, critical thinking skills, and disposition towards complex thinking. Additional research found classroom diversity to increase: complex and socio-historical thinking (Gurin, 1999), critical thinking (Hurtado, 2001), racial understanding (Astin, 1993a; Milem, 1994), participation in a community action program (Gurin, 1999), and reducing prejudice (Chang, 2002). Students who take more diversity classes are more likely to interact with diverse students (Laird, 2005) and self-confidence outcomes in diversity courses can also increase interaction with diverse peers (Laird, 2005). Students who participate in diversity workshops also indicate an increase in cultural awareness, tolerance for difference, acceptance of people from different backgrounds, commitment to promoting
racial understanding, and openness to diversity (Astin 1993a, Astin & Sax, 1998; Whitt et al., 2001)

It is important to note how all of these diversity experiences are not exclusive, they work together to foster development and certain aspects of self (Laird, 2005). For example, a student who attends a course on a race and ethnicity inequalities may gain self-confidence and a greater degree of openness to diversity. Due to these outcomes, this student has a higher likelihood of interacting with students who are different from themselves; such interaction likely furthers additional diversity experiences in and out of the classroom.

**Gender Role Conflict and Diversity Experiences**

Harris III’s (2010) research on how men make meaning of masculinity in college found diversity of campus culture to generate awareness of masculinity alternatives. Diverse campus cultures supported the cross-cultural interaction of men with different backgrounds yielding more complex ideas about masculinity gender norms and roles (Harris III, 2010). Harris III (2010) argued interactions through diversity challenged college men’s conceptualizations of pre-college gender socialized masculine identities. Interactions with male student peers from diverse backgrounds allowed for more acceptance of alternative masculine identities (Harris III, 2010). Harris III discussed his findings as support for Sax’s (2008) findings of diversity interactions being eye-opening experiences for college males. The more meaningful diverse interactional experiences with men from different backgrounds challenged prior gender socialization and encouraged new gender identity formations (Harris III, 2010).
Edwards and Jones’s (2009) study of men’s gender identity development also found diverse experiences to be significant influencers that allowed for men to develop a more authentic gender identity opposed to the pre-college socialized identity. Men discovered a more positive masculine identity through personal influences, literary and historical influences, alternative versions of masculinity, academic courses, and critical events in their lives (Edwards & Jones, 2009). Edwards and Jones (2009) suggest student affairs professionals expose men to historical and literary figures and other alternative versions of men who may provide different ways of being masculine that challenge traditional gender identities. Edwards and Jones (2009) further demonstrated how diversity experiences may expose different alternatives of being men that promote development of a more authentic and positive masculine identity.

**Gender Role Conflict and Fraternity Organizations**

Accumulating evidence suggest a fraternity life environments are homogeneous and limits learning. Martin et al. (2011) found no unique influence on student growth of any key educational outcomes from fraternity membership. Pascarella et al. (1996b) reported fraternities discourage meaningful engagement with diversity. Additional research furthers this finding; Pascarella et al. (1996a) found fraternity organizations have lower levels of openness to diversity.

Few studies have explored direct relationships between gender role conflict and fraternity membership. Braverman (1990) researched the differences between prospective fraternity students and non-fraternity students for differences in gender role conflict and assessed changes in gender role conflict in the group over a 12 to 18 month
period. Braverman initially found prospective fraternity students had more problems with success, power, and competition compared to active fraternity members. Over time, Braverman found a greater restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family relations of both, prospective fraternity men and current fraternity members. Importantly, Braverman’s research found all college men, regardless of fraternity status, reported increased gender role conflict the longer they were on campus. Davis and Liddell’s (2002) research on rape prevention programs in fraternity organizations found a significant relationship between fraternity men’s degree of gender role conflict and rape myth acceptance.

Research indicated gender role conflict likely manifests itself in fraternity organizations due to fraternity socialization and ideology. Sanday’s (1990) study demonstrated how fraternities promote and reinforce attitudes and action reflecting a dominant-submissive orientation to male-female relations. Rhoads (1995) found fraternities to continue subordination of feminine traits through fear and hatred of homosexuals and women. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) found evidence after controlling for precollege facts that indicates fraternity seniors exhibit more dominant behavior compared to their non-Greek peers. The results from the related literature on fraternity membership indicated participation in fraternities as generally not supportive of development. Laird’s (2005) research supported the previous research and argued participation in Greek life hinders student development.

Fraternity membership research does indicate some positive learning and development outcomes. According to Martin, Hevel, and Pascarella (2012), fraternity
membership demonstrated positive influence on students’ development of social responsible leadership attitudes during the first year of college. In particular, compared to unaffiliated students, fraternity men demonstrated a greater ability to evolving environments while functioning as a group and a higher belief in maintaining responsible connection to the community (Martin, Hevel, & Pascarella, 2012). Some research has found students in fraternities have greater self-efficacy than non-Greek students (Saville & Johnson, 2007; Wilder, Hoyt, Surbeck, Wilder, & Carney, 1986). Hunt and Rentz (1994) and Pike (2000) found fraternity life to increase interpersonal skills. Some other research has found Greek affiliation to increase academic performance while other studies indicate no influence on academic achievement from Greek affiliation (Pike, 2003; Debard, Lake & Binder, 2006; Pascarella, Flowers, & Whitt, 2009).

**Summary**

Overall, gender role conflict is a significant component of a college man’s identity development. Student development theory provides a conceptual lens to view gender role conflict as gender identity, a subset of human identity development. Literature illustrated a man’s gender role transition has potential to transpired gender role conflict or a more positive masculinity identity (O’Neil & Egan, 1992; O’Neil et al., 1987; O’Neil & Fishman, 1992). Diversity experiences represent one educational opportunity in higher education that promotes cognitive and personal positive development. Learning outcomes from diversity experiences may challenge gender assumptions, provide alternative versions of masculinity, and be a catalyst for positive masculine identities. As fraternity men engage in interactional diversity experiences
and/or take diverse classes, literature suggests these opportunities may lower gender role conflict in college fraternity men.

In summary of the review of literature, student identity development theory provides a framework to understand how gender role conflict plays a role in college men’s identity development and associated experiences. As men develop a masculine identity in college they encounter a certain degree of gender role conflict based on their adherence to masculinity norms (Davis, 2002). The present study explores diversity experiences as an educational aspect that may relate to men’s gender role conflict by acting as a “crisis” or an opportunity to explore alternative paths of masculinity for healthy identity development. Davis (2002) stated, “Helping men become more aware of their gender should help promote identity development to the extent that unconsidered gender roles are keeping them making reflective identity commitments” (p. 519). Interactional and classroom diversity experiences may provide awareness and knowledge that may foster more reflective identity commitments and healthy masculine identity formation in fraternity men.
Chapter 3: Methods

Research Design

The purpose of the present study is to identify relationships between gender role conflict and fraternity men’s diversity experiences. Present research follows a quantitative postpositivist philosophy. This position pursues knowledge but does not believe in the ability to gain absolute truth (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). A researcher is influenced by cultural experiences and biases, leading to subjective errors in the research (Phillips & Burbles, 2000). Following postpositivist logic, although present research will be unable to achieve perfect objectivity, research can approach it (Trochim, 2006). The present research used descriptive and inferential statistics to explore the relationship between fraternity men’s gender role conflict and their diversity experiences. Descriptive statistics summarizes data to illustrate trends and creates data that is easily understood (Patten, 2009). Inferential statistical methods allow researchers to draw results from data to detail characteristics of certain populations based on the sample and acquired data (Patten, 2009).

The present study employs a purposeful and convenience sampling method and surveys fraternity men at a comprehensive Pacific Northwest university. The researcher worked with the Center for Fraternity and Sorority Life to identify all recognized fraternity chapters at the university and the respective presidents of each chapter. Fraternities were asked to participate in the research via their presidents through a recruitment email sent by the researcher. Fraternity presidents who invited the researcher to a chapter meeting received a survey. The researcher collected all the surveys distributed during the fraternity chapter meeting and compiled those surveys with
answers as research data. Chapter three discusses the following: (a) research questions, (b) procedure, (c) location of research, (d) participants, (e) instrumentation, and (f) data analysis.

**Research Questions**

Two research questions guide the study in understanding potential relationships between a fraternity students’ diversity experiences and their degree of gender role conflict. The research questions, independent variables, dependent variables and null hypotheses for the present study are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between interactional diversity experiences and men’s gender role conflict?
   
   **Independent Variable:** Interactional diversity experiences
   
   **Dependent Variable:** Men’s gender role conflict
   
   **Null hypothesis:** There is no relationship between interactional diversity experiences and gender role conflict.

2. What is the relationship between classroom diversity experiences and men’s gender role conflict?

   **Independent Variable:** Classroom diversity experiences
   
   **Dependent Variable:** Men’s gender role conflict
   
   **Null hypothesis:** There is no relationship between classroom diversity experiences and gender role conflict.
The dependent variable in the present research, gender role conflict, is understood and examined within the four patterns of gender role conflict. The four patterns are measured and used in statistical analysis to report a comprehensive understanding how gender role conflict relates to interactional and classroom diversity experiences. The four patterns are: (a) Success, Power, and Competition Issues, (b) Restrictive Emotionality, (c) Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and (d) Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations.

Procedure

The present study sampled fraternity men at a comprehensive university in the Pacific Northwest. The researcher met with the Center for Fraternity and Sorority Life to identify all recognized 20 fraternity chapters and the presidents of each chapter. First, presidents from each fraternity received a research recruitment email (Appendix A). The email requested for participation in the research by attending a fraternity chapter meeting to distribute surveys. If a fraternity president agreed to permit the researcher to attend a chapter meeting, all fraternity men who came to the identified chapter meeting received an Explanation of Research Study (Appendix B) and a research survey. The Explanation of Research Study was verbally stated and the researcher instructed the fraternity men to read over the form. Afterwards, surveys were collected once everyone had adequate time to complete them. The data collection procedure took on average 23 minutes.

Not all of the research eligible subjects completed the survey for the researcher. A fraternity president who declined or did not answer the recruitment email signifies their fraternity chapter would not be included in the research because a survey distribution
time was never agreed upon. Out of those survey distribution times established, fraternity men who did not attend the identified chapter meeting date, time, and location communicated by the fraternity presidents were also excluded as research participates.

**Research Site**

The site for the present research is a comprehensive research university in the Pacific Northwest. The research site is at a large university where students are from all 50 states of America and more than 90 different countries internationally. The survey distribution was administered in the designated fraternity chapter meeting locations. These spaces included fraternity houses, for chapters who had them, or student union meeting rooms for those fraternities that did not have a house. The fraternity chapter meetings as research sites ensured only those members who attended were active members in the fraternity and met research participation criteria.

**Participants**

The study only used subjects with fraternity membership considering the research is investigating relationships of gender role conflict and diversity experiences exclusively of fraternity men in college. Participants included those whose fraternity president indicated interest for survey distribution during a fraternity chapter meeting. Participants at the designated chapter meeting must have been enrolled at the university and an active member. Active member in the present research is defined as a member who has been initiated into lifelong fraternity membership and is active at the collegiate level. Students who took the survey must have been at least 18 years of age and identify as a man. There are 1,291 total subjects that met the criteria as potential research participants.
Instruments

The self-report survey used in this study includes a total of 50 questions (Appendix C). The first six survey questions measure interactional diversity experiences with a Likert scale. These questions were used because of their validity and reliability from Hu and Kuh’s (2003) research and Porter’s (2012) particular work on interaction diversity experiences in Greek life. The next three items measure diversity experiences in the classroom. The measurement of classroom diversity experiences reflects questions used in Loes, Pascarella, & Pumbach’s (2012) research. The next 37 questions measure gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict; all of these questions are based on a Likert scale. Gender role conflict and the four patterns are measured using the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (O’Neil, Helms, Gabe, David, Wrightsman, 1986). The last four questions are measuring the following control variables: Race/ethnicity, race composition of high school, grade point average, and the current year of college. The present research’s survey adheres to Dillman’s (1978) survey question standards as they are understandable, measure what they are intended for, interpreted similarly, close-ended questions are applicable to everyone, questions are not too long; and the first question is close-ended, interesting, easy to answer, and applicable to everyone in the study. The following reviews the three instruments used in the present research: Gender role conflict, interactional diversity experiences, and classroom diversity experiences.

