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MALE PERFECTIONISTS WITH CLOSE SAME-SEX FRIENDS:
SELF-DISCLOSURE, GENDER ROLE CONFLICT,
AND RELATIONAL INTERDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL

A Dissertation in
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by

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ABSTRACT

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This study examined how measures of self-disclosure, four aspects of the gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal differed among college-aged male perfectionists and nonperfectionists with close friends. Male undergraduate students were classified as adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists based on cut off scores suggested by Rice and Ashby (2007). In addition, self-disclosure in close same-sex male friendships was examined as a mediator variable in the relationship between relational interdependent self-construal and restrictive emotionality. Two hundred and thirty one undergraduate male students from a large public university (Mean Age = 20.2 years; SD = 2.70 years) with close friends responded to the following instruments: Demographic Information Questionnaire, the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, & Johnson, 1996), the Self-Disclosure Index Scale (SDI; Miller, Berg, Archer, 1983), the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (GRCS-I, O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) , and the Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale (RISC; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000). These instruments were available via a secure web-based file supported by an online research service. The sample included 67 adaptive perfectionists, 65 maladaptive perfectionists, and 99 nonperfectionists. On the SDI, adaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher than maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who were not significantly different from each other. On the Success, Power, and Competition subscale of the GRCS-I, adaptive perfectionists and maladaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher than nonperfectionists, but their scores did not differ from each other. On the Restrictive Emotionality and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscales of the GRCS-I, maladaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher

than adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who did not differ from each other. On the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men of the GRCS-I and the Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scales, no significant difference was found between adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists. In addition, self-disclosure was a partial mediator in the relationship between RISC and RE. These findings supported the notion that maladaptive and adaptive aspects of perfectionism are related to the quality of same-sex friendships and the level of psychological distress associated with male gender-role conflict.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present briefly the core concepts of this dissertation study, to outline key empirical and conceptual findings from the published literature as well as to present the psychometric instruments which were used in the study to examine the impact of perfectionism on the experiences of self-disclosure in close same-sex friendships, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal among male undergraduate students who self-identified as having close same-sex friends. This study is about interpersonal experiences of perfectionistic and nonperfectionistic males in the context of their intrapersonal traits and sociocultural norms. It was inspired by my clinical work with male undergraduate students and my desire to make a meaningful contribution to a gender-aware exploration of male interpersonal functioning.

In the process of considering a specific direction for my study, I was influenced by the feminist analysis of male socialized gender roles and their consequences on male interpersonal functioning. Scholars of men's issues, who incorporated feminist analysis in their professional worldviews, asserted that traditional norms of male gender socialization such as competition, status, or emotional restrictiveness manifested themselves in men's lack of intimate connections with other men, aggression, homophobia, misogyny, or neglect of personal health. By establishing a gender-aware direction in the psychology of men and masculinity, leading researchers offered new ways of thinking about the complexity of male psychological experiences (Levant & Pollack, 1995), which I could employ for the development of my study. O'Neil (2008) further addressed the importance of advancing empirical and theoretical understanding of the complexity of male experiences in relation to gender role conflict. O'Neil

called for deepening the study of gender role conflict by moving away from looking at predictive associations between gender role conflict and other variables of psychological functioning. He encouraged researchers to engage in studies of mediator effects in relation to gender role conflict. Furthermore, Wester (2008) called for linking the study of gender role conflict with relevant constructs from other fields of psychology such as developmental, cognitive, or social.

As a whole, this study focused on how intrapersonal characteristics of males such as perfectionism or gender role conflict may contribute to their interpersonal patterns of functioning in a sociocultural context. Specifically, the aim of this study was to examine interpersonal functioning of male undergraduate students who reported having close male friendships and were classified as adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, or nonperfectionists. The specific areas of interpersonal functioning that warranted my attention were intimate self-disclosure; four components of the gender role conflict: success, power, competition; restrictive emotionality; restrictive affectionate behavior between men; conflict between work and family relations, and relational interdependent self-construal.

The schematic representation of relationships between these constructs is presented in Appendix K. In addition, a construct of self-disclosure was evaluated as a potential mediator in the relationship between one's value of relational interpersonal self-construal and restrictive emotionality. A graphic representation of the mediation model is shown in Appendix J. In the subsections below my goal is to present each component of the study and briefly demonstrate the rationale behind the proposed schematic relationships between constructs. Chapter 2 and 3 will address the literature about these constructs and the psychometric instruments I used.

Perfectionism as a core intrapersonal concept of the study. Hewitt and Flett (2002) defined perfectionism as setting extremely high standards for oneself and others. Perfectionism,

as an area of psychological inquiry, has attracted the attention of many scholars in the past two decades. As a result of their fruitful contributions, the field of study has expanded in multiple directions, and the number of studies published has grown exponentially (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). Habke and Flynn (2002) reported that some emerging empirical evidence pointed out that perfectionism is associated with different interpersonal styles and impacts people's interpersonal functioning in relationships. Habke and Flynn noted that perfectionism and interpersonal functioning has received less attention by scholars. They stated, however, that this area of study is equally important because perfectionism has a strong interpersonal dimension. For instance, perfectionists may be less socially engaged and experience less intimate social relationships.

Two widely used measures of perfectionism were developed by Frost and colleagues, FMPS (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990) and by Hewitt and Flett, HFMP (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Both of these measures assumed that perfectionism was a negative personality factor. Slaney and his colleagues developed the APS-R (Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, & Johnson, 1996) which measures both positive and negative aspects of perfectionism. The core characteristic of negative perfectionism is captured by the concept of discrepancy. It is defined as "the perceived discrepancy or difference between the standards one has for oneself and one's actual performance" (Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001). Rice and Ashby (2007) proposed a way to classify college students using these different dimensions of perfectionism. Cut off points were established for adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists as well as nonperfectionists.

The review of the literature presented in Chapter 2 will demonstrate that some of the correlates of perfectionism are important for understanding relationships between adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism, self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and relational

interdependent self-construal. When relationships between perfectionism and interpersonal problems were investigated, it was found that hostile-maladaptive male perfectionists had problems expressing affection/sympathy and difficulty maintaining close relationships. Adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists demonstrated low levels of interpersonal problems (Slaney, Pincus, Uliaszek, & Wang, 2006). This may suggest that maladaptive perfectionists may have more difficulties in the development and maintenance of intimate same-sex friendships.

Also, there is strong evidence that maladaptive perfectionists may have lower self-esteem whereas adaptive perfectionists may have higher self-esteem (Ashby & Rice, 2002; Grzegorek, Slaney, Franze, & Rice, 2004). There is some evidence that self-esteem may be implicated in how readily people are willing to self-disclose in their friendships (Dolgin, Meyer, and Schwartz, 1991). In sum, adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism in contrast to nonperfectionism appear to contribute to specific patterns of interpersonal functioning in close relationships. Same-sex close friendships are examples of interpersonal relationships in people's lives. Type of perfectionism is positioned to influence one of the core interpersonal processes – intimate self-disclosure in close male friendships.

Male Same-Sex Friendships and Intimate Self-Disclosure. The quality and quantity of adult male same-sex friendships has been a subject of scientific inquiry in the past 25 years with emphasis placed on deficiencies in male friendships. It is notable that what is known about same-sex male friendships is derived from comparing them with women's same-sex female friendships (Grief, 2006). Grief suggested that same-sex male friendships deserved to be studied for their own sake and not in comparison to female same-sex friendships. It was found that same-sex college-aged male friendships are important components of their personal relationships and sources of intimacy in their lives (Fehr, 2004). Intimacy is the most salient component that helps

separate close friendships from other personal relationships (Hays, 1988), and it can be defined as an interpersonal process through which thoughts, feelings, and personal information are revealed to another individual (Laurenceau, Rivera, Schaffer, & Pietromonaco, 2004). Intimacy can be experienced in close relationships through the process of self-disclosure (Hays, 1988).

Jourard (1964, 1971) found that self-disclosure of inner feelings and experiences to another person leads to deepening of close relationships. Women's same-sex friendships are frequently portrayed as more intimate than men's same-sex friendships (Fehr, 1996). Increasingly, empirical investigations challenged the notion that male same-sex close friendships are not as close as female same-sex relationships (Johnson, 2004). It was suggested that as males approach young adulthood, they shift their interest to closeness and intimacy in their friendships, and the difference between female and male same-sex friendships decreases (Connolly et al., 1999).

Notrius and Johnson (1982) proposed that male attitudes and behaviors toward same-sex friends can be understood from a model of gender role socialization. Boys learn inexpressiveness and avoidance of intimacy as an important part of masculinity. Caldwell and Peplau (1982) found that college-aged males demonstrated a preference for shared activities and talking about their activities in their same-sex friendships. Lewis (1978) suggested that competition, homophobia, aversion to vulnerability and openness, and lack of role models were the factors that prevented males from experiencing intimate friendships. Lewis asserted that men inhibit affection that they may feel toward other males because they compete for high socioeconomic status and social influence in society. All males see themselves as potential rivals in an economic or social arena. Lewis suggested that homophobia is another barrier to emotional intimacy between men. Men are afraid to share intimate feelings with each other because they are afraid to

tarnish their heterosexual identities. In addition, men do not know how to share affection with other men because they have not been exposed to examples of such affection-giving.

In sum, male close friendships are valuable interpersonal relationships which deserve to be addressed in research studies. Self-disclosure is an important marker of intimacy in close relationships. Male friendships appear to be affected by socialized gender-normed behavioral patterns that prevent men from fully experiencing intimate connections in their friendships. Positive and negative aspects of perfectionism stand to additionally influence experiences of self-disclosure in male college-aged friendships. My interest in understanding the impact of perfectionism on self-disclosure in male same-sex friendships constitutes one aspect of this research study.

In the subsections above, I noted that perfectionism and socially-defined male gender role patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving are related to the quality of intimate interactions in close same-sex male friendships. Furthermore, in the process of addressing the literature on the quality of male friendships, it became clear that male impersonal experiences stand to be affected by gender role conflict. Since my goal was to learn more about interpersonal experiences of male college-aged perfectionists and nonperfectionists with close friends, I also explored how perfectionism type might relate to experiences of gender role conflict in college-aged males. The next subsection provides key concepts in the area of gender role conflict.

Gender Role Conflict and Interpersonal Functioning. Men tend to have difficulties with experiencing intimacy and self-disclosure because of their gender role socialization (O'Neil, 1981b, 2008). O'Neil proposed the concept of gender role conflict which was defined as "a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others" (p.203). According to O'Neil (1981b), six patterns of gender role conflict emerge from

the fear of femininity and devaluation of feminine values: (1) restrictive emotionality; (2) socialized control, power, and competition; (3) homophobia; (4) restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior; (5) obsession with achievement and success; and (6) health care problems.

The theory of gender role conflict (O'Neil, 1981b) and the consequent development of the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (GRCS-I; O'Neil et al., 1986) have allowed for a systematic evaluation of ways four components of gender role conflict (success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality; restrictive affectionate behavior between men; and conflict between work and family relations) may contribute to restrictions in males' intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning (O'Neil, 2008). Since the inception of the GRCS-I, gender role conflict has been implicated in the intrapersonal and interpersonal difficulties resulting from the stress associated with male gender role socialization (Pederson & Vogel, 2007).

Although relationships between gender role conflict and multiple psychological variables have been explored and documented in literature, relationships between perfectionism and gender role conflict were not examined. Since maladaptive perfectionists (Slaney et al., 2006) and gender role conflicted males (Mahalik, 2000) were found to have problematic interpersonal styles, examining how perfectionism may relate to male gender role conflict makes sense.

Mahalik (2000) speculated that males who internalize traditional gender role patterns may be oriented toward unemotional and uncommunicative interpersonal patterns in relationships or exhibit a propensity toward dominant interpersonal behaviors. He designed and conducted an original study that examined how gender role conflict was associated with self-rated behaviors on the Interpersonal Circle measured by the Checklist of Interpersonal Transactions- Revised (CLOIT- R; Kiesler, 1984, 1987). He found that three subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale could be understood from a two-dimensional interpersonal model

where success, power, and competition were located along the dominance-submission facet of the Interpersonal Circle and restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men were situated along the hostile-friendly facet of the Interpersonal Circle.

Mahalik (2000) suggested that the results of his study provided some evidence for the importance of integrating research on gender role conflict with other research on personality and interpersonal functioning. He noted that researchers may need to focus on how gender role conflict influences males' interpersonal functioning. Mahalik asserted that gender role conflict leads to internalized interpersonal styles which are manifested in male relationships as well as male responses to therapeutic processes and outcomes.

Swenson (1999) looked into how male self-disclosure about personal topics was related to by gender role conflict. Eighty-five men whose age ranged from 20 years to 60 years of age participated in the study. The Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (O'Neil et al., 1986) was utilized in this study to assess participants' gender role conflict. Self-disclosure was measured by the Jourard Self-Disclosure Scale (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958). Swenson found that men who reported self-disclosing more about personal topics scored lower on the subscale of Restrictive Emotionality of the GRCS-I and were younger.

Self-disclosure received much attention in literature, for it reflects one's level of comfort with intimate exchange of thoughts, feelings, and facts in a close relationship. Both males and females value intimate self-disclosure but females tend to experience more self-disclosure in their friendships (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982). Swenson's empirical finding demonstrated that a higher level of restrictive emotionality among males may be a factor that may be negatively related their comfort with self-disclosure. This possibility led me to investigate other intrapersonal and interpersonal mechanisms in which self-disclosure might play an important

role. My final intent was to establish a pattern in which self-disclosure could facilitate a relationship in which restrictive emotionality could be lessened so that males could potentially experience more intimate connections in their close same-sex friendships. My exploration of the literature in the field of social psychology led me to consider the promising constructs of independent and interdependent relational self-construal. The following subsections will briefly address these concepts.

Relational Interdependent Self-Construal. The principal feature of interdependent self-construal is that a person needs to be connected to other people - one's sense of self is partially defined by important roles, group memberships, or close relationships. Individuals with interdependent self-construal think and behave in ways that maintain their connectedness to others and enhance existing relations (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000). Relational interdependent self-construal captures the relationship-oriented nature of people's self-concepts in contrast with the notion of independent self-construal. Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested that people who think of themselves as autonomous, independent, and fundamentally separate from others exhibit characteristics of the independent self-construal. The essential elements of independent self-construal consist of one's unique traits, abilities, preferences, interests, and goals which are expressed independently of others.

RISC and Self-Disclosure. Intimate relationships are important to individuals with interdependent self-construal while individuals with independent self-construal are threatened by the development of intimate relationships. Persons who embrace close relationships see these relationships as self-defining; their sense of selves includes representations of others with whom they are close as well as their own attitudes, abilities, and goals. People with higher values on RISC tend to self-disclose more in their friendships and be more responsive to the needs of

others. Individuals who see their self-concepts in terms of close relationships tend to be oriented toward thoughts and actions that help them in the development of close relationships (Cross et al., 2000).

Higher values on RISC tend to positively influence overall relationship-oriented processes such as self-disclosure and responsiveness. Scholars (e.g., Gilligan, 1982; Jordan & Surrey, 1986) have noted that males are encouraged to develop an independent self-construal (Cross & Madson, 1997). Overemphasis on self-reliance and autonomy may leave males less oriented to and perhaps less skilled in relationship-oriented processes. As a result, if males were to increase their degree of relational interdependent self-construal they might be more comfortable with personal emotional expressiveness and responsiveness to others. In addition, males do want intimate friendships, but they appear to be less willing to engage in intimate self-disclosure in their same-sex friendships. Therefore, it may be important to examine if changing the value of RISC among males leads to changes in their emotional expressiveness in close relationships with self-disclosure playing a role of mediator in the relationship between RISC and restrictive emotionality.

Psychometric Instruments. In order to fully investigate the relationships between gender-role conflict, perfectionism, and self-disclosure in same-sex male friendships the following instruments will be used. The Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, & Johnson, 1996), the instrument captures the multidimensional nature of perfectionism. The underlying construct of perfectionism that guides this instrument incorporates the negative and positive dimensions of perfectionism (Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001). The Gender Role Conflict Scale- I (GRCS-I; O' Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) assesses men's conflicts with their gender roles by asking them about their personal gender role

attitudes, behaviors, and conflicts (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1992). The Self-Disclosure Index (SDI; Miller, Berg, & Archer, 1983) measures one's willingness to disclose to a same-sex friend on topics such as personal habits, personal fears or things that a respondent is proud of. The Relational Interdependent Self-Concept Scale (RISC; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000) aims to measure "the relational interdependent self-construal in terms of the degree to which individuals include close relationships in their self-concepts" (Cross et al., 2000, p.793).

Assumptions of this Study

This study was developed in light of theoretical assumptions that were drawn from the literature review presented in Chapter 2:

1. College-aged male same-sex friendships are important relationships in their lives. Friendships can be distinguished as close, good, or casual.
2. Perfectionism is a multidimensional construct that can include adaptive and maladaptive aspects of interpersonal and interpersonal functioning. Individuals could be classified as adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists.
3. Traditional male gender roles reinforce self-sufficiency, emotional inexpressiveness and devalue cooperation, emotional expressiveness, and intimacy. Men may experience gender role conflict if they have difficulties endorsing the expectations of traditional male gender norms.
4. Gender Role Conflict is interpersonal in nature.
5. Adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism may impact individual patterns of gender role conflict in different ways.

6. Relational Interdependent Self-Construal reflects how individuals think about themselves in relation to their important relationships. College-aged males who score high or low on the measure of RISC may value different interpersonal patterns. Perfectionism may impact relational interpersonal patterns for college-aged males with close friends.

7. High levels of restrictive emotionality among males may impede healthy emotional functioning in intimate male friendships whereas a shift from an independent self-construal to a relational interdependent self-construal may contribute to a greater comfort with emotional expression in relation to others.

Research Questions

The assumptions of this study presented above led to the development of overall research questions which were addressed in the study. The research questions are outlined below:

1. How does perfectionism relate to experiences of self-disclosure in close male friendships?
2. Is there a relationship between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism and gender-role conflict among males?
3. How does perfectionism relate to a sense of relational self-construal among male college students?
4. Can self-disclosure in close male friendships of perfectionists and nonperfectionists mediate a relationship between one's sense of relational self-construal and restrictive emotionality?

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

This chapter will review the literature on perfectionism, friendships in adolescence and young adulthood, male gender role conflict, relational interdependent self-construal, and intimate self-disclosure in same-sex male friendships. The theoretical and empirical conceptualizations of friendships, intimacy, self-disclosure, and gender role conflict in relation to perfectionism will be discussed. Intimate self-disclosure will be discussed in relation to restrictive emotionality and relational interdependent self-construal.

Perfectionism as a Theoretical Construct

Flett and Hewitt (2002) defined perfectionism as “the striving for flawlessness and extreme perfectionists are people who want to be perfect in all aspects of their lives” (Flett & Hewitt, 2002, p.5). Hewitt and Flett (2002) stated that there are multiple definitions of perfectionism, and if asked, leading researchers in this area are likely to respond differently when asked to define perfectionism. Hewitt and Flett believed that differences among scholars are likely to emerge because they emphasize different factors in its definition. Factors such as the negative and positive aspects of perfectionism influence how perfectionism is understood and empirically evaluated.

Hamacheck (1978) stated that perfectionism is a psychological term that is mysterious in nature. He stated that perfectionism can be normal or neurotic. He suggested that normal perfectionists focus on their strengths and are concerned about how to do things right. He believed that normal perfectionists are comfortable to be less precise when setting standards for themselves. They can modify their standards based on the ongoing demands of a particular situation. Normal perfectionists are better equipped emotionally to account for their limitations

and strengths while establishing standards for their performance. People who endorse normal perfectionism tend to be competent. Hamacheck implied that competent people were more successful in interpersonal relationships.