Gender Role Conflict Scale

O’Neil, Helms, Gabe, David, and Wrightsman (1986) developed the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS) to operationalize the theory of gender-role conflict (Appendix D).
The GRCS was established through the processes of item generation and reduction, content analysis of items, factor analysis, and tests of reliability. At first, 85 separate items were hypothesized to six different patterns (O’Neil, 1981b). Further analysis resulted in the current four patterns and a final 37-item gender role conflict scale (O’Neil, 2008). Subscale patterns relate directly to the O’Neil gender role conflict theoretical model, they include: Success, Power, and Competition Issues (13 items), Restrictive Emotionality (10 items), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (8 items), and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (6 items) (O’Neil, 2008). These dimensions are calculated by adding up all the items and dividing by the number of items in each subscale (O’Neil, 2008). Research also uses the total GRCS score of an individual by adding all the items up and dividing by 37 (O’Neil, 2008). The GRCS measures different thoughts, feelings and behavior that may lead to negative psychological outcomes based on adherence to masculinity social norms and ideology (O’Neil, 2008).

In the GRCS, respondents are asked to self-report ratings on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree), higher scores indicate gender role conflict (O’Neil, 2008). Sample items in this instrument include: “Moving up the career ladder is important to me” (Success, Power, and Competition Issues), “I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling” (Restrictive Emotionality), “Hugging other men is difficult for me” (Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men), and “My need to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like” (Conflict Between Work and Family Relations).
Research indicated the Gender Role Conflict Scale has good construct validity based on numerous factor analyses and tests of reliability and validity from diverse samples (O’Neil, 2008). Convergent validity is also shown through correlations with the following comparable measures of masculinity: Masculine Role Norms Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986), Male Role Norm Inventory (MRNI; Levant et al., 1992), and Conformity to Masculine Norm Inventory (CMNI; Mahalik, Locke, et al., 2003). Correlation strength was low, indicating the GRCS measured something unique and different from these masculinity scales. The Gender Role Conflict Scale has an overall Chronbach’s alpha of .88 and subscale patterns of gender role conflict: Success, Power, Competition Issues (α = .85), Restrictive Emotionality (α = .82), Restrictive and Affectionate Behavior Between Men (α = .83), and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (α = .75) (O’Neil, 2008). The GRCS is therefore considered a reliable and valid instrument to measure the gender role conflict. The Gender Role Conflict Scale was chosen as an instrument for gender role conflict because of its widely supported use to assess gender role conflict in the literature and specific past use on college men (O’Neil, 2008). Using the 37 questions will be the best instrument to effectively measure gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict: Success, Power, Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive and Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations.

Classroom Diversity Experiences Scale

This current study utilizes the classroom diversity experiences scale implemented by Loes, Pascarella, & Pumbach (2012) (Appendix E). Their classroom diversity scale
consists of three items that ask students to indicate the number of courses taken that focuses on diverse cultures and perspectives, issues of women/gender, and issues of equality/justice. The classroom diversity scale has shown internal consistency reliability with Chronbach’s alpha of .68 (Loes, Pascarella, & Pumbach, 2012). The present research uses the classroom diversity scale from Loes, Pascrella, & Pumbach’s (2012) study because of its clearly understood questions and proven reliability. The classroom diversity scale will be the best measurement to understand fraternity men’s number of classes that focuses on diversity in college.

*Interactional Diversity Experiences Scale*

The present study replicates six questions from the interactional diversity scale used by Hu and Kuh (2003) and the framework from the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (Appendix F). The questions ask how often a student has become acquainted with diverse students or had serious discussions with students that are different from yourself (Hu & Kuh, 2003). These questions are scored as 1 (never) to 4 (very often) (Hu & Kuh, 2003). These questions used to measure interactional diversity experiences have validity and were easily understood by participants (Hu & Kuh, 2003; Porter, 2012). The present research uses these six questions to measure interactional diversity experiences because of its continued past use as a valid and reliable method to assess college students interaction with others who are different than them. The interactional diversity experiences scale will effectively measure interactional diversity experiences.
Scoring

Scoring was accomplished on the completed questions of the surveys (Appendix G). Interactional diversity experiences was coded as follows: Never = 1, Occasionally = 2, Often = 3, and Very = 4. Gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict was coded based on the number respondents indicated for each question.

Race/ethnicity were coded as: White student = 0, Student of color = 1; binary coding done to ensure stability in the control variable instead of using a skewed distributed data set. Student respondent’s race composition of their high school was coded in the following way: Nearly all white = 1, Mostly white = 2, Somewhat white and people of color = 3, Mostly people of color = 4, and Nearly all people of color = 5. A respondents grade point average was calculated as follows: 3.67 or higher = 3, 2.67 – 3.66 = 2, 0.00 – 2.66 = 1. These scores were also computed in a way that maintained data set stability of the GPA control variable. Year in school was coded as well: First year = 1, Second year = 2, Third year = 3, Fourth year = 4, and Fifth year or more = 5. These scores were inputted into an excel document to be available for data analysis.

Once scores were inputted into excel, double data entry methods were used to continue good practice and limit human error of data entry process. This allowed for data to be entered in twice and confirm inputted data is identical or detail any data differences. Based on the confirmed scores of the survey questions, variables of gender role conflict, the four patterns of gender role conflict, and interactional diversity experiences were created by adding up all the scores and dividing them by the total number of questions. Classroom diversity experience was calculated by adding up all the classes students
indicated they have taken that focused on diversity. Data in excel was then ready for statistical analysis.

**Data Analysis**

Numerous statistical analyses were conducted on the acquired data using Stata statistical software. Statistical analysis is understood within two main frameworks: (1) Descriptive and (2) Inferential statistics (Patten, 2009). The following provides knowledge and understanding of the statistical analyses performed in the present research to explore relationships between gender role conflict as measured by the four patterns of gender role conflict and diversity experiences in and out of the classroom.

**Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics are provided to summarize data so it can be easily understood (Patten, 2009). The present research reports descriptive statistics on the data collected from fraternity men who responded to the survey. The dependent and independent variables are all examined in the following ways: (a) data distribution, (b) internal consistency reliability, (c) means and standard deviation. The following addresses these three descriptive statistics.

**Data Distribution**

Distribution of data is important to review to determine the fit of the present sample’s data. Normal distribution is what researchers hope to achieve because of the many kinds of statistical tests that can be calculated on normal distributions or distribution that is approximately normal (Upton & cook, 2008; Patten, 2009). The normal curve can also be described as a “bell curve” and supports further analysis, such
as standard deviation, means, correlation, and regression (Upton & Cook, 2008). Two methods of evaluating the distribution of the data for normal distribution are the histogram model and central tendency statistics (Upton & Cook, 2008).

Histograms were performed on all variables and central tendency statistics were evaluated for similarity to identify normal distribution for support of future statistical analysis. A histogram is a diagram that uses rectangles to represent frequency and give an immediate impression about the distribution of the data (Upton & Cook, 2008). Patten (2009) described a histogram as a frequency polygon that is created to visibly see the data in a shape in order to determine its distribution of frequency. The central tendency represents the theory that the mean, median, and mode of a normal distribution will gather around the central value of each variable (Upton & Cook, 2008). The normal distribution is a significant base for statistical analysis and supports future statistical analysis (Upton & Cook, 2008).

Internal Consistency Reliability

Internal consistency is established based on the single distribution of a survey (Patten, 2009). Chronbach’s Alpha is used to measure internal consistency reliability and is calculated in the present research (Patten, 2009). This measurement uses a statistical analysis of the data to result in a number that researchers use to understand internal consistency reliability (Patten, 2009). Alpha scores indicate the degree of reliability; above .70 are considered acceptable, above .80 are considered good, and above .90 is considered excellent (Cortina, 1993).
Means and Standard Deviation

The mean gives the balance point in the data distribution to understand the average result of a variable being measured (Patten, 2009). The standard deviation communicates the variability of the respondents of a given variable (Patten, 2009). If a curve is normally distributed, 68% of the study’s participants will be within one standard-deviation unit of the mean. Means and standard deviations allow the researcher to report trends and provide context about the data collected on a research sample.

Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics were computed in the present study to make generalizations about the data compiled in the study and draw inferences about the effects of sampling errors on results (Patten, 2009). Inferential statistics on the dependent, independent, and control variables of the present research uses the following two significance statistical methods: (a) correlation analysis and (b) regression analysis. Correlation and Regression analyses are statistical procedures that produce results to understand relationships between one or more variables. These two analyses also indicate if the relationship is statistically significance, an important aspect to consider when examining statistical relationships of a sample.

Significance Statistics

Significance statistics is a test that seeks to determine a relationship that is not from chance. According to Patten (2009), statistical significance determines if relationships are reliable taking in consideration of random errors. To determine statistical significance, researchers establish two hypotheses that are tested through
statistics (Upton & Cook, 2008). A null hypothesis represents no significant difference between variables (Upton & Cook, 2008). An alternative hypothesis represents a significant relationship between variables (Upton & Cook, 2008).

The statistical test between the two hypotheses is done because researchers cannot prove that the alternative hypothesis is true but can demonstrate that the alternative hypothesis is much more likely than the null hypothesis in the given data (Thisted, 2010; Upton & Cook, 2008). This demonstration of acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis is expressed in terms of probability, or a p-value. In other words, a statistical test for significance results in a p-value researchers use to evaluate the significance of a relationship.

The p-value “measures consistency between the results actually obtained in the trial and the ‘pure chance’ explanation for those results” (Thisted, 2010, p. 1). A researcher rejects the null hypothesis if the p-value is less than the predetermined p-value level (Upton & Cook, 2008). The present study has set the p-value standard at .05 because of its widely used significance standard in related research and published literature. The rejection of the null hypothesis is because of a low p-value that eliminates the “chance explanation”. A p-value that is greater than .05 represents the null hypothesis is accepted as there is not a significant relationship (Upton & Cook, 2008). Having a p-value greater than .05 means the researcher cannot dismiss chance, meaning chance is not ruled out to be false (Tristed, 2010).

According to Thisted (2010), small p-values allow researchers to draw conclusions about whether one variable has more effect on another by allowing them to
eliminate all other explanations but that one possibility. Smaller the p-value represents stronger evidence against the null hypothesis and favor for the alternative hypothesis. Large p-values do not allow researchers to dismiss any possibilities (Tristed, 2010). Higher the p-value means there is weak evidence against the null hypothesis. Any p-values that are below .05 indicate the observed result is highly unlikely under the null-hypothesis. Therefore, if a p-value is .05; a researcher may state the results of a relationship are based on 5% chance or a random fluke, making the alternative hypothesis acceptable. A p-value of .01 represents a study’s results of a statistical relationship is based on 1% chance, concluding the effect between variables is statistically significant.

**Correlation**

The present study analyzed the data using Pearson’s correlation to understand the degree of relationship among the four patterns of gender role conflict. Pearson’s correlation coefficient \( (r) \) examines the relationship between two quantitative sets of scores (Patten, 2009). If \( r \) is positive, then the linear relationship is positive (Upton & Cook, 2008). If \( r \) is negative, then the linear relationship is negative. The greater \( r \) is to 1, the stronger the linear relationship and the greater \( r \) is to 0, the weaker the relationship (Upton & Cook, 2008). Correlation analysis that results in a p-value of .05 or lower will be reported as statistically significant. Regression is utilized after correlation to detail how diversity experiences may impact gender role conflict and the four patterns that make up gender role conflict.
Regression

The present study implemented regression analysis to understand how the dependent variable is explained, if at all, by the independent variables. Regression analysis is used to describe and draw inferences about the distribution of means of one variable as a function of one or more explanatory variables (Ramsey & Schafer, 2013). There are multiple forms of regression that are utilized based the research’s type and number of variables. The present study uses linear regression and multivariate regression.

The present study starts with linear regression to examine how one dependent variable relates to one independent variable. Ramsey and Schafer (2013) stated, “It [linear regression] offers a concise summary of the mean of the response variable as a function of the explanatory variable through two parameters: the slope and the intercept of the line” (p. 177). Upton and Cook (2008) argued linear regression is the simplest and most used of all statistical regression models.

After linear regression is calculated, multivariate linear regression is used on one dependent variable and one independent variable with the four control variables (e.g. race/ethnicity, race composition of high school, GPA, and year in college). Multivariate regression is just an extension of linear regression as a model that measures the means of an outcome variable as a function of several explanatory variables (Ramsey & Schafer, 2013). “Multiple linear regression analysis is one of the most widely used statistical tools, and for good reason: It is remarkably effective for answering questions that involve many variables” (Ramsey & Schafer, 2013, p. 237). The present study reports results
from linear and multiple regression by stating the beta, significance level, and adjusted R-squared.

Beta (β) represents the coefficient produced for regression analysis. Coefficients are the values for the regression equation for predicting the dependent variable from the independent variable (Mitchell, 2012; Ramsey & Shafer, 2013). Achen (1982) specifies that the coefficient describes the effect process at work in a set of observations; the observations in the present study are gender role conflict, four patterns of gender role conflict, interactional and classroom diversity experiences, and the four control variables of race/ethnicity, grade point average, race composition in high school, and year in college. A positive coefficient would indicate for every one unit increase of the dependent variable, the coefficient would predict that the independent variable increases by the beta produced (Mitchell, 2012). That is, only if statistically significant.

The significance level, or p-value, reports the calculated significance just as it did with correlation analysis. For the present study, any p-value less than or equal to .05 is used. A p-value of .05 means there is no more than a 5% chance, or 1 in 20, probability of observing the relationship of the study due to chance. Significance testing that does not meet the .05 p-value will indicate there is not a statistically significant relationship between the variables in the present data. If the regression analysis is statistically significant, results may indicate the variance an independent variable has on the dependent variable.

Adjusted R-squared is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable which can be explained by the independent variable. Adjusted R-squared is an overall measure
of the strength of association and does not reflect the extent to which any particular
independent variable is associated with the dependent variable. A large number for the
adjusted R-squared means the regression gives a good fit, and there would be little point
in searching for additional variables (Achen, 1982). Those regression equations that
produce a small adjusted R-squared indicates the independent variable has a little percent
of variance on the dependent variable (Achen, 1982).

Summary

In summary, a quantitative postpositivist approach was used to administer a self-
report in-person survey that measures gender role conflict, interactional diversity,
classroom diversity, and control variables. Measurement instruments have been found to
be reliable in previous research. Participants included fraternity men through a
purposeful and convenient sampling method. Upon completion of data collection and
data scoring, data analysis was conducted to demonstrate descriptive statistics,
distribution, internal consistency reliability, means and standard deviation, correlation,
and regression to understand and identify any significant relationships between fraternity
men’s degree of gender role conflict and interactional or classroom student diversity
experiences.
Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study is to identify what, if any, relationships between fraternity men’s diversity experiences and their degree of gender role conflict. Chapter four includes the results of the data analysis on the sample collected. The results will answer the present study’s research questions. These research questions were:

1. What is the relationship between fraternity men’s gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences?
2. What is the relationship between fraternity men’s gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences?

First, descriptive statistics are presented to understand current trends in the sample’s data and provide context for the current research on gender role conflict and diversity experiences. Descriptive statistics are used to better understand the dependent and independent variables and support additional statistical analysis. The present research reports descriptive statistics in the following five ways: (a) data collection, (b) demographics, (c) gender role conflict, (d) interactional diversity experiences, and (e) classroom diversity experiences. Second, inferential statistics present results indicating relationships between gender role conflict, interactional diversity experiences and classroom diversity experiences. Inferential statistics are implemented within two methods that detail statistically significant relationships between one or more variables: (a) correlation analysis and (b) regression analysis.
Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics describe the data collected to provide context of the current study and research questions (Patten, 2009). Descriptive statistics were calculated to illustrate trends about the research’s data within the following ways: (a) data collection and (b) demographics. Descriptive statistics then reports statistical findings on the dependent and independent variables. Data collection is presented first to understand the research’s sample size compared to the eligible subjects.

Data Collection

Not every fraternity chapter at the research site participated in the study. There were 20 fraternity chapters contacted, the total number of university recognized fraternities, through their president to request survey distribution. Out of the 20 chapters, 12 fraternities indicated the researcher could administer the survey. Two fraternities did not take the survey due to time conflicts after the fact. The total number of fraternity chapters that participated in the research is 10; this results in a 50% response rate of individual fraternity chapters.

Out of those 10 fraternity chapters where the survey was distributed, not every present fraternity student returned the survey. There were 378 surveys handed out at the fraternity chapters to the fraternity men. The researcher collected 341 surveys with data on them and 37 surveys that were not filled out. A survey’s response rate is the outcome of dividing the number of people who were eligible for the survey (1,291) by the total number of people who took the survey $N = 341$ (American Association for Public Opinion Research, 2008). The resulting response rate for the present study is 26.4%.
Although this is considered a low response rate out of the eligible research subjects the data collected may still be used to draw inferences.

Demographics

Descriptive statistics report respondents who completed the questions on the survey as some questions were not answered. If questions were not completed on the survey, no information was recorded on the participant for those questions. Therefore, no data is reported in the descriptive statistics for certain variables. The following indicates the response of each variable out of a total 341 possible respondents: Interactional diversity experiences ($n = 338$), classroom diversity experiences ($n = 338$), gender role conflict ($n = 284$), Success, Power, and Competition Issues ($n = 321$), Restrictive Emotionality ($n = 301$), Restrictive Affective Behavior Between Men ($n = 314$), Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations ($n = 314$), race/ethnicity ($n = 327$), year in college ($n = 326$), GPA ($n = 319$), and race composition of high school ($n = 325$).

The characteristics of the respondents surveyed are identified in Table 1. The sample was all men, based on the sample criteria to successfully measure men’s gender role conflict. In terms of race/ethnicity, 75.7% ($n = 258$) of the respondents identified as white students and 20.2% ($n = 69$) identified as students of color. These numbers are similar to the university’s 19.8% students who identify as a U.S. Minority and 7.4% students who identify as international.
Table 1

Demographics and Control Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race/Ethnicity (N = 341)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>75.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students of color</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year in College (N = 341)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First year</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second year</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth year</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth year or more</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cumulative GPA (N = 341)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.67 – 4.00</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.67 – 3.66</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>59.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.00 – 2.66</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race comp. of HS (N = 341)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearly all white</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>30.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly white</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White and people of color</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly people of color</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearly all people of color</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The sample of college students in the present study vary depending on year in college. There are 24.9% \((n = 85)\) of respondents who are currently in their first year. The rest of the respondents who indicated year in college report the following: 26.7% \((n = 91)\) second year, 21.7% \((n = 74)\) third year, 13.5% \((n = 46)\) fourth year, and 8.8% \((n = 30)\) fifth year of college or more. These statistics reflect similar trends within the present research site’s fraternity system. Results suggest respondents are distributed among all years in college with an emphasis on the first-year, sophomore, and junior year of college.

Respondents who completed the survey also report the following grade point average: 24.6% \((n = 84)\) have a 3.67 - 4.00, 59.2% \((n = 202)\) have a 2.67 - 3.66, and 9.7% \((n = 33)\) have a 0.00 - 2.66. The last control variable measured was the respondent’s race composition of their high school. Respondents self-report the following: 30.5% \((n = 104)\) “Nearly all white”, 39.3% \((n = 134)\) “Mostly white”, 18.2% \((n = 62)\) “Somewhat white and people of color”, and 5.9% \((n = 20)\) “Mostly people of color”. That is, 30.5% of the sample self-reported their high schools were perceived as nearly all white. Results indicate the majority of students had a grade point average of 2.67 or higher (83.8%). Also, results suggest most students went to a high school where the vast majority of the population was perceived to be white.

**Summary**

The present research includes 341 fraternity student respondents. Results from the survey illustrate the respondents’ characteristics. Respondents identify as mostly white (75.7%), are currently in their first or second year of college, have a 2.67 – 3.66
GPA (59.2%), and come from high schools where it was perceived as mostly or nearly all white. Gender role conflict is examined to illustrate how the respondents experience gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict.

**Dependent Variable – Gender Role Conflict**

The following includes descriptive findings on the dependent variable gender role conflict as measured by the four patterns: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. Analysis of the four patterns of gender role conflict is reviewed in four distinct ways: (1) Distribution of Data, (2) Internal Consistency Reliability, (3) Gender Role Conflict-Scale Review, and (4) Means and Standard Deviation. These four descriptors of gender role conflict and the patterns of gender role conflict provide insight into how the respondents in the current research sample experienced gender role conflict.

**Distribution of Data**

The present research used histograms and central tendency statistics as methods to determine the fit of the gender role conflict data. Histograms were created of gender role conflict and the four patterns: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affection Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. Evaluations of the histograms indicate gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict are normally distributed. Central tendency statistics were calculated and evaluated for similarity for gender role conflict and the four patterns. Results of the mean, median, and mode are very close to each other
representing normal distribution as each measure of central tendency gathered around one central value for gender role conflict, Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations. Results of the histograms and central tendency statistics report the dependent variable gender role conflict as measured by the four patterns of gender role conflict to be normally distributed, supporting statistical analysis.

**Internal Consistency Reliability**

Internal consistency reliability analysis is necessary to understand if the 37 questions of gender role conflict measured the dependent variable and four patterns of gender role conflict. The present research determined internal consistency reliability using Chronbach’s alpha. This analysis measures the 37 survey items and determines correlations between them to understand the variable’s measurement of internal consistency. The Chronbach’s alpha results of these five dependent variables are: Gender Role Conflict ($\alpha = .89$), Success, Power, and Competition Issues ($\alpha=.82$), Restrictive Emotionality ($\alpha=.84$), Restrictive Affection Behavior Between Men ($\alpha=.79$), and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations ($\alpha=.78$). Alpha scores indicate the degree of reliability; above .70 are considered acceptable, above .80 are considered good, and above .90 is considered excellent (Cortina, 1993). Therefore, gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict as measured with the gender role conflict scale are reliable and support further statistical analysis on the dependent variable.
The gender role conflict scale was used to measure gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict. The scale reported the fraternity student’s experience of gender role conflict based on answers of 37 statements. Out of the 37 items, there are four sets of questions that measure the four patterns of gender role conflict. The statements measured the respondents’ level of agreement on a Likert scale. The range of agreement of survey questions measuring gender role conflict is 1 to 6. A student who self-reported a “1” represents a student who strongly disagreed with the statement; and therefore, reported little to no experience of gender role conflict for that specific statement. All of the answers for the 37 statements were averaged to determine one’s gender role conflict. Factor analysis identified questions are computed together to create the average experience of the four different patterns of gender role conflict as well. Respondents who report a score closer to “6” indicate experiencing gender role conflict or the four patterns of gender role conflict at a high degree. Respondents who score closer to “1” are experiencing gender role conflict or the four patterns of gender role conflict at a low degree. Means and standard deviations were calculated based off the gender role conflict scale to determine a balanced point of respondents’ degree of gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict.

Means and Standard Deviations

Statistical analysis determined the mean and standard deviation of each dependent variable. The mean communicates the average result of gender role conflict and each of
the gender role conflict patterns. Standard deviation is provided to show the variability of the result.

An individual’s gender role conflict can be understood within a range of 1 to 6. All means as shown on Table 2 will is the average of data of questions for the specific data. The mean of gender role conflict is 3.26 (SD = .65); this mean can be understood as a moderate experience of gender role conflict. The four patterns of gender role conflict were also analyzed to understand how different themes of gender role conflict are experienced. Success, Power, and Competition Issues reported the largest mean of 4.03 (SD = .75), Conflict Between Work and Family Relations has a mean of 3.46 (SD=1.01), Restrictive Emotionality with a mean of 3.01 (SD=.91), and Restrictive Affection Behavior Between Men reported a 2.47 mean (SD = .90). The four patterns of gender role conflict’s means also represent respondents had moderate degrees of experience for each gender role conflict pattern. As indicated, the pattern Success, Power, and Competition Issues have the highest degree of experience of the gender role conflict patterns and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men has the lowest.
Table 2

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Range of Dependent Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GRC</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RABBM</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBWFR</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: GRC = Gender Role Conflict; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition Issues; RE = Restrictive Emotionality; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men; CBWFR = Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations*

**Summary**

The present research examines potential effects of diversity experiences on gender role conflict. To effectively measure how gender role conflict is related to diversity experiences in and out the classroom, the present research examines the four patterns of gender role conflict as well. The Gender Role Conflict-Scale measures gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict. All five of these variables report internal consistency reliability and are distributed normally. Fraternity men in the sample report a moderate or above average degree of gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict. Results from descriptive statistics on gender role conflict and the four patterns of gender role conflict support additional statistical analysis.
Independent Variable – Interactional Diversity Experiences

The following includes descriptive statistical analysis findings on interactional diversity experiences. Presented results provide an understanding of how respondents experience diversity through interactions with others. Analysis of interactional diversity experiences includes the following: (1) Distribution of Data, (2) Internal Consistency Reliability, (3) Interactional Diversity Experiences Instrument Review, and (4) Mean and Standard Deviation.