In contrast, neurotic perfectionists see themselves as never being good enough. They demand levels of performance that are not possible to achieve in a given situation. They constantly worry about weaknesses and are motivated by fear of failure rather than by a desire for improvement. Hamacheck believed that fear of failure among neurotic perfectionists leads to their endorsement of avoidant behaviors. Hamacheck speculated that avoidant behaviors that neurotic perfectionists engage in contribute to their need to be defensive in interpersonal situations.

Burns (1983) defined perfectionism as “the compulsive and relentless pursuit of goals that are unrealistically high.” Burns (1980) developed one of the first instruments to measure perfectionism. His scale attempted to capture when striving for impossibly high standards becomes problematic. Burns’ Perfectionism Scale essentially captures negative aspects of the construct of perfectionism.

Assessment of perfectionism: The multidimensional approach. The research on perfectionism has grown substantially in the past decades (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). Much of the early work in the area of perfectionism was based on the findings of Burns (1980). Burns identified 10 items from the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS; Weissman & Beck, 1978) that assessed perfectionism. In the early 1990s, two research teams independently developed two separate instruments to measure perfectionism. The measures of perfectionism were developed by Frost and colleagues (Frost, Marten, Lahart & Rosenblate, 1990) and by Hewitt and Flett (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a, 1991b). The instruments were developed based on different

conceptualization of perfectionism (Blatt, 1995). Empirical investigations that were conducted using these instruments provided sufficient evidence that perfectionism is a multidimensional construct.

Frost and colleagues (1990) started developing their multidimensional instrument - Frost's Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS; Frost, et al. 1990) in response to varied definitions of perfectionism in the empirical and conceptual literature at the time (Enns & Cox, 2002). The scale was developed based on the data obtained from 410 female undergraduate student-participants. New items were developed for this scale by Frost and colleagues. Some items that were incorporated in this instrument came from the existing measures of perfectionism. The FMPS scale consists of 35 items which are organized into six subscales. Participants respond to each item on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

A principal-factor solution for the FMPS yielded six distinctive factors that accounted for 64.5 % of the variance. The coefficients of internal consistency alphas were reported to be .88 for the Concern over Mistakes Subscale (CM; nine items, e.g., "I should be upset if I make a mistake"); .93 for the Organization Subscale (O; six items, e.g., "Neatness is very important to me"); .84 for the Parental Criticism Subscale (PC; four items, e.g., "I never felt I could meet my parents standards"); .84 for the Parental Expectations Subscale (PE; five items, e.g., "My parents wanted me to be best at everything"), .83 of the Personal Standards Subscale (PS; seven items, e.g., "I have extremely high goals"), and .77 for the Doubts about Actions Subscale (DA; four items, e.g., "Even when I do something very carefully, I often feel that it is not quite right").

The reliability of the total perfectionism score was .90. A total score was obtained by adding all subscales' scores except for the score for the Organization subscale. The scores on the

Organization subscale showed the weakest intercorrelations with the other subscales of the instrument. Frost et al. suggested that the Concern over Mistakes subscale was the most central component of perfectionism.

The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (HFMPs; Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Hewitt and Flett (1991b) included interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions with emphasis on the negative aspects of perfectionism (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). The Self-Oriented Perfectionism subscale of the HFMPs reflects self-demanding standards that individuals impose on themselves. Persons with high scores on the Self-Oriented Perfectionism subscale tend to evaluate their own behaviors and performances harshly (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Simultaneously, Hewitt and Flett asserted that self-oriented perfectionism includes a positive, motivational factor. Self-oriented perfectionists strive to attain perfection in their own activities and are motivated to avoid failure. They have an intrinsic need to be perfect and they desire to improve.

Socially-Prescribed Perfectionism reflects the needs of individuals to attain standards and expectations that are set by their significant others. Individuals who score high on the Socially-Prescribed subscale tend to believe that their significant others have unrealistic expectations for them and exert pressure on them to be perfect (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). High scores on the Socially-Prescribed Perfectionism subscale are proposed to lead to many negative emotional experiences. Since individuals believe that the standards that others inflict on them are unrealistic and hard to attain, they may meet significant others' demands with anger (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Alternatively, socially prescribed perfectionists can develop learned helplessness due to the difficulty of meeting other people's standards. They may experience anxiety and depression in response to significant others' burdensome expectations (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Hewitt and

Flett proposed that socially prescribed perfectionists fear negative evaluation and are committed to avoid disapproval from others.

Other-Oriented Perfectionism addresses beliefs and expectations that perfectionists may have for others. Other-oriented perfectionists set unrealistic demands for their significant others; they may place importance on having their significant others achieve an unrealistic level of perfection. Persons who score high on the Other-Oriented Perfectionism subscale of the HFMPs usually apply stringent criteria for evaluation of their significant others (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b). Hewitt and Flett (1991b) suggested that other-oriented perfectionists can experience lack of trust and feelings of hostility toward others.

Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, and Neubauer (1993) conducted a study that compared the FMPS (Frost et al., 1990) and the HFMPs (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). The relationship between these two instruments was addressed in this study. A sample of 553 undergraduate students (51% female and 49% male participants) participated and received course credit. The pattern of correlations for male and female participants was found to be identical, and they were therefore combined for analyses. The total perfectionism scores on the FMPS (Frost et. al, 1990) was significantly and positively correlated with the scores on the Socially-Prescribed Perfectionism Subscale ($r = .57, p < .01$), the Self- Oriented Perfectionism Subscale ($r = .49, p < .01$), and the scores on the Other-Oriented Perfectionism Subscale ($r = .28, p < .01$) of the HFMPs. The correlation between scores on the Personal Standards scale of the FMPS and the scores on the Self-Oriented Perfectionism Subscale ($r = .62, p < .01$) of the HFMPs were significantly greater than the correlations between the Personal Standards subscale of the FMPS and the Socially-Prescribed and the Other-Oriented Perfectionism subscales of the HFMPs.

Frost et al. (1993) hypothesized that the nine subscales from the FMPS (1990) and the HFMPMS (1991b) could be reduced to a smaller number of factors. A principal-factor solution was employed. A minimum eigenvalue of 1.0 was employed for initial factor extraction. The factor analysis produced 3 factors. These factors accounted for 67% of the total variance among the subscales. The third factor was found to have an eigenvalue close to the minimum criterion (1.05) so a subsequent factor analysis was conducted with two factors. Both orthogonal and oblique rotations yielded 2 distinctive factors. Factor 1- Maladaptive Evaluation Concerns had high loadings for the Concerns over Mistakes, Parental Criticism, Parental Expectations, Doubts about Actions subscales of the FMPS and the Socially Prescribed Perfectionism subscale of the HFMPMS. Factor 2 – Positive Striving had high loadings for the Personal Standards and the Organization subscales of the FMPS and the Self- Oriented Perfectionism and the Other-Oriented Perfectionism subscales of the HFMPMS.

Factor 1 appeared to reflect negative aspects of perfectionism. This factor conveys self-evaluative concerns of an individual. The subscales that were clustered together for this factor reflect personal concerns over mistakes and failures, other people's evaluations, and external criticism. Factor 2 appears to reflect positive aspects of perfectionism. This factor may be connected with the adaptive feature of personal motivation. People who score high on this factor may be successful achievers. Overall, the factor that represents maladaptive evaluation concerns was significantly related to depression and negative affect. The Positive Striving factor was related to positive affect and not related to depression (Ashby & Rice, 2002).

Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R, Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, & Johnson, 1996). Unlike the multidimensional perfectionism scales developed prior to the APS-R, which virtually assumed that perfectionism was a negative personality factor; the APS-R (Slaney et al., 1996)

was created to measure both potential positive and negative aspects of perfectionism. It was proposed that high standards and orderliness can capture the positive aspects of perfectionism. The core characteristic of negative perfectionism was defined by the concept of discrepancy. Discrepancy was defined by the researchers as “the perceived discrepancy or difference between the standards one has for oneself and one’s actual performance” (Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001, p. 133).

Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses (Slaney et al., 2001) revealed that the APS-R is a 23- item instrument which consists of three subscales: High Standards, Discrepancy, and Order. The High Standards subscale consists of 7 items; the Order subscale consists of 4 items, and the Discrepancy subscale consists of 12 items. Individuals respond to each item of the instrument using a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Cronbach’s coefficients alphas for the three subscales of the APS-R were .91 for Discrepancy, .85 for High Standards, and .82 for Order. The Discrepancy subscale scores were correlated with the High Standards subscale scores ($r = -.13$) and with the Order subscale scores ($r = -.19$). The correlation between High Standards subscale scores and Order subscale scores was .47.

The obtained intercorrelations between the scores on the subscales of High Standards and Order are indicative of a moderate overlap between these two subscales. The somewhat modest relationship between the scores on the Discrepancy subscale and the scores on the High Standards and the Order subscales provides some support for the conceptualization of perfectionism as a construct that consists of positive and negative dimensions. Given that little variance can be explained by the overlap between the subscales of Discrepancy and High Standards/Order, the negative and positive dimensions of perfectionism are virtually independent

(Slaney et al., 2001). The data obtained in this study provided initial support for the three subscales of the APS-R. In addition, empirical evidence was presented to support the notion that the scores on the High Standards and the Order subscales measure positive characteristics of perfectionism and the scores on the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R measures negative characteristics of perfectionism.

Overall, it has been shown that perfectionism is a multidimensional construct, which unites both positive and negative dimensions. Frost et al. (1993) found that the subscales of the FMPS (Frost et al., 1990) and the HFMP (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b) could be factored in two higher order factors: a Positive Striving factor and a Maladaptive Evaluation Concern factor. Slaney, Ashby, and Trippi (1995) included the subscales of the APS together with the subscales of the FMPS and HFMP and replicated the factor analysis which was done by Frost et al. (1993). Slaney and colleagues found support for a higher order two factors, which were named as adaptive and maladaptive dimensions perfectionism. The Standards and Order subscales loaded highest on the adaptive dimension whereas the Relationship and Procrastination subscales loaded on the maladaptive dimension of perfectionism.

Rice, Ashby, and Slaney (1998) investigated the relationships among perfectionism, self-esteem, and depression. Rice and colleagues utilized the APS and the FMPS to measure adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism. It was anticipated that the Standards and Order subscales from the APS and the Personal Standards and organization subscales of the FMPS would load on the adaptive perfectionism factor, and the remaining subscales from both instruments would load on the maladaptive perfectionism factor. A confirmatory factor analysis ($n = 489$) provided support for this assertion with the exception of the Procrastination scale, which loaded on both the adaptive and maladaptive factors.

Ashby and Rice (2002) utilized the APS-R to investigate the relationship between perfectionism and self-esteem. The researchers attempted to demonstrate that maladaptive perfectionism would negatively relate to self-esteem whereas adaptive perfectionism would positively relate to self-esteem. Two hundred sixty-two participants (82 men and 180 women) undergraduate students from a midsized Midwestern university participated in the study. The mean age of the participants was 21.7 years ($SD = 4.76$). The structural model was tested to determine the relationships between the perfectionism constructs and self-esteem. Each path from perfectionism to self-esteem was significant with the exception of the path from Order to Self-Esteem scales ($r = .06$). This path was eliminated from the model, and the model was estimated again. The newly formed model explained 44 % of the variance in self-esteem. In this model, the construct of self-esteem was significantly and positively predicted by the construct of the high standards of the APS-R ($r = .28$). The discrepancy construct was a significant negative predictor of self-esteem ($r = -.31$) (Ashby & Rice, 2002).

Ashby and Rice suggested that the results of this study offer some support for Hamachek's (1978) notion that perfectionism can be "neurotic" (maladaptive) or "normal" (adaptive). The discrepancy construct as measured by the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R was shown to be a maladaptive element of perfectionism. In this study the adaptive component of perfectionism was identified more specifically as it related to one's measure of self-esteem. A positive significant relationship was found between self-esteem and High Standards. Ashby and Rice stressed the importance of thinking about one's desire to hold high personal standards and strive toward them as a more positive, adaptive aspect of perfectionism.

Rice and Slaney (2002) conducted two studies on two different college campuses to delineate differences between clusters of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and

nonperfectionists using the APS-R, measures of emotional adjustment, cumulative university grade point average, and self-esteem. Two hundred fifty-eight undergraduate students participated in Study 1 (50 men and 205 women). The age of participants ranged from 17 to 48 years ($M = 21.20$, $SD = 4.37$). Eighty six percent of the students identified themselves as White/European American, 7% were Black/African American, 2% were Latino/Latina American, 2% were Asian/Asian American, 2% were Native American/ American Indians, and 1% was mixed race/ ethnicity. There were 375 undergraduate participants in Study 2 (290 women and 85 men) from a large university. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 51 years ($M = 20.29$, $SD = 3.49$). Ninety two percent of the sample were White/ European American, 2 % were Black/African Americans, 1% were Asian/Asian American, 2% were Latina/Latino American, 1% were biracial, and 2% identified themselves as other.

Cluster analyses yielded additional support for three clearly defined groups of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists based on the scores from the APS-R. The participants in the first two clusters did not differ on their scores on the High Standards and Order subscales whereas scores for the two subscales were significantly different for participants of the third cluster. The participants in the first and second clusters differed on their average scores on the Discrepancy subscale; with scores on the second cluster being higher. The participants in the first cluster were labeled adaptive perfectionists, the participants in the second cluster were labeled maladaptive perfectionists, and the participants in the third cluster were labeled nonperfectionists. The data obtained indicate that the differences between the adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists can be related to the differences that are found on the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R (Rice & Slaney, 2002).

Overall for the participants of Studies 1 and 2, the results for the dependent variables that capture degree of individual positive and negative adjustment were similar with the exception of participants' GPA. In Study 1, adaptive perfectionists' average GPAs were not significantly different in comparison with the average values of GPAs that were reported by maladaptive perfectionists. In Study 2, adaptive perfectionists reported significantly higher average scores for GPAs in comparison to scores reported by maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists. For both studies, adaptive perfectionists had higher scores on the positive adjustment measures including self-esteem and lower scores on negative adjustment measures than did the maladaptive perfectionists. Nonperfectionists had lower scores on positive adjustment measures than adaptive perfectionists. Their scores on measures of positive adjustment did not differ from scores of maladaptive perfectionists.

In Study 1, nonperfectionists obtained self-esteem scores that fell midrange between scores of the adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists. The difference was not replicated in Study 2. The nonperfectionists scored either midrange between the adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists on their scores for negative adjustment or their scores on measures of negative adjustment differed from maladaptive perfectionists but not from adaptive perfectionists. It is important to keep in mind that participants of these two studies were predominantly female undergraduate students from a major White/Euro-American culture.

Grzegorek, Slaney, Franze, and Rice (2004) utilized the APS- R to investigate differences in self-esteem and grade point average satisfaction among clusters of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionistic college students. Two hundred and seventy three undergraduate participants (72 men and 201 women) took part in this study. Participants ranged in age from 17 to 54 years old ($M = 19.87$, $SD = 3.27$); the majority of the sample (94 %)

reported ages between 18 and 22 years old. The majority of the sample (91 %) was White participants, 2.4% were African-American/ Black participants, 2.8 % were Asian American participants, and 3.8% were of other racial/ethnic groups.

Grzegorek et al. found that mean scores for adaptive perfectionists ($M = 34.62$, $SD = 4.72$) on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale were significantly higher than mean scores for maladaptive perfectionists ($M = 29.64$, $SD = 4.75$) and nonperfectionistic participants ($M = 29.79$, $SD = 5.14$). The mean scores for maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists did not significantly differ. It is notable that the mean values of self-reported GPA for clusters of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists did not differ significantly. Post-hoc Tukey tests demonstrated that adaptive perfectionists reported significantly higher satisfaction with their GPA than maladaptive perfectionists. While mean self-reported values of GPA for clusters of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists did not differ, maladaptive perfectionists were more dissatisfied with their GPA.

Perfectionism as a multidimensional construct: Summary. Several definitions of perfectionism have been presented in the past several decades. Overall, perfectionism was conceived as a striving for flawlessness. In the past decade, the multidimensional nature of perfectionism was established with three distinctive instruments: the FMPS (Frost et al., 1990), the HFMP (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b), and the APS-R (Slaney et al., 1996). The APS-R is characterized by virtually independent factors that capture positive and negative aspects of perfectionism. Discrepancy is a factor that measures the difference between the standards a person has for oneself and one's actual performance (Slaney et al., 2001). Discrepancy has been associated with negative or maladaptive perfectionism whereas one's desire to hold high personal standards and strive toward them has been associated with positive or adaptive

perfectionism. In studies with undergraduate male and female students, discrepancy was found to be a significant negative predictor whereas high standards was a significant positive predictor for a measure of self-esteem. Adaptive perfectionists tend to have higher scores on measures of positive adjustment while maladaptive perfectionists have higher scores on measures of psychological distress. Nonperfectionists, who score differently from adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists on the subscales of Discrepancy and High Standards, tend to relate to measures of positive adjustment or psychological distress in a less predictable fashion (Rice & Slaney, 2002). It was found that nonperfectionists tend to score between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists on measures of negative adjustment or their scores do not differ from scores for adaptive perfectionists on the measures of negative adjustment. In relation to their self-reported college grade point averages, adaptive perfectionists reported higher satisfaction with their grades while maladaptive perfectionists reported not being satisfied with their college grades. It is notable that the actual grade point averages for adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists did not differ (Grzegorek et al., 2004).

Adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists can be identified as three distinctive groups that tend to score differently on measures of positive functioning and negative adjustment. Obtained differences for three groups on the measures of positive and negative adjustment may be connected to distinctive personality characteristics associated with each type of perfectionism. It is conceivable that perfectionism type may relate to male undergraduate students' comfort, flexibility, and confidence with self-disclosure in an interpersonal context. The next subsection addresses how perfectionism may contribute to individual interpersonal style of functioning.

Perfectionism and Interpersonal Functioning

Habke and Flynn (2002) wrote a book chapter which addressed empirical findings and theoretical propositions in relation to the question “Do perfectionists experience interpersonal difficulties?”(p.151). Habke and Flynn noted that this question received less attention by scholars than the question addressing relationships between perfectionism and psychopathology. They reviewed available evidence and postulated that perfectionism has a strong interpersonal dimension. Blatt (1995) suggested that perfectionists may experience feelings of vulnerability and inferiority; they constantly attempt to avoid failure and gain approval from others. Individuals’ perfectionistic behaviors may be driven by their beliefs that they would not be accepted by others if they were not perfect. Perfectionists may attempt to avoid social interactions if they are fearful of rejection in relationships. Blatt believed that perfectionists may be oriented to distancing themselves from social relationships. Blatt, Quinlan, Pilkonnis, and Shea (1995) found that perfectionists who were self-critical were likely to form distant and superficial relationships with other people. Based on a review of a large number of studies, Blatt and Zuroff (1992) reported that individual high scores on a measure of self-criticism were associated with one’s unwillingness to self-disclose in relationships and one’s reluctance to give positive ratings to peers.

Habke and Flynn (2002) proposed that perfectionism has an interpersonal dimension that can contribute to difficulties in interpersonal interactions and relationships. They asserted that perfectionism can be expressed negatively in social interactions, can impact individual level of confidence in social interactions, and lead to one’s perception that other people in relationships are critical. Habke and Flynn stated that some advances were made in the area of research on perfectionism in the interpersonal context; however, Habke and Flynn saw a great need to

address new research questions related to interpersonal aspects of perfectionism. Specifically, they called for examining gender differences among perfectionist men and women and their interaction styles in relationships. Habke and Flynn noted that perfectionism in men appeared to be associated with higher levels of dominance whereas perfectionism in women is associated with higher levels of submissiveness. They suggested that it is important to examine if men and women indeed demonstrate different patterns of associations between perfectionism and interpersonal style, and whether individual interpersonal patterns tend to reflect gender sociocultural stereotypes.