Distribution of Data

To determine how interactional diversity experiences data in the present research is distributed, a histogram and central tendency statistics were applied to the data. Evaluation of the histogram on interactional diversity experiences indicates the independent variable is normally distributed. The mean, median, and mode were calculated of the interactional diversity experiences data and are very similar to each other. Results of central tendency statistics further suggest interactional diversity experience as measured in the present study is normally distributed. The histogram analysis and central tendency statistics findings indicate interactional diversity experiences is normally distributed, therefore, supporting additional statistical analysis.

Chronbach’s Alpha

The interactional diversity experience variable was measured with six questions. Statistical analysis is necessary to understand how the six items relate to each other and measure respondents’ experience of interactional diversity. Chronbach’s Alpha is used in the present study to evaluate the internal consistency reliability of interactional diversity
experiences. Chronbach’s Alpha reports $\alpha = .74$ for a result. The alpha score indicates the six questions to measure interactional diversity experiences is reliable as an alpha score above .70 is considered acceptable (Cortina, 1993).

**Interactional Diversity Experiences Instrument Review**

The six questions that measured interactional diversity experiences asked how often a student engaged in serious discussions with someone who was different than the respondent. Difference is based on philosophy of life or personal values, political opinions, race or ethnic background, or country of origin. Two other questions also examined how often a student becomes acquainted with students whose race or ethnic background is different and with students who are from another country. Respondents could indicate their degree of frequency of interactional diversity experiences from a 1 to 4 Likert scale; options included the following: 1 = Never, 2 = Occasionally, 3 = Often, 4 = Very Often. Respondents who score closer to “4” suggests the respondent has more interactional diversity experiences compared to a respondent who scores closer to “1”.

The mean and standard deviation of the respondents degree of interactional diversity experiences was calculated based off the data collected in the present research.

**Mean and Standard Deviation**

The present research calculated the mean and standard deviation of interaction diversity experiences. This was calculated to understand the average results of the data collected for interactional diversity experiences. Interactional diversity experiences has a mean of 2.72 (SD = .57) (Table 3) or described as “Often” participation with interactional
diversity experiences. That is, the respondents interacted with people who were different than them in a moderate occurrence.

Table 3

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range of Interactional Diversity Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: IDE = Interactional Diversity Experiences

Summary

Results indicate fraternity men in the sample report a moderate degree of interactional diversity experiences. These findings suggest the respondents had interaction in college with people who are different than them based on: Philosophy of life or personal values, political opinions, race or ethnic background, or country of origin. Descriptive statistics also find interactional diversity experiences to have internal consistency reliability and are normally distributed. Descriptive statistics examine the second independent variable of the present research.

Independent Variable – Classroom Diversity Experiences

The following reports descriptive findings on classroom diversity experiences. Analysis of classroom diversity experiences includes the following: (1) Distribution of Data, (2) Internal Consistency Reliability, (3) Classroom Diversity Experiences Instrument Review, (4) Frequency, and (5) Mean and Standard Deviation. Results provide context and understanding of the respondents’ number of classes taken that focuses on diversity.
*Distribution of Data*

It is important to understand how the data is distributed for classroom diversity experiences in the present research. Two ways to determine the fitting of distribution is with histograms and central tendency. These two methods were implemented in the current research on classroom diversity. Evaluation of the histogram for classroom diversity experiences indicates the variable is normally distributed. Central tendency statistics report in the mean, median, and mode are similar to each other suggesting normal distribution of the data. Therefore, additional statistical analysis can be calculated.

*Classroom Diversity Experiences Instrument Review*

Classroom diversity experiences, the second independent variable, was measured with three questions asking for the respondent’s number of courses that focus on diverse cultures or perspectives, women/gender, and equality/justice. The number of classes was combined to indicate a respondents’ degree of classroom diversity experiences. Higher the number suggests the respondent has a greater degree of experience with diversity in the classroom curriculum compared to a respondent that reports a lower number.

*Internal Consistency Reliability*

Classroom diversity experiences was measured with three different questions. Internal consistency reliability is important to determine to ensure if the instrument used is reliable. Chronbach’s alpha was used to discover internal consistency for classroom diversity experiences. Questions are correlated together to determine a score based on the relationships of the three items on the survey. The result of Chronbach’s alpha is $\alpha=.82$. Cortina (1993) indicates any alpha score above .80 is considered good for
reliability. Therefore, the independent variable classroom diversity experiences is reliable and supports additional statistical analysis.

Frequency

Classroom diversity experiences, as shown in Table 4, measured the number of classes on diversity. The instrument used in the total number of classroom diversity experiences ranging from 0 to 31. Respondents report having taken zero or a few courses on diversity with 15.7% (n = 53) reporting 0, 23.7% (n = 80) reporting 1 – 2 classes on diversity, 26% (n = 88) reporting 3 – 4 classes on diversity, 15.4% (n = 52) reporting 5 – 6 classes on diversity, 9.5% (n = 32) reporting 7 – 8 classes on diversity, and 9.8% (n = 33) reporting nine or more classes on diversity.

Table 4

Classroom Diversity Frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Diversity Courses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 or more</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mean and Standard Deviation

Means and standard deviation were calculated to understand the average results of the data collected for classroom diversity experiences. The mean provides a balanced point of the respondents’ number of classrooms that focused on diversity. The second independent variable, classroom diversity experiences, has a mean of 4.00 (SD = 3.82) (Table 5). That is, the average number of classes taken on diversity is four. The mean indicates respondents reported a low number of classroom diversity experiences.

Table 5

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Range of Classroom Diversity Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CDE</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0 to 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CDE = Classroom Diversity Experiences

Summary

Descriptive results of the sample collected indicate respondents have taken anywhere from 0 to 31 classes that focus on diversity. However, the vast majority of fraternity men in the sample have taken four or less classes. Classroom diversity experiences has internal consist reliability and is normally distributed. Considering classroom diversity is reliable and well-distributed, inferential statistical analysis is supported.

Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are calculated to draw conclusions about the research’s data and produce results that draw inferences between gender role conflict and diversity
experiences in and out of the classroom. Statistical analysis findings on the dependent and independent variables are reported within: (1) correlation analysis and (2) regression analysis. Both of these statistical methods are also a type of statistical significance, one type of inferential statistics. Significance tests detail relationships between gender role conflict, interactional diversity experiences, and classroom diversity experience and recognizes relationships as possibly being from random chances. Correlation analysis is presented first to understand any statistical relationships between gender role conflict, interactional diversity experiences, and classroom diversity experiences. Therefore, results to the study’s research questions are presented by reporting correlation and regression analysis findings.

**Correlational Analysis**

The present study analyzed the data using correlation to understand the degree of relationship with the independent variables, control variables, and dependent variable gender role conflict as measured by the four patterns. Gender role conflict’s four patterns are: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. Only $r$ scores that are statistically significant will be recognized to have a relationship between two variables. Statistical significance in the present survey is any $p$-value equal or below .05. Correlation analysis presents findings in the following three ways: (a) Research Question 1, (b) Research Question 2, and (c) Additional Findings. Results in Table 6 indicate significant relationships between the variables measured in the present research.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>1</th>
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<td>0.00</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlations between IDE, CDE, CRC, Patterns of CRC, and Control Variables

Table 6
Research Question 1 - What is the relationship between interactional diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict?

Correlation analysis of gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences indicates there is no statistically significant relationship. Results suggest there is a correlation between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and interactional diversity experiences, \( r = -14, p < .05 \). As a respondent engages in more interactional diversity experience they are likely to have a lesser degree of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. The correlation can also be understood in the opposite direction; respondents who have high degrees of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men are less likely to have interactional diversity experiences. Results indicate there is no relationship between interactional diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict. A fraternity man’s interactional diversity experience does have a significant negative correlation with Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, a gender role conflict pattern.

Research Question 2 - What is the relationship between classroom diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict?

Correlation analysis results indicate there is not a significant relationship between classroom diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict. That is, as a respondent takes more classes that focus on diversity, it has no correlation with their degree of gender role conflict.
**Additional Findings**

There are additional statistically significant correlated variables within the data that are important to report as they relate to the dependent and independent variables being examined. Additional results are framed in the following two ways: (a) gender role conflict patterns, (b) and (b) control variables. These results provide a better understanding to how the research sample experienced gender role conflict’s four patterns and relationships the control variables have with the dependent and independent variables.

*Gender Role Conflict Patterns*

The patterns of gender role conflict are positively related to each other. Success, Power, and Competition Issues is positively related to Restrictive Emotionality, $r = .35, p < .001$; Success, Power, and Competition Issues is positively related to Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, $r = .28, p < .001$; Success, Power, and Competition Issues is positively related to Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations, $r = .37, p < .001$; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men is positively related to Restrictive Emotionality, $r = .59, p < .001$; Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men is positively related to Conflict Between Work and Family Relations, $r = .48, p < .001$; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations is positively related to Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, $r = .30, p < .001$. These results indicate as respondents experience one pattern of gender role conflict there is a statistically significant strong positive relationship between the other three patterns.
Control Variables

Pearson’s correlation reported a positive relationship between race/ethnicity and interactional diversity experiences, \( r = .14, p < .01 \). Race/ethnicity was coded in a certain way, white students = 0 and students of color = 1; therefore, students of color have a positive correlation with interactional diversity experiences. This correlation represents the increased likelihood of interactional diversity experiences being done by students of color compared to white students. Correlational analysis reported significant relationships between some of these control variables and the dependent and independent variables.

The present study examined years in college as a control variable. Correlation analysis indicates the more years a fraternity student is in college the more likelihood they are to have diversity experiences: interactional diversity, \( r = .16, p < .01 \), and classroom diversity, \( r = .56, p < .001 \). This correlation represents a positive relationship between the greater number of years in college and diversity experiences. Fraternity men who are upperclassmen are more likely to have experienced diversity with others through interaction and taken classes that focus on diversity. The longer a student is in college also has a negative relationship with GPA, \( r = -.28, p < .001 \). This correlation means the longer a student respondent is in college, the more likely he will have a lower grade point average. This relationship between GPA and year in college is also stated as lower GPAs are more likely to be achieved with senior respondents compared to first-year respondents.
Grade point average is also negatively correlated with classroom diversity experiences, $r = -.16, p < .05$. The more classes a student takes that is focused on diversity, the more likelihood that person has a lower grade point average. Correlation results indicate grade point average has a statistically significant positive relationship with gender role conflict, $r = .14, p < .05$; and Success, Power, and Competition Issues, $r = .14, p < .05$. Respondents who have a higher GPA are more likely to have a higher degree of gender role conflict overall and the gender role conflict Success, Power, and Competition Issues specifically. Additional statistical analysis is required to better understand potential relationships between gender role conflict and diversity experiences.

**Summary**

Correlation analysis reports no significant relationships between interactional diversity experiences, classroom diversity experiences and gender role conflict. Therefore, the researcher’s hypothesis that diversity experiences would negatively impact gender role conflict is not supported. The null hypotheses is supported as there is not relationship between interactional and classroom diversity experience and gender role conflict. Notably, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and interactional diversity experiences. This suggests one key element of gender role conflict does have a negative relationship with interactional diversity experiences. Additional findings report significant relationships among all four gender role conflict patterns and control variable relationships with the independent and dependent variables. These
control variables are included in multivariate regression analysis to control for these correlations.

**Regression Analysis**

The present study calculated regression analysis to discover how gender role impact is related to interactional diversity experiences and classroom diversity experiences. Each regression analysis reports linear and multivariate regression after including the control variables to answer the present research questions. The current study set the standard for a $p$-value of .05, that is; if there are effects on gender role conflict by the independent variables it will only be significant at $p < .05$. The results of regression analysis are reported and described in the two following ways: (a) Research Question 1 and (b) Research Question 2. Each regression analysis will indicate if there are any statistical relationships between gender role conflict as measured by the four patterns of gender role conflict and diversity experiences in and out of the classroom.

**Research Question 1** - **What is the relationship between interactional diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict?**

The following reports regression analysis results that were calculated to determine relationships between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences. To examine if interactional diversity experiences has an effect on gender role conflict, the present research reports regression analysis results of gender role conflict and the four patterns that make up gender role conflict: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations. Therefore, to answer research question
one, the following five tables report linear and multivariate analysis results on how interactional diversity experiences relate to gender role conflict: (1) Gender Role Conflict and Interactional Diversity Experiences, (2) Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Interactional Diversity Experiences (3) Restrictive Emotionality and Interactional Diversity Experiences, (4) Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Interactional Diversity Experiences, and (5) Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and Interactional Diversity Experiences. Linear regression analysis is reported in each table first and multivariate regression analysis is reported second after controlling for race/ethnicity, year in college, grade point average, and race composition in high school. The first table reports findings on regression analysis between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experience.

Table 7

*Gender Role Conflict and Interactional Diversity Experiences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\beta = -.07$</th>
<th>Sig = .31</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared = .00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted IDE</td>
<td>$\beta = -.07$</td>
<td>Sig = .32</td>
<td>Adjusted R-Squared = .00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: IDE = Interactional Diversity Experiences*

Linear regression analysis in Table 7 indicates no statistically significant prediction between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences, $\beta = -.07$, $p < .31$. Interactional diversity experiences explains no statistically significant proportion of variance in gender role conflict (Adjusted $R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 280) = 1.02$, $p <$
Multivariate regression was used to understand relationships between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences after holding for controls.

Multiple variable regression, controlling for race/ethnicity, race composition of high school, grade point average, and year in college, as indicated as Adjusted IDE on Table 9, also indicates no significant prediction between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences, \( \beta = -.07, p < .32 \). Multivariate regression also indicates there is no statistically significant proportion of variance of interactional diversity experiences in gender role conflict, Adjusted \( R^2 = .00, F(5, 270) = 1.24, p < .32 \). Results show there is not a relationship between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences.

Table 8

**Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Interactional Diversity Experiences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted IDE</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: IDE = Interactional Diversity Experiences*

Linear regression analysis in Table 8 reports there is not a statistically significant relationship between Success, Power, and Competition Issues and interactional diversity experiences, \( \beta = .03, p < .66 \). Linear regression also indicates interactional diversity experiences explains no percentage of variance of Success, Power, and Completion Issues (Adjusted \( R^2 = .00, F(1, 317) = .20, p < .66 \)). Multivariate regression is presented
next to understand if the gender role conflict pattern Success, Power, and Competition Issues is related to interactional diversity experiences after considering controls.

Multivariate regression, after including the four control variables in the regression analysis, also reports no significant relationship between Success, Power, and Competition Issues and interactional diversity experiences, $\beta = .07, p < .35$. Multiple linear regression results indicates interactional diversity experiences does not have a statistical significant role in explaining the variance of the relationship (Adjusted $R^2 = .01, F(5, 304) = 1.77, p < .35$). Regression analysis results indicate there is not a relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Interactional Diversity Experiences.

Table 9

*Restrictive Emotionality and Interactional Diversity Experiences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted IDE</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: IDE = Interactional Diversity Experiences*

Linear regression analysis, as presented in Table 9, of the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Emotionality and interactional diversity experiences indicates there is no significant relationship, $\beta = -.17, p < .07$. Linear regression results also indicates there is no significant proportion of variance between Success, Power, and Competition Issues and interactional diversity experiences (Adjusted $R^2 = .01, F(1, 297) = 3.29, p < .07$).
Multivariate regression analysis indicates there is a negative statistically significant prediction between interactional diversity experiences and restrictive emotionality, \( \beta = -0.22, p < 0.03 \). The regression model indicates as every one unit increases in interactional diversity experiences it has a .22 unit decrease of the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Emotionality. Respondents interactional diversity experiences explains a small percent of the variance (1%) in the Restrictive Emotionality multivariate regression model (Adjusted \( R^2 = 0.01, F(5, 285) = 1.85, p < 0.03 \)).

Multivariate regression results indicate there is a negative relationship between gender role conflict’s pattern Restrictive Emotionality and fraternity men’s interactional diversity experiences.

The multivariate regression in Table 9 suggests multicollinearity problems considering the increase of significance when the four control variables were added into the regression equation. This change in significance indicates the predictor variables have a positive correlation with other predictor variables that illustrates the outcome of greater significance between Restrictive Emotionality and interactional diversity experiences. The positive correlations, reported in Table 6, between predictor variables includes: ethnicity and interactional diversity experiences \( (r = 0.14) \) and interactional diversity experiences and year in college \( (r = 0.16) \). Due to this observation of correlations between the predictor variables, potential multicollinearity issues were investigated in greater detail using the variance inflation factor.

The variance inflation factor is one solution to determine if one of the predictor variables has collinearity with another predictor variable (Kutner, Hachtsheim, & Neter,
The predictor variables used in the present model includes: interactional diversity experiences, ethnicity, year in college, grade point average, and race composition in high school. The variance inflation factor of a 1 indicates there is no correlation between the predictor variables (Kutner, Hachtsheim, & Neter, 2004). If the variance inflation factor for one or more of the variables is around or greater than 5, there is most likely multicollinearity associated with that variable in the regression model (Kutner, Hachtsheim, & Neter, 2004). Social scientists have used the proposed cut off value of 10 to take action so multicollinearity issues are resolved as a variance inflation value of 10 indicates a serious problem with multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2002).

In summary, variance inflation factors have a minimum value of 1; the higher the reported coefficient, the more the multicollinearity there is between variables.

Results of the variance inflation factor analysis indicate there are no multicollinearity problems with the multivariate regression model of Restrictive Emotionality and interactional diversity experiences (See Table 6). The variance inflation factor results were between 1.01 and 1.11, reporting almost no multicollinearity issues between predictor variables. These results support general notions about correlations for multicollinearity problems to exist. Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken (2002) stated multicollinearity needs the predictor correlations to be high ($r = .8$), the current study’s regression model correlations are considered low ($r = .14$ and .16). These findings support interactional diversity experiences as a negative predictor of the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Emotionality.
Table 10

*Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Interactional Diversity Experiences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
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<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted IDE</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* IDE = Interactional Diversity Experiences

Results in Table 10 from linear regression indicates there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the gender role conflict Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and interactional diversity experiences, $\beta = -0.23, p < .01$. The findings indicate there is a negative effect on the pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men by interactional diversity experiences. For every one unit increase of the respondents interactional diversity experiences, there is a .23 unit decrease prediction of gender role conflict’s pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. Interactional diversity experiences explains a very small proportion of variance in Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.02, F(1, 310) = 6.61, p < .01$. There is a statistically small (2%) proportion of variance by the regression model. Therefore, this regression equation is less satisfactory or less powerful because the Adjusted R-squared is low and multiple other factors play a role in fraternity men’s Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men gender role conflict pattern.

Multivariate regression analysis, after holding for the control variables, reports a statistically significant negative relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and interactional diversity experiences, $\beta = -0.21, p < .03$. For every one unit of increase in interactional diversity experiences,
holding everything else constant, there is a predicted .21 decrease of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men gender role conflict pattern. The regression model also explains a small percent of the relationship between these two variables (Adjusted $R^2 = .02, F(5, 297) = 2.03, p < .03$.) Results indicate there is a significant negative relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and fraternity men’s interactional diversity experiences.

Table 11

Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and Interactional Diversity Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IDE</th>
<th>$\beta = .05$</th>
<th>Sig = .63</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared = .00</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted IDE</td>
<td>$\beta = .05$</td>
<td>Sig = .66</td>
<td>Adjusted R-Squared = .01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: IDE = Interactional Diversity Experiences*

Linear regression analysis results in Table 11 of gender role conflict pattern Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and interactional diversity experiences indicates there is no significant relationship, $\beta = .05, p < .63$. Results show there is no proportion of variance explained within this model (Adjusted $R^2 = .00, F(1, 315) = .23, p < .63$). Multiple linear regression analysis between the pattern of gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences was also calculated.

Multivariate regression, after holding for controls, indicates no significant relationship or explained variance between the two variables, $\beta = .05, p < .66$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .01, F(5, 303) = 1.32, p < .66$). Results indicate there are no relationships between
the gender role conflict pattern Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and Interactional Diversity Experiences.

**Summary**

Regression analysis results indicate there is no direct relationship between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences. The researcher’s hypothesis that one’s interactional diversity experiences would negatively impact gender role conflict was not supported. However, it is important to note regression analysis suggests fraternity men who have more interactional diversity experiences tend to have a lesser degree of the two gender role conflict patterns: Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. Research question two is examined next.

**Research Question 2 - What is the relationship between classroom diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict?**

The following presents findings of linear and multivariate regression analysis of gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences. To holistically examine if classroom diversity experiences has a relationship with gender role conflict, the present research reports regression analysis results of gender role conflict and the four patterns that make up gender role conflict: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations. Therefore, to answer research question two, the following five tables presents regression analysis results on how interactional diversity experiences relates to gender role conflict: (1) Gender Role Conflict and Classroom Diversity Experiences, (2) Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Classroom Diversity
Experiences (3) Restrictive Emotionality and Classroom Diversity Experiences, (4) Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Classroom Diversity Experiences, and (5) Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and Classroom Diversity Experiences. Linear regression is presented first and multivariate regression is presented second in each regression table.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CDE</th>
<th>Adjusted CDE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
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<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CDE = Classroom Diversity Experiences

Results from linear regression analysis, as presented first in Table 12, of gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences indicates there is no statistically significant relationship between the two, $\beta = -.04, p < .15$. Therefore, there is no explained variance of gender role conflict by classroom diversity experiences in the linear regression model (Adjusted $R^2 = .00, F(1, 281) = 2.10, p < .15$). Multivariate regression was also calculated to understand the relationship between gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences.

Regression analysis after holding for control variables between gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences results in no significant relationship between the two, $\beta = -.03, p < .28$. Results also show classroom diversity experiences does not have a role in explaining the variance of the relationship (Adjusted $R^2 = .01, F(5, 271) =$
Regression analysis between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences indicates there is not a significant relationship.

Table 13

**Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Classroom Diversity Experiences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CDE</th>
<th>$\beta = -.03$</th>
<th>Sig = .24</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared = .00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted CDE</td>
<td>$\beta = .07$</td>
<td>Sig = .56</td>
<td>Adjusted R-Squared = .02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: CDE = Classroom Diversity Experiences*

Results in Table 13 illustrate regression analysis findings between the gender role conflict pattern Success, Power, and Competition Issues and classroom diversity experiences. Linear regression analysis of the two variables indicate there is no significant effect on Success, Power, and Competition Issues and classroom diversity experiences, $\beta = -.03$, $p < .24$. Therefore, there is no significant explanation of variance in Success, Power, and Competition Issues from classroom diversity experiences (Adjusted $R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 318) = 1.37$, $p < .24$). Multivariate regression analysis was also calculated after linear regression to hold for the four control variables.

Results from multivariate regression indicate there is no significant relationship between Success, Power, and Competition Issues and classroom diversity experiences, $\beta = .07$, $p < .56$. The multiple linear regression model has no variance explained with classroom diversity experiences on Success, Power, and Competition Issues (Adjusted $R^2 = .02$, $F(5, 305) = 1.96$, $p < .56$). Regression analysis indicates there is no relationship
between the gender role conflict pattern Success, Power, and Competition Issues and classroom diversity experiences.

Table 14

*Restrictive Emotionality and Classroom Diversity Experiences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CDE</td>
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<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted CDE</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: CDE = Classroom Diversity Experiences*

Results in Table 14 shows linear and multivariate regression analysis findings. Linear regression findings show there is no relationship between the gender role conflict Restrictive Emotionality and classroom diversity experiences, $\beta = -0.04, p < 0.29$ or explained variance in the model (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.00, F(1, 298) = 1.15, p < 0.29$).

Multivariate regression was also calculated to understand relationships between the two variables after holding for controls.

Multivariate regression indicates there is no effect on Restrictive Emotionality by classroom diversity experiences after holding for controls in the model, $\beta = -0.05, p < 0.24$. Therefore, classroom diversity experience does not explain any variance of Restrictive Emotionality (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.00, F(5, 286) = 0.86, p < 0.24$). Results from linear and multivariate regression analysis show there is no relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Emotionality and classroom diversity experiences.
Table 15

Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Classroom Diversity Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CDE</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted CDE</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CDE = Classroom Diversity Experiences

Linear regression analysis results in Table 15 indicate there is no significant relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and classroom diversity experiences, β = -.05, p < .15. Classroom diversity experiences does not have a role in the variance of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men in the present linear regression model (Adjusted R² = .00, F(1, 311) = 2.08, p < .15). Multiple linear regression was also calculated to understand relationships of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and classroom diversity experiences after holding for controls.