Slaney, Pincus, Uliaszek, and Wang (2006) investigated the relationship between adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists and interpersonal problems by using the structural summary method for circumplex data. The participants were 279 undergraduate educational psychology students (205 women and 74 men) from a large, mid-Atlantic University. The mean age for men was 20.51 years ($SD = 3.73$) and 19.51 years for women ($SD = 2.22$). The authors identified groups of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists based on cluster analysis of the responses to the APS-R. The differences between these groups were examined on the Inventory of the Interpersonal Problems Circumplex (IIP-C; Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1990). The IIP-C is a two-dimensional circular model of interpersonal difficulties, which was constructed based on major interpersonal dimensions of personality. The version used in the study of the IIP-C consists of 8 octant scales that fit the circumplex. Cronbach's alphas for the octant scales in the study ranged from .75 to .85.

Slaney et al. (2006) obtained IIP-C profiles for adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists. The profiles of adaptive perfectionists and

nonperfectionists indicated that they were on average located in the exploitable (JK) octant, conveying a friendly-submissive interpersonal style. The profile elevation was low for both groups (elevation = $-.24$ for adaptive perfectionists and $-.14$ for nonperfectionists). The authors suggested that participants who were classified as adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists did not experience interpersonal stress; they were engaged in normative interpersonal behavior reflecting affiliation and cooperation in social functioning. Two homogeneous interpersonal clusters of maladaptive perfectionists were identified: hostile maladaptive perfectionists and friendly-submissive maladaptive perfectionists. Structural summaries for the newly identified groups were recalculated. The value of the elevation for Hostile Maladaptive Perfectionists was $.21$ and $.36$ for the group of Friendly- Submissive Maladaptive Perfectionists. The elevated profiles of the maladaptive perfectionists were indicative of interpersonal distress whereas the magnitude of elevation for two other groups was indicative of little or no interpersonal distress.

Given the data reported by Slaney et al. (2006), two groups of maladaptive perfectionists were identified with two types of personal problems. The Hostile Maladaptive Perfectionists were located in the Cold (DE) octant, suggesting that they had problems expressing affection/sympathy and difficulty maintaining close relationships. This group scored significantly higher than all other groups on Domineering, Vindictive, Cold, and Avoidant interpersonal problems. These identified characteristics fit into an overall hostile-dominant interpersonal style.

The Friendly-Submissive Maladaptive Perfectionists were located in the Exploitable (JK) octant, suggesting that they had problems expressing anger, wanting to be liked too much, and being too trusting of others. This group scored significantly higher than other groups on Nonassertive, Exploitable, overly Nurturing, and Intrusive personal problems. The researchers found significant gender differences among the types of interpersonal problems that were

experienced by maladaptive perfectionists. Based on the data obtained, it was found that 90% of friendly-submissive maladaptive perfectionists were females. For the sample of hostile maladaptive perfectionists the gender distribution was 37% men and 63% women. The gender distributions for both types of maladaptive perfectionists deviated from the sample gender distribution. The obtained gender breakdown for two groups of maladaptive perfectionists indicated that a higher number of the maladaptive perfectionistic males in the sample were identified having interpersonal problems associated with a hostile-dominant rather than with a friendly-submissive interpersonal style.

Perfectionism, fear of intimacy, self-esteem, and self-disclosure. Martin and Ashby (1996) studied the relationship between perfectionism and fear of intimacy. Two hundred college students (128 female, 82 male) participated in the study. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 33 years ($M = 19.86$). Martin and Ashby found that maladaptive perfectionists, as they were classified based on the APS-R (Slaney et al., 2001), obtained significantly higher scores than the nonperfectionists on the Fear of Intimacy Scale (FIS; Descutner & Thelen, 1991). Adaptive perfectionists obtained lower scores on the FIS than maladaptive perfectionists; however, the difference between scores obtained by maladaptive and adaptive perfectionists was not significant. The researchers were surprised that maladaptive and adaptive perfectionists did not significantly differ on their scores on the FIS. Martin and Ashby (1996) suggested that adaptive perfectionism might not be related to a given type of psychological difficulty like a fear of intimacy. Given the scarcity of published studies that addressed differences between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists in relation to their experiences of intimacy, it is important to exercise caution in making definite statements about adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists' experiences in close relationships. In addition, it may be beneficial to evaluate the construct

validity for the FIS and determine if this instrument captures fear of intimacy in all close relationships or in predominantly romantic relationships.

Overall, the study by Martin and Ashby (1996) provided some support for the finding that maladaptive perfectionists scored higher on the FIS in comparison with nonperfectionists. Further empirical investigations are needed to clarify how adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism may be associated with a fear of intimacy in close relationships. Descutner and Thelen (1991) believed that to achieve intimacy, a person needs to risk revealing one's vulnerabilities to another person in a close relationship. The process of revealing one's vulnerability often happens through a trusting self-disclosure (Dandeneau & Johnson, 1994). In sum, in light of the findings reported by Martin and Ashby (1996) it can be inferred that maladaptive perfectionists by scoring higher on the Fear of Intimacy Scale may be less open to engage in trusting self-disclosure.

One study by Kawamura and Frost (2004) was conducted that addressed the relationship between perfectionism and self-concealment. Self-concealment was defined as one's tendency not to disclose personal information that may be representing a person in a negative light to other people. Kawamura and Frost recruited 145 college students (29 men and 116 women). Participants ranged from 18 to 39 years of age ($M = 20.27$, $SD = 2.04$). They found that female college students who were identified as maladaptive perfectionists given the classifications produced by the FMPS (Frost et al., 1990) were unwilling to discuss college-related issues that were upsetting to them with their family members and friends. Maladaptive perfectionists tended to conceal from people that were close to them that they were struggling with personal issues even though their issues were similar to issues experienced by other students. The findings from these two

studies helped to inform hypotheses for the current study regarding self- disclosure and perfectionism.

It has been found that maladaptive and adaptive perfectionists differ on a measure of self-esteem. Ashby and Rice (2002) studied how perfectionism relates to self-esteem among a sample of 162 undergraduate participants (82 men and 180 women). The researchers found that the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R was a negative predictor of the global measure of self – esteem whereas the High Standards subscale of the APS-R was a positive predictor. The Order subscale of the APS-R was not a significant predictor of self-esteem. Consistent with other studies (Rice et al. 1998; Slaney and Ashby, 1996) discrepancy concerns and self-criticism were associated with maladaptive perfectionists whereas high standards were associated with adaptive perfectionists. Combining findings regarding self-esteem and adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism, it seems possible to conceptualize that maladaptive perfectionists may be at risk of experiencing higher levels of gender role related concerns associated with self-criticism, emotional openness, or achievement whereas adaptive perfectionists may be protected from higher levels of distress associated with low self-disclosure or gender role conflict related stressors.

Perfectionism and interpersonal functioning: Summary. There is emerging empirical evidence that adaptive perfectionism, maladaptive perfectionism and nonperfectionism are associated with different interpersonal styles and impact people's intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning in relationships (Habke & Flynn, 2002). The type of perfectionism and gender can be considered likely candidates for affecting interpersonal styles of individuals. For instance, maladaptive male perfectionists may experience difficulties in social relationships. This may take place because male maladaptive perfectionists are found to be associated with the dominant-

hostile interpersonal styles which lead to difficulties expressing affection, sympathy, and maintaining close relationships (Slaney et al., 2006). Maladaptive perfectionists may be having difficulties maintaining close relationships due to their fears of intimacy (Martin & Ashby, 1996). Maladaptive perfectionists may also be fearful of intimacy because they may be more oriented toward self-concealment rather than propelled toward self-disclosure (Kawamura & Frost, 2004). Adaptive perfectionists, like nonperfectionists, demonstrate low levels of friendly-submissive interpersonal style emphasizing affiliation and cooperation in their relationships (Slaney et al., 2006). Self-esteem along with perfectionism was identified as the intrapersonal factors that can play role in individual experiences of intimate self-disclosure in close same-sex friendships.

As it will be discussed in the consecutive subsections, male patterns of intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning can be understood in terms of self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal. There are different factors that can affect male intrapersonal and interpersonal experiences. Type of perfectionism is considered to be one of the factors that can potentially affect how male university students with close same-sex friends experience self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and the relational interdependent self-construal. It is shown in this subsection that adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists differ from nonperfectionists in terms of their thoughts, feelings, and actions as they relate to achieving flawlessness in all aspects of their lives. It is expected that these differences may be manifested in ways male adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists relate to this study's constructs. The following subsections will introduce the construct of friendship from a developmental perspective, self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal.

Friendship and Intimacy in Childhood and Adolescence

Friendships are important social voluntary relationships in children's and adolescents' lives. Krappman (1996) addressed children's views on the affirmation and termination of friendships, and delineated the developmental process that guides children's thinking about friendships. She stated that young people start thinking about friendships in early childhood. At that stage of development, children select their friends quickly. Often they seek and form friendships because other children maybe playing nearby with attractive toys. By late childhood, children start grasping that friendship is a mutual and reciprocal relationship. During preadolescence, children are better equipped to understand that friendships involve intimacy and trust. Krappman further asserted that children see friendships as voluntary social commitments.

Newcomb and Bagwell (1995) conducted a meta-analysis which included 82 studies that addressed how friendships were different from casual social relationships. The studies included participants from preschool age to early adolescence. The results of this meta-analysis revealed that children wanted to make friends with peers who were similar to them and treated them as equals in their friendships. Furthermore, children were interested in maintaining their friendships; they were invested in the process of conflict-resolution. Friendships were important to children because these relationships allowed for emotional exchange which in turn facilitated mutual liking, closeness, and loyalty. Newcomb and Bagwell asserted that the development of closeness and loyalty in early friendships becomes important for future functional and successful social relationships.

Asher, Parker, and Walker (1996) specified that the expression of intimacy requires mutual self-disclosure which they defined as an act of sharing private personal experiences, strong feelings, and thoughts that each friend might have. The researchers asserted that self-

disclosure requires a preexisting state of trust between friends. Children become more competent trusting their friends during early adolescence. Children who are unable to trust or who do not see friendships as safe venues for self-disclosure will have difficulties initiating and maintaining friendships with peers (Asher, Parker, & Walker, 1996).

Friendships are believed to be crucial for the acquisition of skills and competencies important for children's social, cognitive, and emotional development. Gottman and Mettetal (1986) analyzed children's conversations with their friends in their natural environments and identified a developmental progression of children's concerns and needs in their friendships. They found that in early childhood, children want to have many exciting activities which they attempt to experience through play. During middle childhood, children are more interested in being included by peers and trying to avoid being rejected in their relationships. In early adolescence, children become more concerned with the process of self-exploration and self-definition. They start practicing more self-disclosure in their friendships to recruit friends' help with problem-solving and advice-giving.

Buhrmester (1996) noted that children go through their own developmental changes which affect the development of their friendships. Buhrmester reviewed several studies and found that during early and middle adolescence friends become important to one another as confidants. To accommodate changes in friends' personal needs for self-disclosure to each other, friendships have to become more "talk focused" rather than "play focused" (Parker & Gottman, 1989). Teenagers need to learn how to initiate conversations with new people both in and outside of the classroom, feel confident in following-up with new friends, and make plans together. Given that friendships become great avenues for self-exploration and a source of emotional

support, teenagers need to learn how to self-disclose their personal thoughts to friends and provide empathic support for friends when needed (Buhrmester, 1996).

Buhrmester (1996) noted that early adolescence is a new developmental period in which teenagers develop interest and emotional capacity for adult-like intimate relationships with friends. She proposed that experiences during this period tend to shape gender differences as they relate to intimate self-disclosure and emotional support. She surveyed 200 teenagers, both girls and boys, ages 13-16 years old, about their interpersonal competencies. They were also rated by their friends and their mothers on five domains of interpersonal competence: negative assertion, relationship initiation, conflict management, self-disclosure, and emotional support. Buhrmester found that adolescent girls received higher ratings from themselves, their friends, and their mothers on all domains of interpersonal competence than adolescent boys. It is notable that overall ratings for adolescent girls were much higher than for adolescent boys on the domains of self-disclosure and emotional support. On average, girls reported scores roughly one standard deviation higher on self-disclosure and emotional support in their friendships than did boys. Buhrmester (1996) proposed that girls may have more opportunities to practice and refine self-disclosure skills in their friendships which prepare them to be more competent in their future relationships.

McNelles and Connolly (1999) examined the development of intimacy over time in close friendships of adolescent boys and girls for a period of three years. They recruited 309 primary school students in Canada (181 boys and 158 girls) and followed them from the ninth to twelfth grade. They found that an increased amount of self-disclosure reported by same-sex friends was associated with an increase in emotional intimacy. The strongest relationship was found between emotional intimacy and self-disclosure for all participants. McNelles and Connolly found that the

use of intimate self-disclosure increased in mid-adolescence. Gender differences were observed for boys and girls in relation to how self-disclosure was expressed in friendships. It was found that adolescent boys were more comfortable in intimate exchanges centered on activities with their same-sex friends.

Although same-sex friendships of females are consistently found to be more intimate in comparison with male friendships from early childhood to adulthood (Buhrmester & Prager, 1995; Dindia & Allen, 1992; Rubin, 1985), there is some empirical evidence that same-sex close friendships among male adolescents are longer-lasting. Benenson and Christakos (2003) interviewed 60 males and 60 females between 10 and 15 years of age regarding challenges in their current and past same-sex close friendships. They found that females' same-sex friendships were more short-lived than male same-sex adolescent friendships. Female adolescents reported that their lives would change significantly if their close same-sex friends were to leave them. Female adolescents reported having significantly more same-sex friends with whom they were no longer friends than male adolescents did. Overall, researchers found that males' closest same-sex friendships were longer-lasting than females' same-sex closest friendships. It was found that male same-sex adolescent friendships tended to exist within a larger group of friends.

Benenson and Christakos (2003) suggested that given the intimate nature of female adolescent same-sex friendships, they may be more susceptible to experiences of conflicts in their relationships. Alternatively, adolescent girls may not be invested in same-sex friendships the same way male adolescents are (Benenson & Christakos, 2003). There is some evidence that in comparison with males, female adolescents are more invested in relationships with their family members (Benenson, Morganstein, & Roy, 1998).

Friendship and intimacy in childhood and adolescence: Summary. A brief review of the literature on friendships in childhood and adolescence highlights the notion that friendships are important interpersonal voluntary relationships that children are eager to develop outside of their families. Friendships provide a developmental context for children's intrapersonal and interpersonal growth and maturation. Intimacy, trust, and commitment are important developmental milestones that children need to reach in their close friendships (Newcomb & Bagwell, 1995). Same-sex friendships can help children and adolescents to define their sense of personal identity, and in friendships they learn how to trust their peers and develop intimate relationships with them.

It appears that in early adolescence teenagers develop interest in and the emotional capacity for intimate self-disclosure and mutual support in same-sex friendships. Friends learn how to self-disclose vulnerable information to each other and how to give and ask for peer advice and guidance (Buhrmester, 1996). There is some evidence that male adolescents tend to experience intimacy through shared activities and maintain friendships of a longer duration with their closest male friends (Benenson & Christakos, 2003). It is notable that college-aged same-sex close male friendships are characterized by the pattern of intimate connectedness which is expressed through self-disclosure and shared activities (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982).

Friendships and Self-Disclosure in Young Adulthood

Young adult friendships are important components of people's personal relationships. Hays (1988) suggested that friendship can be defined as voluntary interdependence between two persons over time that is intended to facilitate social-emotional goals of the participants, and may involve varying types and degrees of companionship, intimacy, affection, and mutual assistance

(p. 391). Reisman (1983) has categorized friendships as (1) reciprocal relationships that are defined as emotionally close, committed long-term friendships, or (2) more casual, associated friendships that are based on shared roles and proximity. Furthermore, according to Rawlins (1992) friendships are relationships that are based on equality and require some degree of reciprocity to prosper. Samter (2003) reported that researchers found that both women and men identified the development of intimate connections in same-sex friendships as important goals. Both men and women reported that they valued trust in their relationships (Bell, 1981) and highlighted empathy and altruism as key components in their friendships (Fox, Gibbs, & Auerbach, 1985).

Friendships are of fundamental significance socially and psychologically. The primary goal of the interdependence between friends is social-emotional rather than instrumental. Friends seek and receive pleasure from friendly interactions themselves; they do not engage in friendly interactions just to achieve a specific outcome. When people were asked to define friendships in their lives, they highlighted enjoyment of a friend's company as an important component of its definition (Hays, 1988). Argyle and Furnham (1982) found that friends gravitate toward leisure activities such as eating, drinking, and talking, which they can share together. The social-emotive basis of friendship does not preclude friends from serving instrumental roles such as helping a friend to fix her or his car or to do his/her homework. People can help each other because they are friends, and they are not friends because they can be helpful to each other.

By studying people's same-sex experiences of intimacy, Helgeson, Shaver, and Dyer (1987) found that friendships are important sources of intimacy in people's lives. In fact, when Berscheid, Snyder, and Omoto (1989) asked 250 undergraduate students about their deepest, closest, most intimate relationships, 36% of the sample named a friend, 14 % of the sample

named a family member, 47% of the sample named a romantic partner, and 3% of the sample named others, mostly work relationships. The importance of intimacy in friendships is not limited to college age students. Sapadin (1988) asked adults in various professions to complete a sentence "a friend is someone ...". The most frequent response from both women and men was "... with whom you are intimate." (p. 396). The significance of intimacy in people's friendships also emerges from other empirical studies (e.g., Candy, Troll, & Levy, 1981; Fehr, 1996; Goldman, Cooper, Ahern, & Corsini, 1981; Park & Floyd, 1996).

Intimacy is the most salient component that helps separate close relationships from other personal relationships (Hays, 1988). Laurenceau et al. (2004), in a book chapter that describes intimacy as an interpersonal process, suggested that intimacy is initiated when an individual communicates personally salient and revealing information, thoughts, and feelings to another individual. Reis and Shaver (1988) stated that intimacy is an interpersonal process with two essential components: self-disclosure and partner responsiveness. Laurenceau et al. (2004) suggested that all operationalizations and definitions of intimacy tend to have at least one aspect in common: self-disclosure, a feeling of closeness developed via shared communication between people.

Jourard introduced a measure of self-disclosure, the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ), an objective and face-valid instrument (Jourard, 1964, 1971). Jourard found that disclosure of inner feelings and experiences to another person facilitates deepening of close relationships. Reis and Shaver (1988) stated that self-disclosure is only one of several facets of intimacy in relationships. Reis and Shaver suggested that most of the studies that look at intimate relationships utilize a measure of self-disclosure because it is an easily measurable self-report variable.

Self-disclosure is defined as the revelation of personal and private information about oneself, and it is a reflection of verbally intimate behavior (Prager, 2000). Self-disclosure helps people to experience relationships as positive (Hendrick, 1981). Self-disclosure enhances people's experience of intimacy in interpersonal interactions when it addresses more personal or private issues such as feelings, descriptions of significant events, and meanings attached to significant events. Self-disclosure was found to be positively correlated with needs fulfillment and relationship satisfaction (Prager & Buhrmester, 1998).

Self-esteem and self-disclosure. Dolgin, Meyer, and Schwartz (1991) studied how self-disclosure to best friends relates to self-esteem. The researchers found that in a sample of 99 female and 73 male White and middle-class undergraduate students, variable of gender interacted with a measure of general self-esteem. Post-hoc analyses revealed that women with relatively high general self-esteem disclosed more than other women. General self-esteem did not affect men's self-disclosure to their best friends. It is notable that males regardless of general self-esteem and women with low and moderate self-esteem disclosed equally. Given that the findings from this study are based on a small sample, it is important to exercise some caution for trying to use this conclusion for a hypothesis related to self-disclosure among perfectionist males.