Multiple linear regression analysis results show no effect on Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and classroom diversity experiences, β = -.01, p < .86. Classroom diversity experiences in college does not explain the variance of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (Adjusted R² = .00, F(5, 298) = 1.18, p < .86). Regression analysis results indicate there is no relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Classroom Diversity Experiences.
Table 16

Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and Classroom Diversity Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Adjusted R-squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CDE</td>
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<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted CDE</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: CDE = Classroom Diversity Experiences*

Regression analysis was calculated to understand the effect classroom diversity experiences has on the gender role conflict pattern Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. Linear regression results indicate there is no significant relationship between the two variables, $\beta = -.03$, $p < .45$. Classroom diversity experiences does not have a role in the variance of Conflict Between Work and Family Relations as indicated in the linear regression model (Adjusted $R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 316) = .58$, $p < .45$). Multivariate regression analysis also was calculated to understand relationships between classroom diversity experiences and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations after holding for the four control variables.

Multiple linear regression results indicate there is no relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and classroom diversity experiences, $\beta = -.04$, $p < .34$. Classroom diversity experiences does not have an effect after holding for controls on Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (Adjusted $R^2 = .01$, $F(5, 304) = 1.52$, $p < .34$). Results from linear and multivariate regression indicate there is not a relationship between the gender role conflict pattern
Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations and fraternity men’s classroom diversity experiences.

Summary

Linear and multivariate regression of gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences indicates there is no significant relationship between the two concepts. Also, results show there are no relationships between classroom diversity experiences and the four patterns that make up gender role conflict. The researcher’s hypothesis that classroom diversity experiences would have a negative effect on fraternity men’s gender role conflict is not supported.

Summary

Research Question 1 - What is the relationship between interactional diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict?

Correlation and regression analysis report no relationships between interactional diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict. Therefore, the researchers hypothesis for research question one is not supported. To better understand how interactional diversity experiences may relate to gender role conflict of fraternity men, statistical analysis was calculated on the four patterns of gender role conflict: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. Correlation results indicate there is a significant negative relationship between the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and interactional diversity experiences. Regression results indicate fraternity men’s degree of interactional
diversity experiences negatively predicts their degree of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men and Restrictive Emotionality, two patterns of gender role conflict.

Research Question 2 - What is the relationship between classroom diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict?

Correlation and regression analysis report no relationships between classroom diversity experiences and fraternity men’s gender role conflict. Therefore, the researchers hypothesis for research question two is not supported. Research question two also calculated analyses on the four patterns of gender role conflict: Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. Correlation and regression analysis findings report no relationship between classroom diversity experiences and any of the four patterns of gender role conflict.
Chapter 5: Discussion

Men on college campuses are demonstrating behavior that is of great concern for higher education and student affairs professionals. College men are reporting higher levels of academic underachievement and co-curricular disengagement compared to women (Davis & Laker, 2004; Sax, 2008). The college men who are not engaged with academics or identity development typically includes involvement in substance abuse (Capraro, 2000), sexual harassment (Foubert, Newberry, & Tatum, 2007), breaking university policies and rules (Harper, Harris III, & Mmeje, 2005), and experiencing the negative consequences of gender role conflict (Harris III & Lester, 2009). The present research explores the relationship between gender role conflict of fraternity men and their diversity experiences in and out of the classroom.

Harris III (2010) and Sax (2008) found diversity experiences to promote awareness of masculinity alternatives that may potentially impact college men’s gender identities. The current study sought to further understand how diversity experiences may impact fraternity men’s experiences of gender identity development by examining gender role conflict, which has been shown to have negative consequences for men and others (O’Neil, 2008). Chapter five discusses the results of the present study as it applies to the research questions and literature. Recommendations for future research and practices in higher education and student affairs are also presented.

Summary of Findings

The current study found no significant statistical relationships between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences or gender role conflict and classroom diversity experiences. The researcher’s hypothesis that interactional and classroom diversity experiences reduce fraternity men’s degree of gender role conflict was not supported. A more comprehensive analysis did reveal that interactional diversity experiences has a negative impact on two out of the
four specific patterns of gender role conflict: Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. Although there was not a direct relationship between interactional diversity experiences and the gender role conflict construct, these additional results of gender role conflict patterns suggest interactional diversity experiences may negatively impact gender role conflict indirectly. The following discusses the results of the research in four main ways: (a) theoretical explanations for no relationships, (b) interactional diversity experiences as a negative predictor of Restrictive Emotionality, (c) interactional diversity experiences as a negative predictor of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and (d) additional findings.

**Theoretical Explanations for No Relationships**

Results in the present study indicate there is no relationship between gender role conflict and interactional diversity experiences or classroom diversity experiences. It is important to ask and answer the question why this may be to better understand men’s experiences in college. Theoretical explanations for why the present research reported no results between gender role conflict and diversity experiences are provided in partner with supportive research on college men and fraternity membership. The following four theoretical explanations for why no statistically significant relationship was found between fraternity men’s gender role conflict and diversity experiences include: (a) lack of structural diversity, (b) college men’s lack of support, (c) fraternity membership, and (d) negative consequences of gender role conflict. These theoretical explanations for the lack of relationships between gender role conflict and fraternity men’s degree of diversity experiences in and out of the classroom are discussed.

**Lack of structural diversity**

The college campus’s structural diversity and campus climate may explain why there is no relationship between gender role conflict and diversity experiences. Structural diversity is the
demographic diversity of the student body and therefore greatly enhances interactional diversity experiences (Gurin et al., 2002; Hu & Kuh, 2003). The respondents in the current study reported a frequent degree of interaction with people who are different than them, indicating a moderate degree of interactional diversity experiences. This modest occurrence of diversity experiences may have been greater if the campus research site had a greater structural diversity. A greater degree of interactional diversity experiences may have been more impactful for respondents’ degree of gender role conflict. Therefore, the lack of structural diversity may be one reason why gender role conflict was not related to interactional diversity experiences. Additional research could examine how diversity experiences may affect gender role conflict in an environment that has a high degree of structural diversity.

**Fraternity membership**

Fraternity membership may have been another reason for the findings of no direct relationships in the current study of gender role conflict and diversity experiences. Laird (2005) reported fraternity membership to be homogeneous and discourages meaningful engagement with diversity. Additional research found fraternity members to have a negative impact on students’ openness to diversity in their first year of college (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn, & Terenzini, 1996); however, Martin, Hevel, Asel, and Pascarella (2011) found no difference between Greek and unaffiliated students measure of intercultural learning. Porter’s (2012) study challenges Laird (2005) and Pascarella et al. (1996) by reporting an increased frequency of interactional diversity experiences with the more time spent in fraternity organization leadership positions. It is possible in the current study respondents were less likely to engage in diversity experiences due to fraternity membership outcomes that negatively impact diversity experiences. Therefore, fraternity membership in the present study may be limiting the amount of diversity experiences in and out of the classroom, resulting in a lack of change in their degree of gender
role conflict. Research is mixed on how fraternity membership affects diversity experiences. Additional research should study the experience college men in fraternities have and identify catalysts and barriers that promote diversity experiences.

*Negative consequences of gender role conflict*

Negative outcomes for college men who experience gender role conflict may create barriers to engage in interactional and classroom diversity experiences. Gender role conflict may cause numerous supported negative consequences (O’Neil, 2008). Considering respondents reported a moderate to high degree of gender role conflict, two main outcomes of gender role conflict may result in the lack of experiences in diversity: (a) traditional gender role attitudes and (b) negative beliefs and behavior about people who are different.

*Traditional gender role attitudes*

Gender role consequences increase men’s adherence and attitudes of traditional gender roles for college men which decreases likelihood of diversity experiences in college. Gender role conflict has been found to predict traditionally masculine identified careers (Tokar & Jome, 1998). Sax (2008) supported this in her research that found continued gender gaps of majors in male-dominated fields, such as engineer, computer programming, and business. These research findings may suggest the respondents in the study may be enrolled in more traditionally masculine majors that also did not include many classes focused on diversity. For example, majors like engineering and computer science do not have the frequency of diversity classes offered compared to women’s studies, sociology, humanities, and ethnic studies. This may be the case in the present study as 53 (15.7%) fraternity men respondents reported zero classroom diversity courses and 80 (23.7%) reporting having taken one to two classes on diversity. Gender role conflict’s support of traditional masculine identified majors and careers may have negativity impact the respondent’s number of classroom diversity experiences. This lack of classes that
focused on diversity may have resulted in no relationship with respondents’ degree of gender role conflict.

*Negative beliefs and behavior about people who are different*

College men who experience gender role conflict may produce negative beliefs and behavior about others resulting in a lack of interaction of diversity and taken classes that focus on diversity experiences. As described in the review of literature about the consequences of gender role conflict, gender role conflict is found to increase racial bias (Mahalik, 2000), antigay attitudes and homophobia (Kassing et al., 2005), and fear of femininity (O’Neil et al., 1995). These outcomes of gender role conflict may have been experienced by the college men who reported a high degree of gender role conflict in the present study which resulted in the negative impact on their degree of diversity experiences.

These outcomes of gender role conflict are reflected in Phase 3: Experiencing and Recognizing Consequences of Wearing a Mask of Edwards and Jones (2009) theory of college men’s gender identity development. Observations of this phase of a college man’s gender identity development may include degrading attitudes towards women, limited intimacy with other men, and loss of authenticity. Men who may begin to take off the mask of masculinity and engage in diversity experiences may feel the consequences of doing so as men don’t meet external expectations as being masculine. Feeling pressure and insecurity by respondents in the present research prompts the mask of masculinity to be put back on. As the mask of masculinity is warn, there is likely retreat from engaging in diversity experiences to better adhere to traditional masculinity norms and gain acceptance by peer fraternity men. In other words, men who have not taken off the mask of masculinity are most likely experiencing gender role conflict and will avoid diversity experiences as a result, resulting in the research’s results of no direct relationship.
College men’s lack of support

Sanford’s (1966) foundational theory of learning and development focuses maximum growth on the degree of challenge and support students receive. Sanford’s theory may help explain why the researcher found no relationship in the present results. In his study, Sanford stated too little support with too much challenge makes development a difficult and negative experience. Therefore, the respondents in the present study may have been challenged with diversity experiences in and out of the classroom but did not receive efficient support to impact development of one’s identity and gender role conflict. Research indicates this may be the case. Sax (2008) found college men’s engagement with diversity activities are also accompanied by heightened feelings of discomfort. Davis’s (2002) qualitative study on the experiences college men have with gender role conflict included the theme of being challenged without support. These researchers illustrate the importance of supporting men as they encounter challenges in college to effectively promote student learning and development.

Gender role conflict outcomes may also perpetuate the lack of support college men receive as they experience challenges. Support for college men is a difficult task to achieve as research indicates college men who are facing challenges are less inclined to seek out help from others or campus support services (Good & Wood, 1995). Additional research on gender role conflict experience of men indicates poor attachment with parents (Blazina & Watkins, 1996) and a low capacity for intimate relationships (Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; Rochlen & Mahalik, 2004; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). These findings of gender role conflict experiences further explain why many college men may not feel supported by family, friends, and peers. Davis (2002) communicates advice to student affairs professionals that the perception of college men not wanting support should not be mistaken for the lack of need for support. The last theoretical explanation for no direct relationships between gender role conflict and diversity experiences may
be the lack of support college men receive during challenges. Sax (2008) argued campuses need to provide resources for college men to ensure they are supported during and after engagement in diversity experiences.

Summary

There are multiple theoretical explanations that provide an understanding for why this research found no direct results between gender role conflict and diversity experiences. The following four main theoretic explanations may explain why there are no relationships: (a) a lack of diversity available for the fraternity men to engage with, (b) fraternity homogenous environments and membership’s negative impact on diversity openness, (c) gender role conflict outcomes, and (d) a lack of support for college men. These explanations are theoretical as the present study did not specifically measure these variables.

Explanation for Interactional Diversity Experiences as a Negative Predictor of Restrictive Emotionality

In several studies gender role conflict has been found to limit emotion in undergraduate college men as discussed by Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje (2005) and reported by Sileo (1996) and Swenson (1998). Men who are not able to express emotion may result to violence and aggressive behavior as outlets, one reason why Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje (2005) argued college men break university polices and rules. bell hooks (2004) further illustrates this as part of the system of patriarchy in the United States stating, “Patriarchy demands of men that they become and remain emotional cripples” (p. 27). The present research found after holding for controls, interactional diversity experiences negatively predict the gender role conflict pattern of Restrictive Emotionality, $\beta = -.22, p < .03$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .01, F(5, 285) = 1.85, p < .03$). The relationship identified between interactional diversity experiences and Restrictive Emotionality is an important one to discuss further.
The present research results supports interactional diversity experiences as an educational outcome of higher education that promotes fraternity men’s development of emotional expression. As men engage with others who are different than them they may find alternative ways of being masculine that also supports emotional feelings and expression. These men may try out newly identified ways of being masculine, take off the mask of masculinity as understood by Edwards and Jones (2009), gain support and confidence in their newly defined gender identity, and then commit to a newly formed gender identity that has lessened the gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Emotionality.