Women's same-sex friendships are frequently portrayed as more intimate than men's same-sex friendships (Fehr, 1996). Women spend time in conversations with their friends that often focus on relationship issues, feelings and emotions, and other personal matters. In contrast, men's friendships are often activity-based. In addition, men's conversations tend to reflect themes of sports, work, or vehicles (e.g., Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Johnson & Aries, 1983; Wellman, 1992). Women's friendships are more likely to involve emotional support and physical

affection in comparison with men who tend to provide more practical support to their friends. In fact, men's friendships have been characterized as side-by-side relationships, with partners mutually oriented to some external activity or task whereas women's friendships are face-to-face relationships, with partners mutually engaged in generating personalized knowledge and being supportive of each other (Wright, 1982).

Friendships and self-disclosure in young adulthood: Summary. Same-sex friendships are important relationships in young adults' lives. They carry social-emotional functions in people's lives which are important for experiencing closeness, trust, empathy, and altruism in both men and women's lives (Hays, 1988). Friendships become important sources of intimacy after romantic relationships among college-age men and women (Berscheid et al., 1989). Intimacy in friendships could not be possible without intimate self-disclosure, a feeling of closeness between friends which is experienced through shared communication about personally sensitive topics. Self-disclosure has received much attention in the literature because it is an easily measurable construct of verbally intimate behaviors between people (Laurenceau et al., 2004). One's degree of self-disclosure can reflect one's level of intimacy in close human relationships (Prager, 2000). Self-disclosure does not capture all the aspects of intimacy, but it can capture a self-reported representation of a level of intimacy that a person can experience in close relationships (Reis & Shaver, 1988).

Friendships Among Men

Men's experiences with same-sex friends are quite diverse. Kupers (1993) noted that his male patients' experiences ranged from men who had a lot of friends in high school and college and lost track of them after graduation to men who were never able to sustain meaningful friendships with other men. Sherrod (1987) found that friendships of same-sex college males

lacked intimacy. In fact, male college students did not seek intimacy and disclosure in their same-sex friendships but companionship and commitment. Rubin (1985) suggested that college males achieve closeness through shared activities, and on the basis of shared activities they inferred intimacy in their friendships.

Same-sex male friendships have been thought of in terms of bravery, loyalty, duty, and heroism but not necessarily in terms of intimacy, trust, and nurturing (Hammond & Jablow, 1987). Intimacy and male friendships, however, were not always mutually exclusive constructs. Same-sex male intimate friendships were highly respected in Ancient Greece and during the period of Renaissance in Europe. Based on the information obtained from literary sources, Sherrod (1987) reported that educated Europeans 500 years ago as well as educated Greeks 2500 years ago valued intimate same-sex friendships. Rotundo (1989) reported that same-sex friendships of middle-class educated young males in 19th century Victorian America were based on shared thoughts and emotions as well as actions. The romantic nature of male friendships in middle-class 19th century America was explained by the fact that a word for homosexual was not in the nineteenth century vocabulary (Nardi, 1992). Rotundo suggested that in the Victorian era, a desire to touch, kiss, or embrace another male was thought of as a gesture of strong affection and not as much as a sexual expression. In the late 19th century as distinctions between homosexuality and heterosexuality became more prominent, the stigma attached to same sex-touch and intimacy grew. Rotundo (1989) stated that by the end of the 19th century, romantic friendship among males in America was gone.

Barriers to emotional intimacy between men. Lewis (1978) reviewed research on male friendships and suggested that competition, homophobia, aversion to vulnerability and openness, and lack of role models were the factors that prevented males from experiencing intimate

friendships. Lewis suggested that men inhibit affection that they may feel toward other males because our culture encourages males to compete for high socioeconomic status and social influence in society. Lewis noted that a strong awareness of fierce competition between males makes them less comfortable self-disclosing personal information even to their close friends. All males see themselves as potential rivals in an economic or social arena.

Reid and Fine (1992) interviewed a sample of 16 men (8 of them were married, 4 males were in romantic relationships, and 4 males were unattached) on the subject of the quality of their male and female friendships. The researchers found that the extent to which male participants self-disclosed to their male friends depended on the level of their involvement in romantic relationships. Married men seemed to disclose the least, while unattached single men disclosed the most to their male friends in the areas of personal views, money, and personality. This trend is repeated in relation to female platonic friends. Single men appeared to share more of themselves with their female friends.

Reid and Fine (1992) reported that in the follow-up interviews, men in intimate relationships seemed to be more aware of competitive aspects of their male friendships; they reported that in their experiences their same-sex male friends would not discuss personal issues with them. Single unattached men shared some concerns with reciprocity and acceptance in their same-sex friendships. The competitive nature of male experiences may impact their willingness to share feelings or personal details of their lives with other males. Men indicated that they were often concerned with the amount of disclosure from their male friends. They wanted their friends to disclose more about their lives in their friendships rather than have male friends who were comfortable listening to their problems. It appears that males wanted equal give and take interactions in their same-sex relationships. Reciprocity and concern with acceptance were also

the main concerns for male participants in a study of self-disclosure in friendships (Meth et al., 1990)

Lewis (1978) suggested that homophobia is another barrier to emotional intimacy between men. Lewis defined homophobia as fear of homosexuals or fear of one's being or appearing to be homosexual. MacCarthy (1989) suggested that homophobia serves as a potential inhibitor of affection and tenderness in male friendships because of homophobic cultural norms that exist in our society. Lewis believes that men are afraid to share intimate feelings with each other because they are fearful that it will taint their sexual identities. Men tend to accept being touched by other men only in the context of a contact sport. Males may have internalized pressures to avoid physical contact with their male friends as well as verbal intimacy (Reid & Fine, 1992). The fear of being touched by another male may be developed from many American males' difficulty in distinguishing between the sensual and the sexual (Lewis, 1978).

Lewis (1978) suggested that aversions to vulnerability and openness serve as other barriers to emotional intimacy among males in the American culture. Sexual stereotypes of males in American society proclaim that males are unemotional and do not cry. According to David and Brannon (1976) men have to convey confidence and self-reliance. Lewis implied that if a man is never to show any weaknesses with his friends, he is under the additional pressure of keeping his weaknesses, his errors, and his pains from them.

Lewis (1978) suggested that men do not know how to share affection with other men because they were not exposed to examples of affection-giving. Lewis conducted workshops on intimacy with male participants between 1975 and 1977; he was told by more than a half of the participants that they did not remember their fathers hugging them especially after they were older children. Lewis suggested that in our culture intimacy is allowed to be experienced by

males only in contexts of group games or organized sports. Without a game to play, men have difficulties relating to each other.

Herek (1987) coined the concept of heterosexual masculinity that involves such personal characteristics as independence, dominance, toughness, and success. The contemporary definition of heterosexual masculinity pushes heterosexual males to distance themselves from any behavior that may be deemed as homosexual, including emotionally close friendships with other men. Intimate contacts with male friends can stimulate fears of homosexuality (Prager, 2000). Low levels of intimacy in male same-sex friendships appear to reflect traditional gender-role norms that emphasize self-reliance, fearlessness, and lack of vulnerability. Men who embrace such standards tend to have difficulties in cultivating intimate friendships with other men. Men may envision that valuing friends too much may communicate their failure to be self-reliant, and wanting to be intimate with same-sex friends may communicate that they are failing to embrace masculinity as practiced in the American culture (Prager, 1995).

The quality and quantity of adult male same-sex friendships has been a subject of scientific inquiry in the past 25 years with emphasis placed on deficiencies in male friendships. It is notable that what is known about same-sex male friendships is derived from comparing them with women's same-sex female friendships (Grief, 2006). Grief suggested that same-sex male friendships deserved to be studied for their own sake and not in comparison to female same-sex friendships. Specifically, he designed and conducted a qualitative study in which 390 men from a metropolitan area in Maryland were asked to provide answers to 10 open-ended questions regarding their same-sex friendship experiences. Participants ranged from 21 to 85 years old with an average age of 38 years. No standard deviation was reported for the variable of age. The racial and ethnic demographics of this sample included 65% of White participants, 29% of African-

American participants, and the remaining participants identified themselves as Hispanic-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Arab-Americans. Participants represented all levels of educational achievement: 15% reported having high school education, 17 % reported completing some college courses, 34% reported having a college degree, and 34% reported attending or completing graduate school education.

Grief (2006) found that 90% of participants reported that friendships were important to them. Six out of ten men felt that they had enough friends; whereas, a quarter of all participants said that they did not have enough friends. Participants who did not have enough friends described that they had to balance family and work commitment and did not have time for friends. Other participants noted that they were not capable of initiating and maintaining male friendships because they considered themselves introverted and not comfortable with a “locker room scene” (Grief, 2006, p.11). Participants shared that they received and gave help to their friends by giving/receiving advice, giving/receiving encouragement, lending money, helping with moving or home repairs, providing companionship, and providing humor. Participants reported that friends had to be loyal, trustworthy, and dependable. Participants reported that it was important for them to know that they could confide in their friends about anything. Participants shared that it was important for them to know that their friends cared about them.

This study attempted to capture contemporary males’ views on the importance of male friendships, functions of friendships, and expectations of friends for each other from different age, educational, and professional backgrounds. Overall, this study demonstrated that male friendships are important sources of emotional support and companionship. While this study is an important attempt to include voices of participants from different age and educational backgrounds, the method of qualitative analysis was not reported in the study thus it is hard to

know how the themes reported in the study emerged. In addition, it is not clear whether the findings presented were confounded by variables of age and educational background factors.

Friendships among men: Summary. Historically, male friendships have been associated with bravery, loyalty, and heroism (Hammond & Jablow, 1987). At early points in Western civilization, male friendships were also characterized by shared emotional and physical intimacy. In the end of the nineteenth century males lost their freedom to enjoy intimacy in same-sex friendships when the concept of homosexuality was introduced in society (Rotundo, 1989). It appears that the introduction of homosexuality and the stigma attached to it has affected the closeness of male friendships until the present times.

In the late 1970s barriers to emotional intimacy in male friendships were identified as competition, homophobia, aversion to vulnerability, and lack of role-models in males' lives. Young men were not comfortable self-disclosing personally sensitive information to their close same-sex friends because they were concerned with showing weakness and not being accepted by their friends. Male social norms that were established in the society reinforced self-reliance, dominance, toughness, and success. These norms made it difficult for men to cultivate intimate connections in their same-sex friendships. The only context that provided opportunities for sharing emotional and physical intimacy with other males was the world of organized group sports (Lewis, 1978).

Male Versus Female Friendships

In the seminal questionnaire study by Caldwell and Peplau (1982), 49 female and 49 male undergraduate students at UCLA were surveyed about their interactions with same-sex friends. Participants were asked to consider their interactions with intimate, good, and casual friends. An intimate friend was defined as someone with whom a participant could communicate

and confide about personal feelings and problems. A good friend was defined as someone with whom a participant enjoyed doing things and talking about pertinent interests but not about very personal feelings and thoughts. A casual friend was someone with whom a participant engaged in enjoyable activities when time permitted.

Caldwell and Peplau posed questions for the participants regarding emotional sharing and shared instrumental activities with friends. Researchers coded responses that involved “just talking” or “doing some activities” as talk and activity responses respectively. Responses that involved both talk and activities categories were coded as activities. The researchers created an “other” category which included all other responses that could not be labeled as “just talking or doing some activities” (e.g., friends helping each other). All responses of participants were coded independently by two judges who achieved 95% in their initial agreement about all responses. Lastly, participants named three topics that they discussed with their best friends. Responses were coded into one of the four categories: personal, activities, people, and other. Personal responses were coded if participants discussed feelings, problems or something else of a personal nature such as goals and aspirations in life with their friends. Activity responses were coded if participants discussed activities of mutual interest with their friends such as sports, parties, music, or cars. Responses were coded as people if participants discussed family, friends or dating partners when there was no indication that participants experienced problems with the people discussed. Finally, all other responses were coded as others.

Based on the data collected, Caldwell and Peplau found that there were no statistically significant differences between men and women in the total number of same-sex intimate, good, or casual friends. Men, however, consistently reported having slightly more friends than women in all the categories. Based on the analysis of self-reported interactions with friends, the

researchers found that men and women did not differ significantly on the average number of hours (around 13) spent together with their friends weekly. Men reported getting together with a significantly greater number of friends ($M = 6.0$) than did women ($M = 4.4$) weekly. A sex-difference was found for same-sex interactions with best friends for men and women when they got together with their best friends just to talk. Women got together just to talk three times a week on average while men got together for the same purpose on average twice a week ($t(96) = 2.11, p < .05$).

Given these findings, the researchers implied that women might experience greater emotional sharing because they spent more time just talking with their same-sex friends. Moreover, based on the data gathered from direct questions regarding emotional sharing and activities with friends, it was found that both men and women wanted “intimate” friendships as they were defined by the authors of the study. A majority of men and women (73% and 82% respectively) preferred to have a few intimate same-sex friends rather than a greater number of good but not as intimate friends. Most men (61%) and women (63%) preferred spending much time with intimate friends, instead of seeing all types of friends.

Both sexes valued intimate friendships; however, men and women were found to want to engage in different types of activities with friends. In the study, 84% of men in comparison to only 42% of women preferred to engage in some activities with their same-sex friends. Over three times as many women in the study in contrast with men (57% vs. 16%) preferred just to talk with their same-sex friends. In addition, 57% of men in the sample and 39% of women preferred a same-sex friend who liked to do the same things rather than a same-sex friend who felt the same way about things. Women mentioned talking more often than men as the sole activity that formed the basis of their friendship ($t(96) = 2.80, p < .01$). Women listed personal

topics such as feelings and problems twice as often as men in their discussions with same-sex friends ($t(96) = 2.91, p < .01$). Women were significantly more likely to talk about other people than were men ($t(96) = 3.83, p < .001$). Based on the data presented, Caldwell and Peplau suggested that sex differences were evident in typical interactions with friends. Unlike men, women preferred spending time just talking with their same-sex friends. Men on the other hand demonstrated a preference for sharing activities with their same-sex best friends and talking to them about their activities. Women's friendships appeared to be guided toward personal sharing of information; men's friendships showed an emphasis on joint activities.

Roy, Benenson, and Lilly (2000) conducted a study to replicate and extend prior findings regarding similarities and differences for same-sex male and female friendships among late adolescents and young adults. Participants were recruited from a junior college and a graduate school in Montreal, Canada. The total of 170 students participated in the study. The junior college sample included 63 girls and 30 boys with a mean age of 17.71 ($SD = .06$) and 17.96 ($SD = .67$) respectively. The graduate school sample included 54 women and 23 men with a mean age of 27.88 ($SD = 7.42$) and 28.33 ($SD = 7.49$) years, respectively. The participants responded to an anonymous questionnaire regarding the quality of their close same-sex friendships, the level at which they would support a close friend during stressful times or celebrate with a close friend in a time of success.

Roy, Benenson, and Lilly (2000) found that females and males from both samples did not differ in the duration of their close friendships, or the number of times they saw or spoke with their close same-sex friends. Males and females from both age groups did not differ in their willingness to confront a friend in order to repair the relationship. In relation to trust, young adult males and females did not differ on their degree of trust in their close friendships. In a sample of

junior college participants, females differed from males on their willingness to trust their close same-sex friends. Female participants stated more often than male participants that they might trust their same-sex friends. Researchers found that female participants in a junior college sample were significantly more likely than male participants to express interest in spending time with their close friends for emotional support or celebration. Among participants from a graduate school sample, no gender differences were found in the willingness of female and male participants to spend time with their close friends in case a friend was unhappy about the ending a relationship or a job loss. Finally, in accordance with the researchers' hypothesis, female participants from both samples were significantly more likely than male participants to indicate that they would want to celebrate with a close friend if a friend was accepted to a university, received a job offer, or decided to get married.

This study provided additional empirical evidence that same-sex close friendships are equally important relationships for both male and female late adolescents and young adults. In relation to qualitative or quantitative measures of friendships, male and female participants did not significantly differ. One of the intriguing findings in this study regarding gender differences in same-sex friendships is that female participants were interested in celebrating their friends' life milestones more often than male participants. Roy et al. considered this finding in the context of the functionality of male friendships. It has been shown that male friendships are more activity-based, specifically sports-oriented. Competition with same-sex peers is one of the facets that presents in a sports-related activity. Benenson, Tricerri, and Hamerman (1999) found in a laboratory study with children that direct competition was one of the attractive features for male children in their activities. Although a celebration can be an activity-oriented process, and in principle it should be attractive to males, it may be that celebrating events like getting a job or

deciding to get married may evoke feelings of competition for male friends if they did not succeed themselves in these specific areas of life. It may be interesting to know whether male friends would be more willing to celebrate accomplishments of their close same-sex friends if they accomplished the same milestones themselves.

Gender differences in all aspects of close same-sex female and male friendships have been examined by researchers (Johnson et al., 2007). In general, findings showed that females reported having closer same-sex friendships than males (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1993). Fehr (2004) reported that women were more likely than men to regard self-disclosure as contributing to a sense of intimacy. However, Fehr specified that both men and women agreed that self-disclosure interactions are more likely to contribute to intimacy than interactions through shared activities. When men and women were asked to rank the quality of interactions that involved personal self-disclosure and shared activities, both women and men gave high ratings to interpersonal interactions that involved responsive self-disclosure and emotional support (Fehr, 2004). Increasingly, empirical investigations have challenged the notion that male same-sex close friendships are not as close as female same-sex relationships (Johnson, 2004). As males approach emergent adulthood, they shift their interest to closeness and intimacy for their friendships, and the difference between female and male same-sex friendships becomes smaller (Connolly et al, 1999).

Johnson et al. (2007) conducted a study to examine whether same-sex male and female friendships were different in terms of the degree of closeness that they share in their relationships. A total of 181 undergraduate students from a large Northeastern university (89 males, mean age = 19.81 years and 92 females, mean age = 19.78 years) took part in the study. The researchers found that male and female participants did not differ on the measure of

emotional closeness in same-sex friendships. Johnson et al. speculated that male and female emergent adults are more similar in their emotional needs in relationships, and as the result they report similar levels of emotional closeness in their same-sex close friendships.

Donchi and Moore (2004) examined the relationship between psychological well-being, online-based friendships, and face-to-face friendships among male and female adolescents and emergent adults. A sample of 336 participants from a secondary school and a university system in Melbourne, Australia took part in the study. The sample consisted of 114 males and 222 females, ages from 15 to 21. The mean age of the secondary school sample was 16.16 (SD = .077) years, and the mean age of the university sample was 18.55 (SD = 1.12) years. The participants filled out measures related to demographic variables, Internet use, social networks, loneliness and self-esteem.

Donchi and Moore (2004) found that male participants who reported more face-to-face friendships scored higher on a measure of self-esteem and reported being less lonely than male participants who reported having less face-to-face same-sex friendships. Researchers found that the number of face-to-face friends was the strongest predictor of loneliness and self-esteem. On the other hand, young men who rated their online friendships networks as very important were more likely to have lower self-esteem and to be lonely. The opposite was found to be true for young women's online and offline same-sex friendships. Online friendships were associated with higher self-esteem and lower degree of loneliness for young women.

A Developmental Approach to Gender and Relationships

Adult male friendships tend to be activity-oriented and sociable, rather than intimate (McCarthy, 1989). Notrius and Johnson (1982) proposed that male attitudes and behaviors toward same-sex friends can be understood from a model of gender-role socialization. Boys learn

inexpressiveness and avoidance of intimacy as an important part of masculinity. These traits are acquired primarily through modeling, and the lack of expressive/affectionate role models may contribute to an emotionally restricted approach to personal relationships among males.