College men who have more emotionality expressiveness may benefit their student success in higher education. Not feeling pressured to restrict emotions and behaving in restrictive emotional ways may allow for college men to be more authentic and human resulting in healthy identity formation. Identity formation may support additional development of purpose and integrity as described by Chickering and Reisser (1993). Interactional diversity experiences lowers college men’s Restrictive Emotionality and therefore reduces one pattern of gender role conflict and the negative impact gender role conflict has on student identity development (O’Neil, 2011). Additional research should explore in more detail how interactional diversity experiences influences men to alter their restrictive emotions, on aspect of their gender identity.

**Explanation for Interactional Diversity Experiences as a Negative Predictor of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men**

Davis (2002) found college men’s gender role conflict experience includes anxiety and frustration over the narrow ways that socially created traditional gender boundaries control men’s connection with other men. Traditional gender norms for men include the socialized beliefs and attitudes that men should not be intimate with each other, as reflected in gender role conflict’s pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (O’Neil, 2008). Intimacy between men
could be perceived by others as gay and therefore, feminine. These fears of perceptions from others results in intimacy between men to be avoided (Davis, 2002). Results of the present research suggest interactional diversity experiences may alleviate these pressures and restrictions and supports college men’s ability to have affectionate behavior with men and challenge traditional gender barriers that limits such behavior, \( \beta = -.21, p < .03 \) (Adjusted \( R^2 = .02, F(5, 297) = 2.03, p < .03 \)). This supported relationship between interactional diversity experiences and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men is better understood through past research and identity development theory.

The present results are supported by Harris III’s (2010) research on college men. Harris III found diversity experiences of college men allowed for the realization of different masculine identities but also provided opportunities that promoted and sustained cross cultural interaction. Harris III found diversity experiences with others created more complex understandings of masculinities and challenges pre-college socialized masculine definitions. These results indicate as fraternity men interact with people who are different than them they are more likely to have greater intimacy with other men.

The development of affectionate behavior between men reflects healthy identity formation of Erikson’s (1968) stage six conflict of intimacy versus isolation. College men who engage in interactional diversity experiences may promote more authenticity of college men’s gender identity development by reducing on pattern of their gender role conflict experience by successfully resolving stage five and promoting stage six of Erikson’s identity development model. College men who engage in interactional diversity experiences and lessen their gender role conflict pattern Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men are likely to be understood as “Beginning to Transcend External Expectations” of Edwards and Jones (2009) college men’s gender identity development model. These college men are beginning to accept the mask of
masculinity doesn’t always fit. Edwards and Jones (2009) reported critical influences and incidents support men’s transcendence their gender identity development into healthy masculinity. Interaction diversity experiences may be a critical influence in college men’s gender identity development.

**Additional Findings**

The present research measured the four patterns of gender role conflict to get a comprehensive perspective of how this critical component of men’s gender identity development is impacted by diversity experiences. Results from this study indicate positive relationships among gender role conflict patterns that may be affected due to the research’s findings on interactional diversity experiences’ negative impact on Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. Therefore, results suggest interactional diversity experiences may indirectly impact gender role conflict as understood through the four patterns of gender role conflict. The following discusses the additional findings in the research in four ways: (a) gender role conflict patterns, (b) race/ethnicity and interactional diversity experiences, (c) years in college, and (d) grade point average.

**Gender role conflict patterns**

Results indicate the gender role conflict patterns all had strong positive relationships with each other. The positive relationships between Success, Power, and Competition Issues, Restrictive Emotionality, Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations supports theoretical underpinnings of gender role conflict (O’Neil, 2008). These results indicate as one fraternity man experiences a pattern of gender role conflict there is a strong likelihood the other three gender role conflicts also is experienced. These relationships among all four patterns of gender role conflict suggests interactional diversity experiences may theoretically serve as one component that reduces gender role conflict overall as
illustrated in Figure 5. Additional findings show interactional diversity experiences may lessen a fraternity man’s Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, shown in Figure 5 as negative symbols. Due statistical significant relationships among gender role conflict patterns as shown as positive symbols in Figure 5, Success, Power, and Competition Issues and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations may be indirectly negatively impacted by interactional diversity experiences. Gender role conflict degree of experience would be considered lowered if all the four patterns are reduced. These findings indicate interactional diversity experiences may indirectly reduce gender role conflict via Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men.

*Figure 5.* A theoretical framework of interactional diversity experiences and the four patterns of gender role conflict. This figure describes how interactional diversity experiences negatively impacts the four patterns of gender role conflict and gender role conflict as whole.
Race/ethnicity and interactional diversity experiences

One control variable measured was the fraternity respondent’s self-reported race/ethnicity. The present research indicates students of color more likely engage with people who are different than them compared to white students ($r = .14, p < .01$). This relationship supports literature that indicates white students are less likely to engage with people who are different than students of color (Laird, 2005). These findings indicate challenges of student affairs professionals to engage white students in diversity experiences.

Years in college

Years in college was also measured to see how a fraternity man’s number of years in college related to the independent and dependent variables so it could be controlled in analysis. Research indicates the more years in college will positively influence the student’s interactional diversity ($r = .16, p < .01$) and classroom diversity ($r = .56, p < .001$). These results support Gurin et al. (2002) in their argument of beneficial learning outcomes due to diversity learning opportunities in college. Higher education typically includes more diversity than many students have encountered before their arriving to campus. The present results indicate that greater time spent in college increases ones frequency of diversity experiences in and out of the classroom. These results identify a positive outcome college environments may provide students the longer they are in college.

The number of years in college also indicated a negative relationship with the respondents grade point average ($r = -.28, p < .001$). The results indicate fraternity men who were in college longer tend to have lower GPAs than fraternity respondents who may be new to college. This may be based on the more difficult course work that typically occurs during junior and senior year compared to classes taken by first year students. However, there is not enough
information provided in the literature or in the current study to make claims as to why seniors in fraternity organizations have lower grade point averages than younger fraternity members.

Grade point average

Grade point average, another control variable measured in the present study, is related to classroom diversity experiences, the gender role conflict pattern of Success, Power, and Competition Issues, and the complete gender role conflict construct. Fraternity men’s grade point average is negatively correlated with classroom diversity experiences \( (r = -.16, p < .05) \). The more classes fraternity men take focused on diversity the greater negative impact it has on their grade point average, and vise-versa. This is a surprising finding in the study as classroom diversity experiences tend to promote positive learning outcomes, such as critical thinking (Hurtado, 2001), which has been found to increase grade point average (Facione, 1990). Additional research is needed to understand why this unlikely finding may exist and if there are direct relationships between classroom diversity experiences and grade point average, not just educational learning outcomes (e.g. critical thinking, democracy, analytical thinking).

Grade point average was also positivity correlated with Success, Power, and Competition Issues \( (r = .14, p < .05) \) and gender role conflict \( (r = .14, p < .05) \). These results align with theory behind Success, Power, and Competition Issues considering fraternity men who have high grade point averages may be seen by peers as successful and adhering to traditional gender norms of masculinity. Men are socialized to be the best, especially better than other men in different valued avenues of their lives (e.g. sports, hook-ups, and alcohol use). The present study results suggests college fraternity men may be competitive with other students through their grade point averages in college.
Summary of Discussion

Findings indicate there are no direct relationships between interactional or classroom diversity experiences and gender role conflict. There are theoretical explanations for why this may be in the present study: (a) a lack of diversity available for the fraternity men to engage with, (b) fraternity homogenous environments and membership’s negative impact on diversity openness, (c) gender role conflict outcomes, and (d) a lack of support for college men. Results may suggest interactional diversity experiences indirectly impacts gender role conflict via negative relationships with two gender role conflict patterns Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (See Figure 5). Results supports past findings that diversity experiences between men create meaningful changes on men’s gender identity development (Harris III, 2010; Harris III and Struve, 2009). These findings suggest interactional diversity experiences are one educational tool that may encourage men to make meaning of different gender identities and indirectly lower their degree of gender role conflict.

Research Limitations

The present research has limitations and should be followed up with additional research. There was a low response rate (26.4%) meaning that a considerable number of members in the research subject population were not included in the research. Therefore, sampling bias may be a result considering not all the fraternity men participated in the study. Additional research on fraternity men’s gender role conflict and diversity experiences should ensure the sample has a higher response rate. The study only pertains to fraternity men within the context of a comprehensive large public state university in the Pacific Northwest. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to the entire population of fraternity men or general college men. Future research should study college men’s gender role conflict and how it relates to diversity experiences within different regions and multiple universities. The relationship between gender
role conflict and diversity experiences is a complex one; therefore, future research should include more control variables in addition to the four used in the present study. This will help support findings between gender role conflict and diversity experiences are a result of the desired variables and not unknown variables.

**Implications for Practice**

“How can educators reshape their campus in ways that infuse lessons about masculinity that lead to healthy and productive gender identity development among their male students?” (Harris III & Struve, 2009, p. 7). The present study’s findings on interactional diversity experiences may shed light on this vital question asked of higher education and student affairs professionals. Interactional diversity experiences are an infused aspect of college campuses and these cross-cultural engagement opportunities can be facilitated by educators. Student affairs professionals should be aware of the positive benefits interactional diversity experiences may provide college men. One positive benefit demonstrated in the present research is the negative impact interactional diversity experiences has on gender role conflict patterns Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. Interactional diversity experiences with fraternity men in college can be facilitated through student affairs programs, workshops, and services. Harris III and Struve (2009) promoted diversity experiences through guest speakers, service-learning projects, and interactive activities that promote interactional diversity engagement and meaningful discussion. Greek leaders may program activities where cross-cultural interactions can occur between traditionally white fraternities and multicultural fraternities to support men’s gender identity development. As confirmed in the present study, implementing these practices and fostering meaningful interactional diversity experiences will allow college men to foster healthy masculine identities.
Many men in college feel challenged from different learning opportunities, including diversity experiences, but do not feel supported on their campuses (Davis, 2002; Sax, 2008). Student affairs professionals should be aware of this issue and establish supportive resources and infrastructure men may utilize to promote development after feeling challenged with new found experiences. Sax (2008) supported these changes and argued campuses should provide appropriate resources for college men and follow up with those who participate in diversity programming to gauge if support is needed. Within these support systems for college men, educators need to be aware of the negative attitudes men have towards seeking out or asking for help by others. Innovative strategies should be used to provide support that is perceived to be not a challenge to their gender identities. Davis and Laker (2004) stated activity based programs may be a good way to engage college men in cross-cultural interactions and provide supportive relationships to support gender identity formation. Examples of activities may include going for a hike, rock climbing, intramurals, and active orientated ice-breakers.

University leadership’s support of policies and initiatives that promote a more diverse campus in terms of structure and culture is significant considering the outcomes diversity has on students and college men’s masculinity identities. Gurin et al., (2002) reported the direct relationship structural diversity has on the increased frequency diversity interactions will occur between students. Enrollment management should continue to improve multicultural recruitment and enrollment to promote a diverse student body. Hiring at universities should actively seek diverse candidates that match the diverse student body and enhance campus structural diversity. Multicultural offices and all other higher education and student affairs professionals should continue the important work of diversity and multicultural awareness in the college and community to improve a campus climate that supports diversity interactional experiences. As found in the present research, the promotion of meaningful interactions with others who bring
alternative perspectives, experiences, and beliefs is important for men’s healthy masculinity development.

Within all of these implications for practice in higher education and student affairs there should be three identified approaches followed. Davis and Laker (2004) stated for educators to effectively engage college men and address their needs all practices should be based out of the following three frameworks: “(1) Student services and interventions are grounded in theory and research, (2) Recognize differences among men and masculinities, and (3) Provide support in addition to challenge” (p. 53). The present research is one step to begin these practices and support college men’s development but many more are needed to be successful in this task.