Maccoby (1990) reviewed the existing conceptual and empirical literature on developmental accounts of gender and relationships. She proposed a developmental account of gender development in social situations based on Maccoby and Jacklin (1974). They addressed the psychology of sex differences from an individual differences perspective. Maccoby reviewed studies that were published in the consecutive 15 years after the book was written. Multiple social influences encourage independent ways of thinking, feeling and behavior among men since their early development. Maccoby suggested that both boys and girls start to interact in gender-segregated ways at age three. Maccoby reported that starting in the early childhood years, boys and girls engage in different kinds of activities and games. Boys' groups are characterized by competitiveness, rough-and-tumble play, and desire for dominance whereas girls' groups are characterized by intimate friendships, cooperation, and effort to maintain social relationships. Later on, girls were more often asked to help with child care than were boys, whereas boys were often asked to do tasks that provide them with more independence and freedom. Boys often played in big groups outside. Their games were rougher and took a lot of physical space whereas girls tended to aggregate in private homes and in backyards. Girls' friendships were more intimate from their onset while boys' friendships were more oriented toward mutual interests and activities.

Maccoby (1990) stated that as boys and girls became mature adults, their behaviors were often shaped by gender roles. Maccoby observed that women provided more social support to other people and often take care of relationships. Women and men ended up living in the context

of interdependence and independence respectfully. As a result, their goals, activities, plans, interactions, and values were continually shaped by different contexts. Assuming that men and women embraced traditional social gender roles, they were more likely to develop independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal respectively. The divergent self-construal contributes to different self-representations among men and women (Cross & Madson, 1997).

McCoy (1990) suggested that in male groups, the theme of dominance emerged fairly early. In boys' groups verbal expressions were typically more controlling. It is important to mention that boys' confrontational style did not inhibit group functioning as indicated by their ability to collaborate effectively in sports. McCoy believed that the male concern for turf and dominance translated into not showing weakness in front of other males which might lead them to develop their restrictive interactional style in dyads and groups.

Male versus female friendships and developmental approach to gender: Summary.

Researchers have continued to address whether female same-sex friendships are more intimate than male friendships. A multitude of studies point to female friendships as more intimate; however, both men and women agree that self-disclosure and emotional support are important components of intimate friendships (Fehr, 2004). Both men and women endorsed definitions of close/intimate friendships, good friendships, and casual friendships in the seminal study by Peplau and Cadwell (1982). Close friendships are important relationships where friends can communicate and confide personal feelings and problems whereas in good friendships friends tend to share activities together but do not disclose sensitive information to each other. Men and women are both interested in having intimate friends (Peplau & Cadwell, 1982; Roy et al., 2000). There is some recent empirical evidence that male and female close friends share more similarities in friendships. Recent data showed that male close friends may be more interested in

engaging in intimate self-disclosure with their friends (Johnson, 2007). It is notable that they may not be open to sharing celebrations with their close friends. One hypothesis which may require future investigation predicts that male close friendships may be impaired by competitiveness between friends (Roy et al., 2000).

Male attitudes and behaviors in their close same-sex friendships can be viewed from a developmental perspective. Boys and girls tend to develop their interpersonal styles in gender-segregated ways. Maccoby (1990) asserted that in the context of socially-established gender-normed behaviors (1) boys are encouraged to develop independence, competitiveness, risk-taking and dominance and directed to physically-oriented outdoor activities (2) girls, on the other hand, demonstrate a propensity for or directed toward more intimate interactions; they spent time playing indoors and cooperating rather than competing with their friends.

Given that this study focuses on male same-sex friendships, the logical question may arise why discussion about male versus female friendships is included in this chapter. It appears that historically, male friendships have been studied in comparison with female same-sex friendships. It would be hard to learn about the nature of male sex-friendships without addressing comparative studies between males and females.

In addition, what has emerged from comparative studies is that men want to have close friendships where they can experience intimate self-disclosure and emotional support in the same fashion as women do. An important question remains as to why males still have difficulties implementing their preferences for intimate self-disclosure and emotional support in their same-sex friendships. There is a consistent support that being a male evokes a whole set of socially-established norms for one's functioning that regulates all aspects of intrapersonal and interpersonal style in relation to friendships or other relationships. Although it was my intention

to highlight issues from the existent literature associated with gender-role related aspects of intimate self-disclosure in college-aged male same-sex friendships, the empirical focus in this study in relation to self-disclosure is on the contribution of perfectionism to experiences of self-disclosure in close same-sex male friendships.

In light of literature presented in this subsection, it is clear that more research questions need to be addressed in the area of intimate self-disclosure as it pertains to male same-sex friendships. Yet, it is important to highlight that our understanding of male same-sex close friendships is far greater than our understanding of close same-sex friendships among male perfectionists. In my view, it appears that concentrating on how perfectionism relates to self-disclosure in same-sex male friendships can directly address a dearth of information regarding the interpersonal functioning of college-aged perfectionistic males. To my knowledge, no empirical studies have been conducted up to date that addressed friendships among male perfectionists. In the same time, close same-sex friendships are important relationships in males' lives (Fehr, 1996). The aim of this study is to honor this importance and learn something meaningful about intimate self-disclosure among adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists in relation to nonperfectionists. The next subsection will present gender role conflict, which is another construct that has not been studied in relation to perfectionism.

Gender Role Conflict: Fear of Femininity in Men's Lives

O'Neil (1981b, 2008) reported that the late 1970s and early 1980s were recognized as the times when males became aware that they suffered from gender role socialization and sexism. Understanding gender-role conflict among males became important for reducing oppressive forces in men's lives. O'Neil suggested that gender roles are behaviors, expectations, and roles defined by society as masculine or feminine. Gender-specific behaviors became

internalized in the behaviors of men and women and identified as culturally appropriate. Gender role conflict was defined as “a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others” (O’Neil, 1981b; p. 203).

O’Neil (1981b) offered several assumptions about gender role conflict in people’s lives; specifically, he suggested that gender role conflicts occur when intractable gender roles learned during gender role socialization prohibit persons from fully realizing themselves. When people have restrictive gender roles, they are not free to fully express themselves. In fact, if individuals embrace these restrictive norms, they tend to reinforce them for themselves and others. Individuals are vigilant about adhesion to rigid gender norms; they may punish and devalue others who deviate from socially ordained gender-role behaviors. Individuals who choose to embrace their own ideas about appropriate gender role behaviors often are not appreciated by society. People who choose to deviate from established gender role behaviors may experience varying degrees of anger from individuals who restrict other people’s gender values, attitudes, and behaviors (O’Neil, 1981b, p.204). In cases when these intense emotions are internalized, one may devalue oneself or experience heightened anxiety, anger, and depression.

O’Neil (1981b) suggested that the masculine mystique and value system needs to be defined and analyzed in order to define how gender-role socialization has contributed to gender role conflict for males. The masculine mystique and value system consists of a complex set of values and beliefs that define masculinity in society. These values and beliefs are learned during early socialization and are based on intractable gender role stereotypes and beliefs about men and masculinity. Although our culture has benefited from the accomplishments of men who adhered to their gender roles, it has been recognized recently that the influence of masculine values has been detrimental to men, women, and children. Most men have been affected by the masculine

mystique, but the amount of negative effect will vary from man to man depending on his social class, race, ethnicity, and early socialization.

According to O'Neil (1981b), the masculine mystique integrates the following values: (1) men are biologically superior to women; (2) masculinity is a more dominant and valued form of gender identity; (3) masculine power, dominance, competition, and control are critical in proving one's masculinity; (4) vulnerabilities, feelings, and emotions in men are signs of femininity and are to be avoided; (5) interpersonal communication that highlights human emotions, feelings, insights, and physical contact is considered feminine and to be avoided; (6) sex is the primary way of proving one's masculinity and affectionate, sensual, and intimate behaviors are considered feminine and less valuable; (7) vulnerability and intimacy with other men are to be avoided due to competition among males and fear of homosexuality; (8) men's work and career accomplishments are measures of their masculinity; and (9) men are superior to women in career abilities and therefore are more suited to fill the role of breadwinner in the family whereas women are more suited to become caretakers of home and children (O'Neil, 1981b).

O'Neil believed that the values of the masculine mystique betray men because they deny them the right to express their femininity, an essential part of men. Fear of femininity is defined as a strong, negative emotion associated with feminine values, attitudes, and behaviors. The devaluation of femininity depends on males' early gender role socialization, age, race, and social class; however, men become aware very quickly that femininity is devalued in our society. Males see females being devalued by other men and try to avoid being devalued themselves. The cost of showing one's emotional affectionate side to others can be high for men. They risk being ridiculed, devalued, and disrespected.

O'Neil (1981b) identified six patterns of gender role conflict that emerge from the fear of femininity and devaluation of feminine values: (1) restrictive emotionality, (2) socialized control, power, and competition, (3) homophobia, (4) restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior, (5) obsession with achievement and success, and (6) health care problems.

Restrictive emotionality. This construct was defined by Skovholt (1978) as difficulty in appropriately expressing one's feelings. O'Neil (1981b) suggested that restrictive emotionality leads to experiences where people are denied their rights of emotional expressiveness. O'Neil stated that restrictive emotionality in males implies that men would have difficulties expressing feelings openly, giving up emotional control, and allowing themselves to be vulnerable with themselves and others. O'Neil believed that these emotional deficits would lead to difficulties in being able to self-disclose, being in touch with feelings, and being emotionally present for other people in close relationships. Men restrict their emotions because they are afraid that their emotional expressions will be associated with femininity. Men are afraid to not appear masculine in light of the values of the masculine mystique. O'Neil suggested that men mistakenly assume that emotions are expressions of femininity and not a part of human experience for both men and women. Men believe that being emotionally expressive is a sign of weakness and dependency, which needs to be avoided at all cost. Men assume that interpersonal communication that involves intuition and feelings is feminine. Males also assume that revealing inner fears and conflicts portrays them as immature and unmanly.

O'Neil (1981b) reported that gender role socialization encourages women and men to endorse two distinctive styles of interpersonal communication that are often conflicting in nature. Unlike women who have been encouraged to pay attention to the subjective, emotional, and intuitive aspects of interpersonal exchange, men are brought up to value the content of

interpersonal communication. They are trained to pay attention to the logical, rational, and factual aspects of interpersonal exchange. When these two styles interact, women may use their emotions to understand and exercise control in relationships whereas men may use reason and logic to advance their arguments and stay in charge of a verbal exchange. Men learn to appreciate the content of a conversation and not the process of it. O'Neil emphasized that both content and process of human communication are necessary for a full- functioning intimate human relationship.

Socialized control, power, and competition. Many men are socialized to endorse controlling behaviors that relate to power and competition (Pleck & Sawyer, 1974). O'Neil (1981b) defined control as a way of regulating, restraining, and having various situations under one's influence. He defined power as one's authority and one's influence over others whereas a competition is an act of striving against others to gain something or establish one's superiority in given situations. Control, power, and competition are believed to be central aspects of masculinity. Control and power are important for one's experience of a positive self-image.

Men learn to compete for power and influence at home, school, or work. From childhood, men learn that power is important for controlling others. Some men have learned to handle their interpersonal problems in relationships by using control, power, and interpersonal competition as a way of establishing one's superiority in a relationship. Some men may have difficulties giving up power in relationships for fear of appearing unmanly or feminine. The cost of presenting oneself as powerful, dominant, competitive, and controlling in interpersonal relationships appears to be high since men who are deeply concerned with controlling their interpersonal relationships lose interpersonal and emotional flexibility. In unstructured interpersonal situations, they do not have emotional resources to be vulnerable, spontaneous in

their emotional reactions, and let their intuitive selves emerge. O'Neil believes that such characteristics of emotional functioning are important for open communication, interpersonal conflict management, and intimacy in interpersonal relationships.

Homophobia. Another gender role conflict pattern that is presumed to negatively affect male same-sex relationships is homophobia. Morin and Garfinkle (1978) defined homophobia as a belief system that supports negative stereotypes about homosexual people. Fear of femininity is assumed to be central to understanding male homophobia. Feminine behavior among men is labeled homosexual and threatens men and their masculine roles. Homophobia captures males' fears about their interpersonal or sexual attraction to other men. This leads to heterosexual men wanting to suppress all feminine, interpersonal, and intimate impulses and reactions toward other males (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). O'Neil (1981b) reported there was no sufficient empirical evidence to support a claim that homophobia prevents interpersonal and emotional intimacy between heterosexual men, but it was assumed that homophobia is an important barrier to male self-disclosure, partnership, and physical affection.

Restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior. This gender role conflict pattern results in limited ways of expressing one's sexuality and affection toward others. Fear of femininity prevents men from fully expressing themselves in sexual and affectionate interpersonal situations. O'Neil (1981b) suggested that men who were socialized into the world of the masculine mystique were encouraged to value restricted vulnerability, minimum self-disclosure, and limited expression of feelings. Stereotypically, some men see sex as intellectually and emotionally separated from intimacy, sensuality, and love. O'Neil stated that in heterosexual relationships, men and women often tend to experience conflicts and misunderstandings because men are not able to communicate feelings, forsake emotional control, experience intimacy and

sensuality, and show vulnerability in their interpersonal- sexual experiences. Men may see these interpersonal characteristics as feminine and conflicting with their view of masculinity.

Obsession with achievement and success. O'Neil (1981b) defined this gender role conflict pattern as men's preoccupation with work where accomplishments are seen as a way of augmenting their masculinity and personal value. Fear of femininity may contribute to men's desire to treat their professional responsibilities as the most important in their lives. O'Neil believed that men are brought up to associate masculinity with competition, achievement, success, status, wealth, power, and influence. In contrast, femininity is associated with cooperation and lack of assertiveness, achievement, power, influence, and wealth. Thus, men are motivated by the need to achieve and succeed so that they can avoid being labeled feminine.

O'Neil (1981b) believed that men's obsession with professional achievement, competition, and success may reflect their desire to prove their masculinity. In order to achieve success in their professional lives, men need to compete with other men by using power and demonstrating competence. In some instances, men's desire for success is accompanied by strong and persistent fears of failure or workaholic behaviors to avoid failure. Men who express their self-worth through professional success are vulnerable to experiencing intense pressure to succeed. Some men need continuous success to prove their masculinity.

Health care problems. O'Neil (1981b) suggested that the inflexibility of the male gender role and some stereotypical assumptions about men's superhuman physical potential lead them to pay less attention to their acute and chronic physical symptoms. O'Neil observed that many men are socialized to ignore any health problems in order to pursue their tasks and accomplishments. Men tend to avoid accepting that they may have health problems because being ill means being helpless, dependent, and vulnerable in front of others. Stereotypically, femininity is associated

with these characteristics. Men are heavily invested in avoiding being labeled feminine. In addition, men are socialized to keep their feelings and stresses to themselves. Goldberg (1977) believed that men experience a lot of stress in their lives because they overuse intellectualization instead of expressing their feelings directly. Also, men subscribe to rigid masculine value system and feel guilt if they do not measure up to the male gender role as prescribed by society.

Gender role conflict: Summary. The concept of gender role conflict emerged in the beginning of 1980s and has become an important vehicle for understanding how socially-propagated male gender roles have negatively impacted men's psychological functioning or the functioning of others whose lives are directly affected by men. To understand how gender role conflict can interfere with self-realization of males, the theory of masculine mystique was introduced (O' Neil, 1981b). The masculine mystique incorporated multiple values associated with masculinity. In its core, masculinity was a more preferred form of gender identity; everything that was associated with femininity such as human emotions, feelings, insights, and physical affection needed to be avoided. Vulnerability and affection were considered feminine values and were unacceptable for men. Fear of femininity was a major motivator for men to maintain the gender role conflicted patterns: restrictive emotionality, socialized control, power, competition, homophobia, and restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior, obsession with achievement and success, and health care problems. Restrictive emotionality directly interferes with interpersonal functioning of men in same-sex or cross- gender relationships. Men who have high concerns in relation to restrictive emotionality tend to have difficulties expressing feelings openly, giving up emotional control, and allowing themselves to be vulnerable in close relationships. Males who endorse high levels of restrictive emotionality tend to be less self-disclosing in close relationships and preventing other people from opening up emotionally. Also,

high concerns with success, power, and competition leads to avoidance of any signs of vulnerability in social relationships, minimizing sensitive self-disclosure and practicing limited expression of feelings (O'Neil, 1981b).

Gender role conflict and male social behavior: Twenty five years later. In the past several decades, social scientists have been addressing slowly but consistently how males' expected gender roles affect their thoughts, feelings, and actions in terms of theoretical understanding and clinical applications. Counseling psychology was one of the first disciplines that recognized the significance of the psychology of men and masculinity (O'Neil, 2008). A multidimensional variable of gender role conflict has been implicated in the intrapersonal and interpersonal difficulties resulting from the stress associated with male gender role socialization (Pederson & Vogel, 2007). Gender role conflict is associated with increased depression and anxiety (Blazina, Pisecco, & O'Neil, 2005), decreased willingness to seek counseling services (Good & Wood, 1995), higher level of alcohol use (Blazina & Watkins, 1996), vocational dissatisfaction (Dodson & Borders, 2006), and dissatisfaction and intimacy problems in romantic heterosexual relationships (Rochlen & Mahalik, 2004; Schwartz, Waldo, & Higgins, 2004). In spite of increased attention to the area of gender role conflict and male interpersonal functioning, many questions remain to be addressed about gender role conflict in relation to personality research and self-disclosure in the context of relationships with other men (O'Neil, 2008). Several peer-reviewed research and dissertation studies that examined questions related to gender role conflict, male friendships, self-disclosure, and interpersonal patterns are presented in the consecutive paragraphs.

Sileo (1995) conducted a dissertation study in which he examined the relationship between gender role conflict, intimacy and closeness in same- sex male friendships. He recruited

150 Caucasian males from 25 years to 70 years of age who completed paper and pencil instruments and returned them to the principal investigator by mail. Sileo utilized the Gender Role Conflict Scale - I (O'Neil et al., 1986) in the study. Utilizing two stepwise multiple regressions, binary and canonical correlation analyses, Sileo (1995) found that scores on the subscales of Success, Power, Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men were inversely significantly correlated with scores on dependent variables of intimacy and close friendships as were measured by an Intimacy Scale and the Close Friendship Scale whereas scores on the subscales of Conflict Between Work and Family Relation did not correlate with the scores on the respective dependent variables. Sileo (1995) found that restrictive emotionality, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, success, power, and competition significantly contributed to the variance in intimacy while conflict between work and family relation failed to contribute to the variance of intimacy. In relation to the measure of close friendship, restrictive emotionality and affectionate behavior between men were significant contributors to its variance. The relationship between restrictive emotionality and intimacy accounted for most of the variance. This study highlights the importance of restrictive emotionality as a factor that appears to affect males' experiences of intimacy in their close friendships. Given that this study included males from various age groups, it is not clear whether the findings of this study were not confounded by the variable of age. It seems notable that restrictive emotionality during early adulthood does not relate to intimacy the same way during advanced adulthood.

Another dissertation study conducted by Swenson (1999) looked into how male self-disclosure about personal topics was impacted by gender role conflict. Eighty-five men, ages 20 to 60 years old participated in the study. The Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (O'Neil et al., 1986)

was utilized in this study to assess participants' gender role conflict. Self-disclosure was measured by the Jourard Self-Disclosure Scale (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958). Swenson found that men who reported self-disclosing more about personal topics scored lower on the subscale of Restrictive Emotionality of the GRCS-I and were younger.

Sharpe and Heppner (1991) found that for a sample of 190 male undergraduate students, three subscales out of the four subscales of the GRCS-I (O'Neil et al., 1986) were negatively correlated with a measure of self-esteem (The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Coopersmith, 1967). The negative significant correlations were: Restrictive Emotionality ($r = -.20, p < .01$), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($r = -.23, p < .01$), and the Conflict Between Work and Family Relations ($r = -.30, p < .001$) of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (O'Neil et al., 1986). The correlation between the Success, Power, and Competition subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale and the measure of self-esteem was not significant ($r = .02$).