**Future Research**

The present research was investigative in nature, as there hasn’t been any published literature that examines relationships between gender role conflict and interactional or classroom diversity experiences. Therefore, additional research is required on the subject to either confirm or deny the present study’s findings. Additional research should examine how diversity experiences may affect gender role conflict in an environment that is different than the present research site as these findings are not generalizable. Future research may also find it helpful to perform a comparative study of the effect diversity experiences may have on fraternity men. This may be accomplished by studying the sample before a new experience (Example: cross-cultural mentorship program) and then after the intervention to measure the potential impact. Another approach for future research may involve the inclusion of a control group, that does not receive an intentional diversity experience. One limitation with these studies is the researcher’s inability to control for all the variables that may impact learning and development from diversity experiences beyond the educational intervention.
College men’s experience of gender role conflict within their masculine identity construction is a complex developmental aspect in men’s lives. Therefore, comprehensive research of how college men make meaning of their masculine identities is needed to advance practices that support college men in higher education. The present inquiry was to understand how interactional diversity and classroom diversity experiences impacted college men’s gender role conflict. Follow up studies are needed to better understand these theoretical relationships between diversity and men’s gender identities. Qualitative methodology could be utilized to help higher education and student affairs professionals make sense out of the complex processes that occur as college men make meaning of their gender identities from diversity experiences.
Chapter 6: Conclusion

Supporting college men in their gender identity development is an important service for student affairs and higher education given its potential impact on students, the campus community, and society overall. College men are encountering difficulties in college as they find themselves in the judicial offices (Harper, Harris III, & Mmeje, 2005), high suicide completion rates (Pollack, 2001a), exhibit greater levels of academic underachievement compared to women (Sax, 2008), and demonstrate disinterested in cocurricular opportunities (Davis & Laker, 2004). These issues may be understood through men’s gender identity socialization. Within the process of socialization is the resulting struggles of gender role conflict as men balance the pressures to conform to narrowly constructed masculine behavior norms and their quest to establish a more self-authored identity. Harper and Harris III (2010) warn higher education institutions about the danger of not supporting college men. College men who do not mature into adulthood may only perpetuate emotional immaturity, patriarchy, bad health habits, sexism, homophobia, misogyny, sexual harassment, and all other forms of oppression (Harper & Harris III, 2010).

The present study accomplished the initial purpose of this research to understand relationships between gender role conflict and diversity experiences in and out of the classroom. Quantitative results indicate diversity experiences with others are one aspect that reduces college men’s pressures and conformity to restrict emotions and intimacy with other men. These outcomes may lessen the issues that college men have themselves and the resulting outcomes of dangerous activities and violence against others, the campus community, and larger society.

Interactional diversity experiences are an avenue for college men to navigate the exploration of their gender identities and lessen their experiences of gender role conflict indirectly through Restrictive Emotionality and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men. Therefore, advancing diversity interactions with men may help the college men feel more
liberated as they don’t feel pressures to conform to traditional masculine norms. Men who encounter others who are different may discover alternative ways to being masculine. These new found identities may then experimented with and tested out as gender identities that align better with their own values and beliefs – promoting authentic and a more self-authored identity.

Newly formed identities that support intimacy with other men and emotional expression may result in the reduction of college men’s involvement in judicial affairs. Instead of college men binge drinking or getting in a fight due to overwhelming pressures in life, they are able to express their emotions to others and find support through affectionate friendships with men. Men who engage in more interactional diversity experiences may save lives as they have an increased ability to express emotion and have intimacy with men that creates additional support structures to reduce the high suicide rates college men have. Interactional diversity experiences may indirectly limit their experience of gender role conflict resulting in the lessening of oppressive attitudes and behavior, increasing positive outcomes for campus communities and society. Simply stated, interactional diversity experiences may be one educational tool that decreases college men’s problems in higher education.
References


Harper, S. R., & Harris III, F. (2010). Beyond the model gender majority myth:

Responding equitably to the developmental needs and challenges of college men.


Appendix A – Recruitment Email

Hello (insert fraternity president’s name here),

My name is Luke Schalewski, a graduate student within the College Student Services Administration program at Oregon State University.

After collaborating with the Oregon State University’s Center of Fraternity and Sorority Life, you are receiving this email because of your fraternity membership status as the president of your chapter. I would like to invite your fraternity to participate in this research study that investigates the relationships of gender role conflict and college diversity experiences.

I am requesting to arrange a time to attend your chapter’s meeting. If you permit me to attend a fraternity meeting, it will take no more than 20 minutes to distribute surveys to each member of your chapter.

Results of this study may be shared to fraternity members and leaders at Oregon State University that may provide important knowledge for yourself and others in the Greek community.

If you would like to participate in this study please contact myself through email to setup a time that works best. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me or Dr. Jessica White, Principal Investigator.

Luke Schalewski                      Dr. Jessica White
Student Researcher                   Principal Investigator
Lucas.Schalewski@oregonstate.edu     Jessica.White@oregonstate.edu
(262) 707-9127                        (541) 737-8576

I look forward to hearing back from you and am happy to answer any questions you many have about your participation.

Thank you for your time,

Luke Schalewski
Student Researcher
Appendix B – Explanation of Research Study

**Explanation of Research Study**

Project Title: Fraternity Men’s Diversity Experiences and Degree of Gender Role Conflict

Primary Investigator: Dr. Jessica White
Student Researcher: Luke Schalewski

You are invited to participate in a research study that investigates relationships between diversity experience and men’s gender role conflict. This study will be used as my thesis and will meet partial requirements for a Master of Science (M.S.) degree in College Student Services Administration at Oregon State University. You were selected as a potential participant in this study because of your Oregon State University fraternity membership status.

Completion of this survey indicates you are at least eighteen years of age and gives your informed consent to participate in this study. It also indicates you are aware your participation is voluntary and that all your answers will be treated confidentially. That is, every effort will be made to safeguard your identity and any information you provide from unauthorized access. No names should be placed on this survey to further minimize risks of identity disclosure.

There is minimal risk for this study. There may be personal discomfort when answering some survey questions that relate to men’s feelings and relationships with others. You may not complete the survey, skip any questions or stop completing this survey at any time, and without penalty.

If you do decide to complete this survey, it will take no more than 15-20 minutes of your time. There will be no paid compensation for your participation. There may be no direct benefit to filling out this survey; however, the results of this study will hopefully be used to aid Greek life leaders to best serve fraternity students and fraternity life initiatives in the future.

If you have any questions please do not hesitate to email or call Dr. Jessica White, Primary Investigator or OSU’s Institutional Review Board. Contact information is listed below.

Dr. Jessica White
Primary Investigator
Jessica.White@oregonstate.edu
(541) 737-8576

Institutional Review Board
B308 Kerr Administration Building
IRB@oregonstate.edu
(541) 737-8008
Appendix C – Research Survey

**INSTRUCTIONS:** Please record your answers for each question. Your honesty is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

*In your experience at this institution, about how often have you done each of the following? Indicate your response by filling in one of the ovals of each statement.*

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<th>Never</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Very Often</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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1. ____ Became acquainted with students whose race or ethnic background was different from yours.

2. ____ Became acquainted with students from another country.

3. ____ Had serious discussions with students whose philosophy of life or personal values were very different from yours.

4. ____ Had serious discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from yours.

5. ____ Had serious discussions with students whose race or ethnic background was different from yours.

6. ____ Had serious discussions with students from a country different from yours.
How many courses in college have you taken that focus on the following? Indicate your response by writing the number of classes in the space provided.

7. Number of courses that focus on diversity cultures and perspectives? _______

8. Number of courses that focus on women/gender? _______

9. Number of courses that focus on equality/justice? _______

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

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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10. ____ Moving up the career ladder is important to me.

11. ____ I have difficulty telling others I care about them.

12. ____ Verbally expressing my love to another man is difficult for me.

13. ____ I feel torn between my hectic work schedule and caring for my health.

14. ____ Making money is part of my idea of being a successful man.

15. ____ Strong emotions are difficult for me to understand.

16. ____ Affection with other men makes me tense.

17. ____ I sometimes define my personal value by my career success.

18. ____ Expressing feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people.

19. ____ Expressing my emotions to other men is risky.

20. ____ My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life.
21. I evaluate other people’s value by their level of achievement and success.

22. Talking about my feelings during sexual relations is difficult for me.

23. I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man.

24. I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.

25. Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.

26. Finding time to relax is difficult for me.

27. Doing well all the time is important to me.

28. I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.

29. Hugging other men is difficult for me.

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

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

32. Competing with others is the best way to succeed.

33. Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth.

34. I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling.

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

36. My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than would like.
37. ____ I strive to be more successful than others.

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

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

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

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

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

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

44. ____ Men who are overly friendly to me make me wonder about their sexual preference.

45. ____ Overwork and stress caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts my life.

46. ____ I like to feel superior to other people.
Please answer the following questions to the best of your ability. Indicate your response by filling in one of the ovals by each answer.

47. If you had to pick one, which ethnicity do you identify with the most?

A = African American  
B = Caucasian  
C = Latino/a  
D = Asian/Pacific Islander  
E = Other

48. What was the race composition of the high school you graduated?

A = Nearly all White  
B = Mostly White  
C = Somewhat White and People of Color  
D = Mostly People of Color  
E = Nearly all People of Color

49. Please indicate what your cumulative grade point average is as of today.

A = 3.67 or higher  
B = 2.67 – 3.66  
C = 1.67 – 2.66  
D = .67 – 1.66  
E = .66 or lower

50. What is your current year of school at Oregon State University?

A = First year  
B = Second year  
C = Third year  
D = Fourth year  
E = Fifth year or more
Appendix D – Gender Role Conflict Scale

Factor 1 – Success, Power, and Competition Issues (13 items)
- Moving up the career ladder is important to me.
- Making money is part of my idea of being a successful man.
- I sometimes define my personal value by my career success.
- I evaluate other people’s value by their level of achievement and success.
- I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man.
- Doing well all the time is important to me.
- I often feel that I need to be in charge of those around me.
- Competing with others is the best way to succeed.
- Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth.
- I strive to be more successful than others.
- I am often concerned about how others evaluate my performance at work or school.
- Being smarter or physically stronger than other men is important to me.
- I like to feel superior to other people.

Factor – Restrictive Emotionality (10 items)
- I have difficulty telling others I care about them.
- Strong emotions are difficult for me to understand.
- Expressing feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people.
- Taking (about my feelings) during sexual relations is difficult for me.
- I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.
- I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.
- Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior.
- I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling.
- I do not like to show my emotions to other people.
- Telling my partner my feelings about him/her during sex is difficult for me.

Factor 3 – Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (8 items)
- Verbally expressing my love to another man is difficult for me.
- Affection with other men makes me tense.
- Expressing my emotions to other men is risky.
- Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.
- Hugging other men is difficult for me.
- I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me.
- Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable.
- Men who are overly friendly to me make me wonder about their sexual preference (men or women).
Factor 4 – Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (6 items)

- I feel torn between my hectic work schedule and caring for my health.
- My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life.
- Finding time to relax is difficult for me.
- My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like.
- My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, health, leisure).
- Overwork, and stress, caused by a need to achieve on the job in school affects hurts my life.
Appendix E – Classroom Diversity Experiences

Classroom Diversity Experiences

- Number of courses taken in college that focus on diversity cultures and perspectives
- Number of courses that focus on women/gender
- Number of course that focus on equality/justice
Appendix F – Interactional Diversity Experiences

**Interactional Diversity Experiences**

- Became acquainted with students whose race or ethnic background was different from yours.

- Became acquainted with students from another country.

- Had serious discussions with students whose philosophy of life or personal values were very different from yours.

- Had serious discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from yours.

- Had serious discussions with students whose race or ethnic background was different from yours.

- Had serious discussions with students from a country different from yours.
Appendix G – Research Survey Score Guide

**INSTRUCTIONS:** Please record your answers for each question. Your honesty is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

*In your experience at this institution, about how often have you done each of the following? Indicate your response by filling in one of the ovals of each statement.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Very</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. ____ Became acquainted with students whose race or ethnic background was different from yours.

2. ____ Became acquainted with students from another country.

3. ____ Had serious discussions with students whose philosophy of life or personal values were very different from yours.

4. ____ Had serious discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from yours.

5. ____ Had serious discussions with students whose race or ethnic background was different from yours.

6. ____ Had serious discussions with students from a country different from yours.
**How many courses in college have you taken that focus on the following? Indicate your response by writing the number of classes in the space provided.**

7. Number of courses that focus on diversity cultures and perspectives? _______

8. Number of courses that focus on women/gender? _______

9. Number of courses that focus on equality/justice? _______

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

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