Mahalik (2000) thought that males who internalize traditional gender role patterns may be oriented toward unemotional and uncommunicative interpersonal patterns in relationships or exhibit propensity toward dominant interpersonal behaviors. Mahalik noted that it may be important to understand how different aspects of gender role conflict relate to the essential aspects of interpersonal behavior: need for control and need for affiliation. He examined how gender role conflict was associated with self-rated behaviors on the Interpersonal Circle. One hundred and one participants from a large eastern U.S. university took part in the study. The mean age of participants was 21.5 years of age ($SD = 7.77$). The Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (O'Neil et al., 1986) was used to measure four dimensions of the gender role conflict: success, power, and competition; restrictive emotionality, restrictive affectionate behavior between men, and conflict between work and family relations. The Checklist of Interpersonal Transactions-

Revised (CLOIT- R; Kiesler, 1984, 1987) was used to operationalize interpersonal behavior on the Interpersonal Circle. The inventory consists of 96 items and produces 16 scores corresponding to 16 categories on the Interpersonal Circle: dominant, competitive, mistrusting, cold, hostile, detached, inhibited, unassured, submissive, deferent, trusting, warm, friendly, sociable, exhibitionistic, and assured.

A canonical correlation analysis was performed to evaluate the degree of association between four subscales of the GRCS-I and 16 types of interpersonal behavior on the Interpersonal Circle. Significant associations were found between three subscales of the GRCS-I and the following aspects of the Interpersonal Circle. It was found that scores on the Success, Power, and Competition subscales of the GRCS-I were significantly positively associated with Dominance and Hostility on the CLOIT-R including dominant, competitive, mistrusting, cold, hostile, detached, exhibitionistic, and assured interpersonal behaviors. There was a specifically strong relationship between success, power, and competition, and interpersonal rigidity. The Restrictive Emotionality subscale was positively significantly associated with the Hostile-Submissive Quadrant including detached and inhibited interpersonal behaviors. Male participants' scores on the subscale of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men were significantly positively related to the Hostile-Submissive Quadrant Scores including mistrusting, detached, inhibited, and submissive segment scores.

Overall, three subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale can be understood from a two-dimensional interpersonal model where success, power, and competition can be located along the dominant-submissive facet of the Interpersonal Circle and restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men is situated along the hostile-friendly facet of the Interpersonal Circle. Mahalik suggested that the obtained results in this study provided some evidence for the

importance of integrating research in the area of gender role conflict with research on intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects of individual male functioning. He noted that researchers may need to focus on how gender role conflict influence males' interpersonal functioning in their relationships. He asserted that gender role conflict leads to internalized interpersonal styles which manifest themselves in male relationships in everyday life as well as affect male responses to therapeutic processes and outcomes.

Pederson and Vogel (2007) conducted a study in which they explored how gender role conflict affects college-age male's willingness to seek psychological services. Specifically, Pederson and Vogel examined whether three mediators (self-stigma associated with seeking psychological counseling, tendency to disclose stressful information, and attitudes toward seeking counseling) could explain the impact of gender-role conflict level on college-aged males' willingness to seek counseling. The Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (O'Neil et al, 1986) was utilized to measure one's level of gender role conflict. A total of 575 male students from a large Midwestern university participated in the study. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 40 years old: 70.6% of the sample was between ages of 18 and 20 years. The majority of the sample (90.4%) was identified as European-Americans.

The partial mediation model was evaluated using the structural equation modeling (SEM) and the bootstrap procedure (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The maximum likelihood method in LISREL Version 8.54 was used to specifically test the hypothesized partially mediated structural model. The structural model provided a good fit for the data: chi-square (97, N = 575) = 370.14, $p < .01$. The bootstrap procedure was used to examine the significant level of indirect effects for the mediation model. In this procedure, the mediated pathways from gender role conflict through self-stigma and help-seeking attitudes to willingness seek counseling ($b = .37 \times -.65 \times .56 = -.14$)

and from gender role conflict through self-disclosure and help-seeking attitudes to willingness seek counseling ($b = -.42 \times .21 \times .56 = -.050$) were significant.

Overall, gender role conflict, self-stigma regarding seeking counseling, and self-disclosure explained 53% of the variance in attitudes toward seeking psychological counseling. Consequently, gender role conflict and attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help explained 29% of the variance in willingness to seek counseling by male college students. The results of this study provided empirical support for the widely presented theoretical assertion that gender role conflict may contribute to males' lesser willingness to seek counseling for psychological and interpersonal concerns. This relationship was found to be associated with college-aged males' level of discomfort with self-disclosing vulnerable information as well as with their degree of self-stigmatization in terms of seeking help.

Although this study does not directly address issues of gender role conflict and interpersonal functioning of college-aged males in close same-sex friendships, this study is included here to highlight the importance of the impact of gender role conflict on college-aged males' willingness to self-disclose personally sensitive information in the context of a psychotherapeutic relationship, which is another example of an intimate relationship. Self-disclosure has been recognized as a key aspect of intimate relationships (Hays, 1988). In my view, disclosing sensitive information or asking others for help whether in therapeutic relationships or in close same-sex friendships may evoke males' fears of demonstrating their vulnerabilities in interpersonal context. Pederson and Vogel (2007) stated that self-disclosure and self-imposed stigma regarding seeking help has been a consistent product of male gender role socialization, and it has significantly contributed to males' reluctance to seek professional help in

spite of increased efforts of social scientists to raise awareness of the negative impact of traditional patterns of male gender role normative behaviors (Pederson & Vogel, 2007).

Gender role conflict - twenty five years later: Summary. In the past two decades theoretical and empirical advances have been made in understanding how male gender role conflict impacts the lives of men. In spite of persistent calls for a change of rigid socially-prescribed gender role patterns for men, gender role conflict continues to negatively impact the lives of men (O'Neil, 2008). The featured studies cited in this subsection found strong associations between gender role conflict and measures of psychological distress. In relation to gender role conflict, male same-sex friendships, intimacy, self-disclosure, and interpersonal problems a few interesting findings emerged in the last decade. Increasingly, restrictive emotionality has been shown to play an important role in male experiences of intimacy and self-disclosure in same-sex friendship. It was found that restrictive emotionality could explain the highest proportion of variance in the construct of intimacy in same-sex male friendships (Sileo, 1995) as well as lower scores on restrictive emotionality predicted higher scores on the measure of self-disclosure in male friendships (Swenson, 1999) .

Relationships between four facets of the gender role conflict and 16 segments of the Interpersonal Circle revealed important interpersonal patterns for college-aged males. As it was expected, scores on success, power, and competition were associated with hostility, rigidity, and detachment whereas scores on restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior between men were associated with inhibition, mistrust, and submissiveness (Mahalik, 2000). Similar to the dimensions of the gender role conflict, maladaptive perfectionism was found to relate to interpersonal problems that were associated with the hostile-dominant interpersonal style. Adaptive perfectionism and nonperfectionism were associated with the friendly-submissive

interpersonal style (Slaney et al., 2006). In light of the studies of Mahalik (2000) and Slaney et al. (2006), it can be highlighted that gender role conflict and maladaptive perfectionism have interpersonal dimensions which are associated with interpersonal difficulties manifested through hostility and dominance in close relationships. Given that adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism were found to associate with different interpersonal styles, it is conceivable that they are expressed differently in terms of gender role conflict. As it is delineated in this chapter, in order to understand the intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning of males, it is important to examine their experiences through the prism of gender role conflict. The literature on perfectionism has not yet addressed how gender role conflict for males is associated with perfectionism. This study becomes the first attempt to look at perfectionism in a sociocultural context of gender role conflict.

Overall, emerging specific patterns of interpersonal functioning in light of gender role conflict and perfectionism have provided me with important rationale for integrating research on gender role conflict, perfectionism, and personality. To advance our understanding of how gender role conflict or perfectionism relate to interpersonal functioning for college-aged males, I turned my attention to existing concepts from the domain of social psychology in order to gain some understanding on how human beings view themselves in their sociocultural environments. In the following subsections, I will introduce how one's interest in seeing oneself as a unique and separate individual from others versus envisioning oneself as an extension of important relationships can impact individual interpersonal functioning. Existent research reviewed below provides a rationale for examining the impact of perfectionism on relational interdependent self-construal, and the role which this construct may play in predicting a degree of restrictive

emotionality via a mediating effect of self-disclosure among college-aged males with close friends.

Independent Versus Relational Interdependent Self- Construal

Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested that the way we think about ourselves is culturally-specific. People in Western cultures are encouraged to think of themselves as autonomous, independent and fundamentally separate from others, or as defined by Markus and Kitayama, having independent self-construal. The underlying premise of the concept of independent self-construal is that people are unique and are separated from others. The essential elements of independent self-construal are one's unique traits, abilities, preferences, interests, and goals. All of these personality characteristics are disconnected from social contexts, interpersonal relationships and group relationships (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000). To secure one's sense of independent self- construal a person must maintain a sense of autonomy from others and be true to him or herself (Markus & Kitayama, 1994).

The principal feature of interdependent self-construal is that a person needs to be connected to other people so that one's sense of self is partially defined by important roles, group memberships, or close relationships. Individuals who embrace interdependent self-construal incorporate important relationships and roles in their individual traits, abilities, and individual preferences. Individuals who tend to see themselves as having interdependent self-construal think and behave in ways that maintain one's connectedness to others and enhance existing relations (Cross et al., 2000).

Cross et al. reported that traditionally, individuals with interdependent self-construal were expected to come from collectivistic cultures that exist in East Asian societies. In collectivism-based interdependence, a person is expected to put the needs of a group before one's own and

shape one's behavior based on a role and position in a social group. An example of a measure that captures a collectivism-oriented interdependent self-construal of an individual is Yamaguchi's Collectivistic Scale (Yamaguchi, 1994). Another example of an instrument that captures group-oriented interdependent self-construal is the Singelis (1994) Interdependent Self-Construal Scale, which includes a concept of respect for authority as one dimension of the collectivism-oriented self-construal. Cross et al. argued that respect for authority figures is conceptually independent of the concept of the self as it is represented through close relationships.

Americans in general treat group memberships rather casually and do not feel particularly loyal to their groups (Cross et al., 2000). Cross et al. argued, however, that the notion of interdependent self-construal is relevant for individuals in the United States, for relational interdependent self-construal aims to indicate how one's close relationships become a part of one's personal identity or self-concept. Relational interdependent self-construal captures the relationship-oriented nature of people's self-concepts. The importance of strong interpersonal bonds in people's lives was highlighted by Baumeister and Leary (1995) in their extensive literature review based on the existing empirical and conceptual literature. Baumeister and Leary postulated that a need to belong is a fundamental human motivation, meaning that individuals have a strong drive to form and maintain at least several stable, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships. A great deal of human behavior is caused by the need to belong.

Aron, Aron, Tudor, and Nelson (1991) argued that individuals often include representations of particularly close relationships into their mental representations of themselves. Aron et al. focused on a single relationship in people's lives like a relationship with a spouse or a friend without considering that people may incorporate several close relationships at the same

time. Unlike Aron and his colleagues, Cross et al. (2000) believed that “interdependence is a general orientation toward representing oneself in terms of close relationships” (p. 793). Cross et al. proposed to utilize relational interdependent self- construal as a specific psychological construct. Cross and her colleagues developed and validated the Relational Interdependent Self- Construal Scale (RISC; Cross et. al, 2000) that can be used to measure relational interdependent self-construal.

Independent versus relational interdependent self- construal: Summary. People in individualistic societies are expected to achieve autonomy, independence, and self-reliance, the paramount markers of one’s mature development. It is understood that people have unique characteristics, preferences, and interests that need to be developed independent of others in order to develop an independent self-concept or independent self-construal. Cross and colleagues (2000) noted that achieving an independent sense of self precludes people from incorporating important relationships in their sense of selves. Cross and colleagues argued that interdependence is important for people’s lives because they want to have strong interpersonal bonds. Interdependence is recognized as an orientation toward representing oneself in terms of close relationships. The Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale (RISC) was developed to measure individual level of interdependence in close relationships. The development and validation of the RISC Scale has opened new research directions in the area of interpersonal functioning.

In this study, my aim is to expand our empirical understanding of ways multidimensional perfectionism and nonperfectionism are related to different aspects of relationships for college-aged males, specifically their connections with close same-sex friends. Adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism have been shown to be associated with different

interpersonal styles in relationships. Understanding how a type of perfectionism is related to college-aged males' attempt to incorporate significant relationships in their self-concepts may lead to a better conceptualization of how that adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism are associated with relational views of themselves.

Self-disclosure and self-construal in intimate male relationships. Intimate relationships are important to individuals with interdependent self-construal while individuals with independent self-construal are threatened by the development of intimate relationships. Friendships become important for individuals because they can provide them with sources of intimate relationships (Cross & Madson, 1997). Individuals with interdependent self-construal utilize friendships as sources of self-esteem. Friendships can help people to enrich their sense of self. Individuals with an independent self-construal may avoid behaviors that foster intimacy. In fact, they may hesitate to share their feelings and thoughts with their friends (Cross & Madson, 1997).

The expression of one's emotions is an important element in self-presentation in social situations. Cross and Madson (1997) conducted a comprehensive literature review of published studies which addressed how independent and interdependent self-construal related to a person's gender identity. They suggested that sharing emotions can facilitate intimate relationships. Individuals with independent self-construal value their feelings of autonomy and separateness; they may have difficulties expressing feelings (such as fear or helplessness) that may signal their interdependence. Men are less willing to express feelings about a same-sex friend or a relationship (Hayes, 1984). Men may be more hesitant to express their emotions in certain social situations because they do not want to lose their autonomy and separateness, the fundamental

tenet of an independent self-construal. In contrast, individuals with an interdependent self-construal appear to be more willing to express their emotions (Cross & Madson, 1997).

Individuals share their inner thoughts and feelings with others through acts of self-disclosure. Two types of self-disclosure were identified by Morton (1978) which were named as evaluative and descriptive. Morton defined evaluative self-disclosure as sharing feelings about oneself whereas descriptive self-disclosure is defined as sharing facts about oneself. Although both forms of disclosure are important in forming relationships, it is evaluative disclosure that is important for the development of intimate relationships.

Reis (1990) argued that sharing personally revealing feelings with another person signals the beginning of the intimacy in a relationship. Some evidence exists that men tend to have less evaluative disclosures in relationships especially when the relationship already exists between a person and a target of disclosure (Dindia & Allen, 1992). Men may benefit from avoidance of evaluative self-disclosure because it allows them to protect their sense of autonomy and separateness. Cross and Madson (1997) suggest that if men do not disclose personal information and vulnerable feelings, other people cannot predict and control their behavior.

Men, however, are interested in having intimate relationships. As mentioned previously, Caldwell and Peplau (1982) and Roy et al. (2000) found that college-aged men are interested in having same-sex intimate friendships. To achieve intimate same-sex friendships, males may be modifying the nature of intimacy in their close same-sex relationships. Instead of sharing emotionally vulnerable experiences, they prefer to share activities with their friends (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982). Cross and Madson (1997) suggested that intimate friendships that are based on shared activities involve descriptive self-disclosure more so than evaluative self-disclosure; therefore, men can engage in meaningful interactions without threatening their sense of

autonomy. Nonverbal communication skills significantly contribute to the formation and maintenance of close relationships. Individuals with interdependent self-construal are expected to be more nonverbally expressive than persons with independent self-construal (Cross & Madson, 1997).

Cross et al. (2000) investigated whether people who score higher on the Relational-Interdependent Self-Construal (RISC) scale were more likely to self-disclose to others, to be sensitive to others, and to describe their relationships as close. They conducted a study where randomly paired individuals were invited to spend 45 minutes together in a laboratory setting. The researchers were interested in simulating the beginning of a friendship between two people. Participants were encouraged to get to know each other. Participants of this study were 181 women from introductory psychology classes who took part in this study in exchange for extra credit.

As expected, participants' RISC scale scores were significantly and positively related to their partners' self-disclosure and responsiveness. For 68 pairs whose data were used in the regression analysis, it was found that participants whose partners scored high on the RISC scale perceived their partners as being more disclosing about themselves ($r = .54, p < .001$) and as being more responsive to their needs and concerns ($r = .69, p < .001$) in comparison with participants whose partners scored low on the RISC scale ($r = .19$) for disclosure and ($r = .36$) for perception of partners' responsiveness. Participants who were paired with individuals who scored higher on the RISC scale reported that their relationships with their partners were more positive in comparison to participants who were paired with individuals who scored low on the RISC scale. Participants' scores on the RISC scale were positively correlated with their own ratings of self-disclosure ($r = .45, p < .001$).

Cross et al. (2000) conducted structural equation modeling analyses and found that the relationship between an individual's score on the RISC scale and a partner's overall satisfaction with her or his interpersonal interactions was mediated by an individual's degree of self-disclosure and a partner's perception of the individual's responsiveness. These findings were supported by a good fit model, chi-square (16, N= 68) = 26.83, $p < .05$, GFI = .92; CFI = .93, which was found using the LISREL 8 program. The researchers suggested that participants with highly interdependent self-construal are more likely to self-disclose to others; participants who were self-disclosing were evaluated by their partners as more responsive. It is notable that the participants in this study were all undergraduate women. Therefore, it will be important to determine whether college-aged men who score higher on the RISC are more likely to disclose to their same-sex friends, be sensitive to them, and to describe their relationships as close.

Overall, the introduction of relational interdependent self-construal by Cross et al. (2000) allows for a more complete examination of one's self-concept and attitudes toward close relationships. Persons who incorporate close relationships in their sense of selves find that their views of themselves include representations of close others as well as their own attitudes, abilities, wishes, goals, and experiences. Individuals who tend to think in terms of close relationships are oriented toward thoughts and actions that help them in the development and maintenance of close relationships. Relational interdependent self-construal positively influences overall relationship-oriented processes such as self-disclosure and responsiveness (Cross & Gore, 2004). Given the cultural values that are associated with masculinity in American society, it is expected that males may tend to endorse independent self-construal. A strong sense of independent self-construal may lead men to think that commitment in close and intimate

relationships limits one's freedom and threatens an independent sense of self. For men, pursuit of and commitment to intimate relationships may be both desired and feared (Cross & Gore, 2004).

Self-disclosure and self-construal in intimate male relationships: Summary. Intimate relationships are of great importance to people. Close friendships can enrich people's lives and their views of themselves. People with independent self-construal may not fully benefit from the emotional potential of intimate connections because they tend to hesitate sharing their feelings with their friends. They tend to value their autonomy and separateness and have difficulties tolerating interdependence (Cross et al., 2000). Males traditionally have been indoctrinated into the world of socially prescribed gender norms that have reinforced independence and autonomy. Male gender-normative behaviors may not be conducive to experiences of sharing their feelings with other people in relationships. Men appear to be using less evaluative self-disclosure which involves sharing feelings of vulnerability with other people in relationships (Cross & Madson, 1997). High concerns with restrictive emotionality of gender role conflict manifest themselves in limited emotional expressions by males. In friendships, males appear to avoid sharing feelings by using descriptive self-disclosure in their close friendships. Descriptive self-disclosure involves sharing facts rather than feelings about themselves.

People with higher values on RISC tend to self-disclose more in their friendships and be more responsive to the needs of others. Individuals who see their self-concepts in terms of close relationships tend to be oriented toward thoughts and actions that help them in the development of close relationships. Higher values on RISC positively influence overall relationship-oriented processes such as self-disclosure and responsiveness (Cross et al., 2000).

It has been widely believed that males are encouraged to develop an independent self-construal (Cross & Madson, 1997). Overemphasis on self-reliance and autonomy may leave

males less oriented to and perhaps less skilled in relationship-oriented processes. As a result, if individuals were to increase their degree of relational interdependent self-construal they might be able to more comfortable with personal emotional expressiveness and responsiveness to others. It has been learned from comparative studies of male and female same-sex friendships that females are more comfortable than males with emotional self-disclosure in their relationships (Fehr, 2004). In addition, Cross and colleagues demonstrated a strong connection between RISC and self-disclosure among female participants. Males do want intimate friendships, but they appear to be less willing to engage in intimate self-disclosure in their same-sex friendships.

Salient Closing Points of the Chapter and Study Assumptions

Increasingly researchers have turned to perfectionism as an important variable that can shine some light on the intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning of people. It has been established that perfectionism is a multidimensional construct that measures both potential positive and negative aspects (Slaney et al., 2001). It was suggested that perfectionism affects multiple facets of people's lives including their relationships to themselves and with others (Habke & Flynn, 2002). In fact, it was found that adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism are associated with the friendly-submissive and hostile-dominant interpersonal styles respectively (Slaney et al., 2006). Similarly, gender role conflict was found to relate to different interpersonal styles (Mahalik, 2000). In light of the studies of Mahalik (2000) and Slaney et al. (2006), it can be highlighted that gender role conflict and maladaptive perfectionism specifically have interpersonal dimensions which are associated with interpersonal difficulties manifested through hostility and dominance in close relationships. Given that adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism were found to associate with different interpersonal styles, it is conceivable that they are expressed differently in terms of gender role conflict.

Friendships are relationships that are based on equality and require some degree of reciprocity to prosper (Rawlins, 1992). Intimacy, which is expressed through self-disclosure, is the most salient component that helps separate close friendships from other personal relationships (Hays, 1988). Men tend to have difficulties with intimacy and self-disclosure with women and other men because of society-propagated gender role patterns. There is limited evidence that higher levels of restrictive emotionality and conflict between work and family have significantly predicted lower levels of self-disclosure in close friendships (O'Neil, 2008). It has been shown that same-sex friendships are important relationships in men's lives. Yet, men more so than women, may struggle with forming close friendships because of culturally-induced barriers to intimacy that prevent men from sharing their emotionality with their close male friends. For instance, it is hard for men to trust their friends with their thoughts and feelings that can make them feel vulnerable and open to ridicule (Reid & Fine, 1992).

Markus and Kitayma (1991) suggested that people and men particularly in our culture are encouraged to think of themselves as autonomous and independent. These traits are important for men's sense of masculinity, which is a part of their self-concept. Baumeister and Leary (1995) made a strong case for the notion that men and women both want to have close relationships in their lives. Cross et al. (2000) suggested that all individuals have some relational propensity. Cross and colleagues developed a measure of the relational interdependent self-construal that captures individual relational propensity to integrate significant relationships into a sense of self. Individuals who are more comfortable integrating other people in their sense of self appear to be more comfortable self-disclosing and perceived by their friends as more responsive.

Given the importance of intimate friendships in men's lives (Grief, 2006; Nardi, 1992, Peplau & Cadwell, 1982; Roy et al., 2000) and a great need to ask complex questions about

gender role conflict in relation to broader concepts from different areas of psychology including social psychology (Wester, 2008), it is timely to gain some understanding on how adaptive perfectionism, maladaptive perfectionism, and nonperfectionism relate to self-disclosure, four aspects of gender-role conflict and one's relational view of self.

This chapter will be concluded with a summary of four hypotheses which were examined in this study. These hypotheses are based on the theoretical assumptions that were drawn from the literature reviewed in this chapter. I considered the following assumptions in constructing my hypotheses:

1. Perfectionism is a multidimensional construct which includes adaptive and maladaptive aspects of intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning. Individuals can be separated into adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists. Each type of perfectionism is characterized by a set of interpersonal behavioral patterns which can contribute to a specific personality organization. Perfectionism can affect how college-aged males contribute and experience close relationships including friendships.

2. An individual's gender determines a set of socially-acceptable intrapersonal and interpersonal patterns. Male gender roles reinforce self-sufficiency, emotional inexpressiveness, and devalue cooperation, unrestrictive emotional expressivity, or intimacy. Men who have difficulties endorsing traditional gender roles experience gender role conflict. Patterns of gender role conflict are reflective of specific interpersonal often problematic interpersonal patterns.

3. Perfectionism may influence lives of males with gender role conflict in specific ways. Understanding how perfectionism may affect college-aged males can lead to a deeper understanding of psychological experiences of male perfectionists in the current sociocultural environment.

4. College-aged male same-sex friendships are important relationships in their lives, and can be defined as close, good, and casual. Young men value close same-sex friendships which are characterized by sharing feelings and problems with their friends.

5. Independent self-construal can be distinguished from relational interdependent self-construal. Relational interdependent self-construal allows individuals to think about themselves in relation to their important relationships. College-aged males who score high or low on the measure of RISC may value different interpersonal patterns of functioning. Perfectionism may impact relational interpersonal patterns for college-aged males with close friends.

6. High levels of restrictive emotionality among males may impede healthy emotional functioning in intimate male friendships whereas a shift from an independent self-construal to a relational interdependent self-construal may contribute to a greater comfort with emotional expression in relation to others. Given that individuals with higher levels of relational interdependent self-construal tend to self-disclose more in close relationships whereas individuals with higher levels of restrictive emotionality tend to self-disclose less in close friendships, it is reasonable to examine whether self-disclosure can serve a mediator in a relationship between relational interdependent self-construal and restrictive emotionality.

Hypotheses

With the assistance of PsychInfo, a psychological database, a literature search was conducted using keywords “perfectionism, men, relational self- construal, and gender role - conflict”. No studies were located that addressed the relationships between perfectionism and experiences of gender role conflict among males. In order to understand how perfectionism is related to college age male’s experiences of gender-role conflict, their ability to self-disclose in close male friendships, and their degree of interdependent sense of self, the following hypotheses will be tested in this study:

1) *Perfectionism and Self- Disclosure*. In comparison to maladaptive and adaptive perfectionistic and nonperfectionistic males, it is expected that adaptive perfectionistic males will have the highest scores on the Self- Disclosure Index while maladaptive perfectionists will have the lowest scores on the Self-Disclosure Index. It is expected that the tendency of maladaptive perfectionists to conceal information that can portray them in a less than positive light that was found in Kawamura and Frost (2004) would lead them to disclose less about their own vulnerabilities to their close friends.

2) *Perfectionism and Gender Role Conflict*. In comparison with adaptive perfectionistic males and nonperfectionistic males, it is expected that maladaptive perfectionists will have the highest scores on all four subscales of the GRCS-I: the Success, Power, and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men, and on the Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations. It is expected that adaptive perfectionists will receive lower scores than maladaptive perfectionists on these four subscales of the GRCS-I, and their scores may not be significantly different from nonperfectionists.

3) *Perfectionism and Relational Interpersonal Self-Construal*. In comparison with adaptive perfectionistic and nonperfectionistic males in the sample, maladaptive perfectionists will have the lowest scores on the Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale. It is expected that adaptive perfectionists will have higher scores than nonperfectionists on the RISC measure.

4) *Testing a Mediation Model*. It is hypothesized that self-disclosure in close same-sex friendships among male college students will serve as a mediating variable in the relationship between relational interdependent self-construal as measured by the RISC and RE..

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

This chapter will describe the research instruments, participants, procedures for data collection, and statistical analyses.

Participants

A total of 310 participants were involved in the study with 281 included in the final study sample. Twenty-nine participants were excluded from the original 310 participants who were involved in the study. Twenty-one participants attempted to complete the study but terminated their participation after the first section of the study. Seven participants were excluded from the study because they indicated that they had neither close nor good male friends. One participant was excluded from the final sample because his responses were extremely different from other participants.

Male undergraduate students were recruited from the undergraduate student population at the Pennsylvania State University. They were included in the study if they reported having at least one male close or good friend whom they knew for at least three months. For the purpose of this study, participants were asked to think about male close friends as people with whom participants could easily communicate and confide personal feelings and problems. Students were asked to think about male good friends as friends with whom participants enjoyed doing things but with whom they were not open about personal feelings and problems. Based on participants' responses, they were separated in two groups. One group included 231 participants with close friends, and another group included 46 participants with good friends.

The sample included students who identified themselves as Asian American (17.8% of the sample), Black American (8.5% of the sample), Hispanic American

(9.3% of the sample), White American (58% of the sample), multiracial (2.8% of the sample), and foreign nationals (3.6 % of the sample). The average age of the participants was 20.19 years with standard deviation of 2.54 years.

Demographic Information Questionnaire. This eight question instrument was used to determine each participant's age, academic standing in college, academic major, cumulative grade point average, gender, sexual orientation, and race/ethnicity. The participants were asked to indicate if they had close male friends, and how long they considered them to be their close friends. If participants indicated that they did not have close male friends, they were asked to indicate if they had male good friends who were significant in their lives. Definitions of male close friendships and good friendships were provided for participants as guidelines in the questionnaire. Based on the definitions suggested by Cadwell and Peplau (1982), a close friend is defined as someone with whom a participant can communicate and confide in about personal feelings and problems. A good friend is defined as someone with whom a participant enjoys doing things and talking about pertinent interests but not about very personal feelings and thoughts (Cadwell & Peplau, 1982).

The Self-Disclosure Index (SDI; Miller, Berg, & Archer, 1983) was used in this study. This measure consists of 10 self-report items that measure one's willingness to disclose to a same-sex friend on topics such as personal habits, personal fears or things that a respondent is proud of. To utilize the instrument, respondents were asked to indicate the degree of personal disclosure which they used with male friends, using a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from "discuss fully and completely" (4) to "discuss not all" (0). The psychometric properties of the SDI for same-sex friends were established by the authors of the measure (Miller et al., 1983). A factor analysis revealed that the measure's 10 items loaded on a single factor. The internal

consistency of the instrument was computed for a sample of 253 college male students who responded to the measure in relation to their same- sex friends. Cronbach's alpha was found to be .87. The item-total correlations ranged from .50 to .68.

To establish convergent validity, the SDI was administered together with two forms of the Jourard Self- Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ; Jourard & Resnick, 1970) to a sample of 72 men and 84 women (Miller et al., 1983). The JSDQ for disclosure to a friend as well as to a stranger was positively correlated with the SDI ($r = .49$ for men; $r = .65$ for women). The psychometric properties of the instrument were further supported by other researchers. Sprecher and Hendrick (2004) utilized the instrument with 101 male and 101 female individuals who were in romantic relationships. Most of the participants in this study were university students. The mean age of the participants was 20 years. The majority of the sample was White (97.5%) and middle or upper-middle class. Sprecher and Hendrick found that for the SDI at Time 1, Cronbach's alpha was .87 for men and .85 for women. The researchers conducted four follow-ups in the four consecutive years. The sample size decreased throughout the study. Forty one couples (41%) remained toward the end of the study. Sprecher and Hendrick reported that Cronbach's alpha ranged from .86 to .92 at the follow-ups for the Self-Disclosure Index scale. The values of Cronbach alpha for the follow-ups were not reported by gender.

Hendrick and Hendrick (1987) studied the relationship between love and sexuality and their mutual relations with self-disclosure and sensation seeking. The researchers administered the Self Disclosure Index to a sample of 116 males and 102 female undergraduate students to measure a degree of self-disclosure for the target person of love partner and again for the target of same-sex friend. No psychometric properties were reported by the researchers in this study.

Overall, the limited data available on the Self-Disclosure Index suggests it is a promising instrument, which was developed to measure personal-disclosure among same-sex friends. The instrument has some empirical support and meets the conceptual needs of this study.

The Gender Role Conflict Scale-I (GRCS-I; O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) was used in this study. The GRCS-I is a 37-item self-report measure that assesses men's conflicts with their gender roles by asking them about their personal gender role-attitudes, behaviors, and conflicts (O'Neil, Good, & Holmes, 1992). To utilize the instrument, respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement of the instrument, using a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" (6) to "strongly disagree" (1).

The GRCS-I (O'Neil et al., 1986) consists of four subscales: Success, Power, and Competition (13 items), Restrictive Emotionality (10 items), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (8 items), and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations (6 items). Examples of items from the Success, Power, Competition subscale include "I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man;" "Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth." Examples of items from the Restrictive Emotionality subscale include "Expressing feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people;" "Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior." Examples of items from the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale include "Expressing my emotions to other men is risky;" "I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me." Examples of items from the Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations subscale include "My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life;" "Overwork, and stress, caused by a need to achieve on the job or in school, affects/hurts my life."

Scores on each of the four subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I were reported for each participant. Individual subscale scores were calculated by adding all the scores for a given subscale and dividing it by the number of items for each subscale. Subscale scores can range from 1 to 6, reflecting high and low concerns with the content of each specific subscale. For example, an individual can have high concern with restrictive emotionality or low concern with success, power, and competition (Good & Mintz, 1990).

Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities for each subscale of the GRCS-I ranged from .75 to .85 for a sample of 527 undergraduate students (O'Neil et al., 1986). The internal consistency reliability coefficient for the Success, Power, and Competition subscale was .85; it was .82 for the Restrictive Emotionality subscale, .83 for the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale, and .75 for the Conflict Between Work and Family Relations scale. Four-week test-retest reliabilities ranged from .72 to .86 for a sample of 17 undergraduate students. Test-retest reliability for the Success, Power, and Competition subscale was .84, the Restrictive Emotionality subscale was .76, the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale was .86, and the Conflict Between Work and Family Relations was .72 (O'Neil et al., 1986).

O'Neil et al. (1995) reported that additional studies were conducted that calculated internal consistencies on the GRCS-I. For example, Good, Dell, and Mintz (1989) reported that in a study with 401 undergraduate male students, the Cronbach alpha internal consistency was .89 for the entire scale; .86 for the Success, Power, and Competition subscale; .84 for the Restrictive emotionality subscale; .88 for the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men subscale, and .78 for the Conflicts Between Work and Family Relationship subscale.

Good et al. (1995) reported Cronbach alpha internal consistencies for three separate samples of male undergraduate students. Sample 1 consisted of 107 undergraduate participants; sample 2 consisted of 525 participants, and sample 3 consisted of 401 participants. Coefficient alphas were .88, .90, and .89 for the GRCS-I total scale; .83, .84, .86 for the Success, Power, and Competition subscale; .81, .84, .84 for the Restrictive Emotionality subscale; .86, .83, .88 for the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale, and .75, .74, .78 for the Conflicts Between Work and Family Relationship subscale for Samples 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

The construct validity of the GRCS-I and its four subscales has been supported by the initial study on the instrument development, which demonstrated a stable factor structure (O'Neil et al., 1986). In addition, the GRCS-I demonstrated convergent validity with several masculinity measures as well as measures of men's conflicts and stress (O'Neil et al., 1995). Good and Mintz (1990) found that the scores on the Attitude Toward the Male Role Scale (AMR; Doyle & Moore, 1978) were negatively correlated with the scores on the GRCS-I as Good and Mintz anticipated. Two studies (Sharpe, 1993; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991) were conducted to assess the relationship between the scores on the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence & Helmreich, 1978), a measure that is designed to address psychological dimensions of masculinity and femininity, and the scores on the GRCS-I. In both studies, the Masculinity subscale of the PAQ was not significantly correlated with the scores on the GRCS-I as a whole. The scores on the Masculinity Subscale of the PAQ were significantly and positively correlated only with the Success, Power, and Competition subscale of the GRCS-I. In both studies, the authors indicated that the PAQ and the GRCS-I measure different constructs.

Good et al. (1995) examined the GRCS's factor structure and construct validity. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted for two samples of male undergraduate students

using Proc CALIS, SAS Version 6.07.02: sample 1 was recruited from introductory psychology courses (N= 401) and sample 2 was recruited from undergraduate fraternity organizations (N = 535). The original four-factor model developed by O'Neil et al. (1986) was supported given that the data obtained from samples 1 and 2 yielded four-factor models of the GRCS-I. Moreover, Good et al. found that principal factor analyses using an oblique rotation indicated that all items with the exception of one loaded most highly on the factors originally reported by O'Neil et al. (1986).

The smallest correlation was found between scores on the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale and Conflicts Between Work and Family Relations subscale ($r_s = .33$ and $.13$ for two samples examined) while the highest intercorrelations were found between scores on the Restrictive Emotionality subscale and the subscale of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ($r_s = .63$ and $.44$ for the two samples examined).

Support for construct validity was found for three of the four GRCS-I subscales. The Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale of the GRCS-I was the weakest factor psychometrically. The construct validity of the Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale was questioned due to lower correlations with overall GRCS-I scores (Good et al., 1996). The authors suggested that the content validity of the fourth subscale may require further item development and empirical testing (O'Neil et al., 1995). Overall, substantial empirical evidence regarding the psychometric properties of the GRCS-I exists in the current literature that warrants the use of this measure to capture the multidimensional nature of the gender-role conflict experienced by males.

The Relational Interdependent Self-Concept Scale (RISC; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000) was used in this study. The RISC aims to measure “the relational-interdependent self-

construal in terms of the degree to which individuals include close relationships in their self-concepts” (Cross et al., 2000, p.793). The instrument consists of 11 self-report items; two of which are reverse-scored (items # 8 and 9). Examples of items include “My close relationships are an important reflection of who I am” and “My sense of pride comes from knowing who I have as close friends.”

To complete the instrument, respondents were instructed to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement of the instrument, using a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The possible range of scores is from 11 to 77. High scores on the RISC Scale indicate higher levels of interdependent self-construal. Individuals with high interdependent self-construal tend to incorporate their close relationships into their sense of selves. They are more committed to their close relationships than other individuals. (Cross et al., 2000).

Cross et al. (2000) conducted two studies to develop the RISC scale and determine its psychometric properties as well as associations with other personality constructs. In Study 1, eight samples of undergraduate students from introductory courses completed the RISC scale and measures related to constructs of independence/interdependence, personality characteristics, well-being and social support. Samples ranged from 267 to 956 participants. The total number of the participants in Study 1 was 2,374. The participants who were not American citizens were excluded from the study because researchers wanted to avoid possible cultural differences. In study 1, Cross et al. excluded data of 109 participants who were non-citizens or did not indicate a country of citizenship.

Cross et al. (2000) reported that a principal components analysis was used to conduct an exploratory factor analysis on the data from eight samples of undergraduate students who

participated in Study 1. Only one factor emerged; all 11 items loaded between .59 and .77 on the first factor. The scree plot for the factor analysis supported one factor, which accounted for 47% of the total variance.

The internal consistency coefficient alphas ranged from .85 to .90 with a mean of .88 based on data obtained from eight samples of participants. The item-total correlations from the eight samples ranged from .54 to .73. The test-retest reliability over a 2-month period for two samples of participants was .73 ($n = 67$, $p < .001$) and .63 ($n = 317$, $p < .001$). The researchers were able to demonstrate that the measure has good convergent validity. The researchers predicted that the scores on the RISC scale would correlate moderately with scores on the Communal Orientation Scale (Clark, Quелlette, Powell, & Miller, 1987) and scores on Singelis's (1994) Group-Oriented Interdependent Self- Construal Scale.

The researchers believed that the RISC scale could be a better measure of relational interdependent self-construal because it was conceptualized to assess one's general tendency to represent oneself through close relationships unlike previously developed measures of collectivism and group oriented-interdependent self-construal that focused on the group identity of participants. Nevertheless, Cross et al. (2000) anticipated that the scores on these scales should be positively related. As expected, scores on the RISC scale correlated moderately with scores on the Communal Orientation Scale ($r = .41$) and with the scores on the group-oriented Interdependent Self- Construal Scale ($r = .41$). The authors indicated that the RISC does relate to the measures of collectivism and group oriented interpersonal self-construal, but the RISC scale is not identical to these measures.

Cross et al. (2000) found that the scores on the RISC scale were not related to scores on Singelis' s (1994) Independent Self- Construal measure ($r = .08$) whereas the scores on the

RISC scale related moderately with the scores on Singelis's measure of Interdependent Self-Construal ($r = .41$) as expected. Singelis (1994) demonstrated that interdependent and independent self-construal were orthogonal constructs. In addition, the researchers examined the incremental utility of the RISC scale to demonstrate that this measure captured a unique construct. They predicted that the RISC scale would account for additional variance in relevant dependent variables such as global measures of collective self-esteem and communal orientation when measures of expressivity, empathic concern, and group-oriented self-construal were controlled. Separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. In Step 1, each criterion variable (a measure of collective self-esteem and a measure of collective communal orientation) was regressed on the measures of the Expressivity subscale of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974), the Empathic Concern subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980), and Singelis Interdependent Self-Construal (Singelis, 1994), and scores on the RISC scale were added at Step 2. With closely related constructs controlled, the RISC scale predicted a proportion of incremental variance in global measures of relatedness such as collective self-esteem ($R^2 = .17, p < .001$) and communal orientation ($R^2 = .56, p < .001$).

Given findings from Study 1, strong evidence was reported by Cross et al. regarding the RISC scale's reliability and validity. It was shown that all 11 items of the measure loaded on a single factor, and the instrument has good internal and test-retest reliability. The reported correlations of the scores of the RISC scale with the scores obtained on the measures of interdependence, independence, and personality provide some support for the RISC scale's convergent and discriminant validity. The RISC scale predicted unique variance in global

measures of collective self-esteem and communal orientation when the measure of group-oriented interdependent self-construal and other variables were controlled.

It appears that the instrument measures a construct of relational self-construal that is distinctive from other measures of interdependent self-construal. Overall, support exists for the instrument's reliability and validity. The 11-item instrument represents one-factor and demonstrates good internal and test-retest reliability. Cross et al. (2000) demonstrated that the RISC scale measures a construct that reflects how one defines oneself in terms of close relationships which was specifically developed to be utilized with American participants who have been exposed to individualistic ideals of contemporary society.

The Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, & Johnson, 1996) was utilized in this study. This instrument captures the multidimensional nature of perfectionism. The underlying construct of perfectionism that guides this instrument incorporates the negative and positive dimensions of perfectionism (Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001). The instrument consists of 23 self-report items that are designed to measure the multidimensional construct of perfectionism. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement of the instrument, using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to strongly agree (7). Scores were calculated for each subscale independently. There is no total score that constitutes one's level of perfectionism.

The instrument consists of three subscales that measure adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism: High Standards (7 items), Order (4 items), and Discrepancy (12 items). Examples of items are "I have high standards for my performance at work and school" from the High Standards subscale; "My best just never seems to be good enough for me" from the Discrepancy subscale; and "I like to always be organized and disciplined" from the

Order subscale (Slaney et al., 2001). The High Standards subscale is designed to measure one's attitude toward achieving high personal standards; the Order subscale is designed to measure one's need for organization and orderliness; and the Discrepancy subscale is designed to measure one's perceived discrepancy between one's high standards and performance. Slaney et al. (2001) stated that the Discrepancy subscale captures the negative aspect of perfectionism.

The APS-R has been subjected to empirically rigorous psychometric investigation. An exploratory and a confirmatory factor analysis (Slaney et al., 2001) supported the three-factor structure of the instrument. The Cronbach's alphas were .86 for Order, .85 for High Standards, and .92 for Discrepancy indicating strong internal consistency for the subscales. The moderate intercorrelation between scores on the subscales of High Standards and Order ($r = .47$) indicated an overlap between these two subscales. Nonsignificant correlations were found between the scores on the subscales of Discrepancy and Standards ($r = -.07$) and Discrepancy and Order ($r = -.05$).

Slaney et al. (2001) provided empirical evidence for the construct validity of the APS-R. The intercorrelations between the scores on the subscales of the APS-R and scores obtained on the selected perfectionism subscales of the HFMP (Hewitt & Flett, 1991) and the FMPS (Frost et al., 1990) as well as measures of self-esteem, depression, and measures of students' academic performance provided strong evidence for convergent and discriminant validity for the APS-R. Additional evidence for convergent and discriminant validity was reported by Ashby and Rice (2002). These researchers found that the scores on the Self-Criticism Perfectionism subscale of the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS; Weissman & Beck, 1978) were significantly and positively correlated with the scores on the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R ($r = .64, p < .05$) and unrelated to scores on the subscales of High Standards ($r = .19$) and Order ($r = .14$). The

researchers hypothesized that the scores on the DAS Self-Criticism subscale and the Discrepancy subscale would correlate significantly because both subscales represent the dimensions of maladaptive perfectionism while Order and High Standards represent the dimensions of adaptive perfectionism.

Considerable stability for the APS- R scores was supported by the data on test-retest correlations. Grzegorek, Slaney, Franze, and Rice (2004) found that in a sample of 245 undergraduate students, test-retest correlations for the APS-R were .72 for High Standards, .83 for Discrepancy, and .80 for Order over a period of 3 weeks. Similarly, Rice and Aldea (2006) reported that in a longitudinal study where they followed a sample of 84 participants at three different time points, test-retest correlation coefficients were found. 82 for the Discrepancy subscale, .76 for the High Standards subscale, and . 87 for the Order subscale over the period of 8-10 weeks.

Rice and Ashby (2007) stated that there is a considerable amount of research that established that perfectionism is a multidimensional and multicategorical construct (Flett & Hewitt, 2002; Frost et al., 1990; Grzegorek et al., 2004; Slaney et al., 2001). Thus it became important to find an easy way to classify college students on different dimensions of perfectionism. Rice and Ashby conducted a study to develop a system of manageable calculations to help researchers and clinicians to classify college students into distinctive groups of adaptive/ maladaptive perfectionists and non-perfectionists.

Rice and Ashby (2007) recruited 1537 undergraduate students from four different universities. There were 462 men (30%) and 1071 women (70%): 65% were White/Euro American students (n = 987), 10.5 % were African Americans (n= 155), 8 % Asian Americans (n = 117), 6 % Latinos (n= 89), and 4 % Native Americans (n= 53), and approximately 7% of the

sample reported mixed and other ethnicity. The participants ranged from 18 to 51 years of age ($M = 19.43$, $SD = 2.77$) with 975 of the sample between the ages of 18 and 24. All participants completed the APS-R; scores on this instrument were used to derive the cut off points for identifying adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists and non-perfectionists.

A multivariate analysis of variance of the APS-R subscales revealed no significant differences between racial and ethnic groups. A random sample of 470 women was selected to conduct a balanced multivariate analysis of sex-differences on the APS-R. Significant differences were found; Wilks's lambda was 0.954, $F(3, 923) = 14.68$, $p < 001$. Univariate analyses revealed that women in the sample scored significantly higher than men on the High Standards subscale, $M = 43.35$ ($SD = 5.18$) and $M = 41.12$ ($SD = 6.22$) respectively. Women scored significantly higher than men on the Order subscale, $M = 21.78$ ($SD = 4.42$) and $M = 20.32$ ($SD = 4.74$). Rice and Ashby (2007) reported that the effect sizes of the sex differences were small; therefore, sex was not controlled in further analyses.

Rice and Ashby (2007) conducted a descriptive discriminant analysis using three APS-R subscales as discriminator variables and the cluster analytic classifications as the mutually exclusive groups. The researchers used Fisher's linear discriminant functions as classification coefficients for equations to channel participants into perfectionistic and nonperfectionistic groups. The procedure established by the researchers was to calculate three discriminant scores (one for each possible category). Each score was a product of a raw APS-R score and an appropriate classification coefficient derived from the descriptive sample. The resulting highest discriminant score indicated the category to which the participant should be assigned. The frequency distribution of APS-R scores within each discriminant group was studied. It was observed that obtained scores on the Order subscale of the APS-R did not help to distinguish the

group membership beyond the combination of High Standards and Discrepancy scores. Rice and Ashby reported that in a number of previous studies that used the APS- R, the Discrepancy and High Standards subscales alone were utilized to classify perfectionists (e.g. Ashby, LoCicero, & Kenny, 2003; Martin & Ashby, 2004; Periasamy & Ashby, 2002). It was found that Order was associated with perfectionism but was not demonstrated to be a critical facet of perfectionism.

Rice and Ashby (2007) conducted a second descriptive discriminant function analysis using just the High Standards and Discrepancy scores to predict cluster membership. The cutoff points were identified based on the results from the combination of cluster analysis, discriminant function analysis, and examination of sensitivity, specificity, and positive and negative predictive power of different decision rules for group membership. Ashby and Rice reported the following criteria for classification: If the obtained score of a participant on the High Standards subscale is greater or equal to 43, and the obtained score on the Discrepancy subscale is smaller or equal to 44, this participant is classified as an adaptive perfectionist. If the obtained score of a participant on the High Standards subscale is greater or equal to 37, and the obtained score on the Discrepancy subscale is greater or equal to 50, this participant is classified as a maladaptive perfectionist. If the obtained score of a participant does not fall within these ranges, this participant is classified as a nonperfectionist.

On the whole, the APS-R has been shown to be a conceptually and psychometrically sound measure of perfectionism. Sufficient empirical evidence exists to support its three-factor structure, and its reliability based on the internal consistency coefficients and test-retest data on the subscales of the instrument. In addition to the psychometric soundness of the instrument, the empirically established independence of the Discrepancy subscale from the High Standards and

Order subscales is well positioned to measure positive and negative aspects of perfectionism (Slaney et al., 2001). This makes this instrument particularly appropriate for the current study. Information about the utilized variables' subscales, abbreviations, and corresponding coefficients of internal consistency are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Study variables, their subscales, and Cronbach coefficients alpha of internal consistency

Instrument	Subscale	Value of Alpha
The Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R)	High Standards (HS)	.85
	Order (OR)	.86
	Discrepancy (D)	.92
The Self-Disclosure Index (SDI)		.87
Gender- Role Conflict Scale-I (GRCS-I)	Success, Power, Competition (SPC)	.85
	Restrictive Emotionality (RE)	.82
	Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (RABBM)	.83
	Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (CBWF)	.75
The Relational Interdependent Self-Construal (RISC)		.88

Procedure

Participants were recruited from three introductory Economics undergraduate courses in the Department of Economics, two undergraduate courses in the College of Engineering, and from three advanced undergraduate courses in the Department of Counselor Education,

Counseling Psychology, and Rehabilitation Services at the Pennsylvania State University. Additional efforts were exerted to contact male students from different colleges on campus. Specifically, students in the College of Engineering were invited to participate in the study via an announcement which was placed in an electronic weekly newsletter distributed by the Office for Student Services at the College of Engineering. An invitation to participate in the study was delivered via an electronic newsletter issued by the office of student programming of the Penn State Honors College.

Male students from the Colleges of Life Sciences and Liberal Arts were invited to participate through a list serve which was distributed by the Office of Research and Assessment of the Division of the Student Affairs at Penn State University. An email announcement was delivered to students who are members of a listserve associated with the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Ally Student Resource Center at Penn State University. Male students who are affiliated with the Office for Women Students were invited to participate in the study via a list serve and a personal appearance of the principal investigator at a meeting. Students who were members of the Interfraternity Council of Penn State University were invited to participate in the study via a list serve. The principal investigator sent direct email invitations to participate in the study to male students who were associated with the Multicultural Resource Center at the Penn State University.

The principal investigator contacted instructors via email and/or in person who were scheduled to teach appropriate undergraduate courses and asked for their permission to inform students about this research study. The principal investigator prepared a small description of the research study which was distributed to students. With the permission of instructors, the announcement about the study and ways students could participate in it was made in classes by

the principal investigator. Undergraduate students from two courses in the Department of Counselor Education, Counseling Psychology, and Rehabilitation Services were given academic credit for participation in this research study.

Participants in the study completed a set of measures that was available to them through an electronic file. The materials were available through a website entitled Psychdata via a secure link. Participants were provided with a password to access a secure file. Along with research instruments and a demographic questionnaire, the electronic packet included a cover page that provided an explanation of the study as well as the potential risks and benefits of participating in the study. The cover letter stated that participation in this study was strictly voluntary, and the information that was given by participants could not be linked to a specific person. In the cover letter, participants were informed that by clicking on a button marked “Continue” and completing all the instruments for this study, they were giving informed consent for participation in the study. Participants were able to print a copy of the informed consent or request a hard copy of the informed consent for their records.

The principal investigator asked five volunteers - advanced doctoral students and faculty members from the Department of Counseling Psychology and Counselor Education and Center for Counseling and Psychological Services to participate in a pilot study. Based on the feedback from the pilot study, it was estimated that participants needed 20- 25 minutes to complete 93 items in the study. Participants were encouraged to complete all the instruments at once. Once participants completed the study’s materials via internet, they were given a chance to participate in a random prize drawing of 8 gift certificates each valued at 25 dollars. They were able to enter their name and contact information via a secure electronic file which was not linked to their data files. Students who were eligible for academic credit in their classes were able to submit their

identification information and the investigator was able to inform their instructors about their participation in the study. The principal investigator recruited a recent college graduate to assist with the execution of a random prize drawing. Eight people were identified as prize winners of the raffle on December 17, 2007. They were informed by email and follow-up phone calls about their prizes on December 18, 2007. Four students were able to collect their gift certificates directly from the principal investigator on December 19, 2007. The remaining four gift certificates were mailed to students' homes as per their permission.

The research packet included:

1. A cover letter that explained the study and the process of informed consent for participants
2. Demographic Questionnaire
3. Almost Perfect Scale-Revised
4. Self-Disclosure Index Scale
5. Gender Role Conflict Scale-I
6. Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale

This informed consent form was reviewed and approved by the Office for Research Protection and the Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB # 26429, Doc. #1) at Pennsylvania State University (10-15-2007). It will expire on (09-10-2008). .

Participants who were interested in learning about the findings of this study could request a copy of the findings from the principal investigator.

Statistical Analyses

The study sample was divided into adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists based on the cut off points provided by Rice and Ashby (2007). Firstly, differences between adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists were examined in terms of gender role conflict, self-disclosure in male same-sex close and good friendships, and degree of relational interdependent self-construal from a population of undergraduate male students. Secondly, the testing of a mediation hypothesis was discussed where a measure of the Self-Disclosure Index Scale (SDI) is a mediator for the relationship between the Relational Interdependent Self- Construal (RISC) and the Restrictive Emotionality (RE) subscale of the GRCS- I.

Analysis I. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine if there were statistically significant differences between groups of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists on the measure of SDI, four subscales of the GRCS-I, and RISC. A between-subjects MANOVA tested whether mean differences between groups of maladaptive perfectionists, adaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists were statistically significant on the dependent variables, i.e. self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal. Significant results were examined with follow-up ANOVAs and post hoc HDS tests.

Analysis II. To test if the Self-Disclosure Index Scale (SDI) was a mediator variable between a predictor variable the Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale (RISC) and a criterion variable the Restrictive Emotionality (RE) subscale of the GRCS-I, a series of regression models were estimated. Firstly, a relationship between the predictor variable RISC and the outcome variable of RE was evaluated for its significance; $RISC^{\text{path c}} \rightarrow RE$ (Frazier,

Tix, & Barron, 2004). According to recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986), to test for mediation, the following three regression equations were estimated: (1) regressing the mediator SDI on the independent (predictor) variable RISC; $RISC \xrightarrow{\text{path } a} SDI$ (2) regressing the dependent (criterion) variable RE on the mediator variable SDI; $SDI \xrightarrow{\text{path } b} RE$ (3) regressing the dependent variable RE on both the independent (predictor) and on the mediator variables of SDI and RISC; $SDI \& RISC \xrightarrow{\text{path } c'} RE$. Unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and standardized regression coefficients (Beta) related to each step in the evaluation of the mediational model were calculated and tested for statistical significance.

If the SDI served as a complete mediator variable in this model, by controlling the effect of the SDI in the regression equation, a regression coefficient associated with the relationship between the RISC and the RE (controlling for the SDI) should be nonsignificant. The SDI could be identified as a partial mediator in the predictive relationship between RISC and RE (path c') if path c' was significantly smaller than path c but greater than zero. The significance of this change (path c - path c'), which represents the partial mediation of SDI, was evaluated based on the recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986). They suggested calculating a z-score for the mediation effect by employing an algebraic formula: $[Z \text{ score of the mediated effect by SDI}] = [a \times b / \text{square root of } b^2sa^2 + a^2sb^2 + sa^2sb^2]$ where a and b is unstandardized regression coefficients and sa and sb are their standard errors. The confidence interval for the mediation effect was calculated using the formula recommended by Shrout and Bolger (2002): 95 % confidence interval = $\{a \times b + z_{sab}(1.96); ax b - z_{sab}(1.96)\}$ where a and b are unstandardized regression coefficients and z_{sab} - is the error term (the square root of $b^2sa^2 + a^2sb^2 + sa^2sb^2$).

CHAPTER 4

Results

Overview of the chapter

The results of the statistical analyses will be presented in the same order as they are outlined in Chapter 3. The results of a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) will be reported as they pertain to the independent variable Perfectionism Type (Adaptive Perfectionism, Maladaptive Perfectionism, and Nonperfectionism) and multiple dependent variables: the Self-Disclosure Index Scale (SDI), the Success, Power, Competition subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale- I (SPC), the Restrictive Emotionality subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale- I (RE), the Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale - I (RABBM), the Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale (CBWF) of the Gender-Role Conflict Scale-I as well as the Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale (RISC). The sample was separated into three subgroups of Adaptive Perfectionists, Maladaptive Perfectionists, and Nonperfectionists based on cut off scores suggested by Rice and Ashby (2007). The results of a regression model will be reported as they pertain to the hypothesized mediation model where the variable of self-disclosure (SDI) serves as a mediator between the Relational Interdependent Self-Construal scale (RISC) and the Restrictive Emotionality subscale (RE) of the Gender Role Conflict Scale –I.

Prior to performing the statistical analyses, the data were examined for accuracy, missing values, and fit between the distribution of data and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. The demographic description of the final study participants is also presented in this chapter. The ranges, means, and standards deviations for the subscales of the instruments utilized in this study are reported in Appendix G. The intercorrelations of the High Standards, Discrepancy, Order

subscales of the APS-R, the SDI, the subscales of the GRCS-I, and RISC are reported in Appendix I. The internal consistency coefficients for subscales of the APS-R , GRCS-I , the SDI, and the RISC scales are reported in Appendix H.

Examination of the Data Set Prior to Analysis

The original data file was downloaded from the web-based secure PsychData Server into a secure computer file and examined for accuracy, missing data, and the fit between this data set and assumptions important for multivariate analysis. First, the data set was examined for the completion of the measures for each participant. A total of 310 participants began the study. Twenty-one participants terminated their participation after the first section of the study. Seven participants were excluded from the study because they indicated that they had neither close nor good male friends. Finally, one additional participant was excluded because his scores on all the measures after conversion to z-scores were equal or greater than 3.29 at $p < .001$ and were thus considered outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The data set for the remaining 281 participants was examined for missing values for each scale. It appeared that missing values were randomly scattered. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommended that when missing values are less than 5% of scores respectively for a subscale/scale, they can be replaced with the mean value for their respective subscale/ scale. In light of this recommendation, I substituted missing values on each scale/subscale with their respective mean values if missing values on each scale/subscale constituted less than 5% of scores. As a result of that, values for the High Standards and Order subscales of the APS-R were available for all 281 participants. Values for the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R were available for 279 participants. Values for the SDI Scale were available for all 281 participants whereas values of the RISC Scale were available for 280 participants. Values for the SPC

subscale of the GRCS-I; the RABBM subscale of the GRCS-I; the CBWF subscale GRCS-I were available for all 281 participants. Values for the RE subscale of the GRCS-I were available for 280 participants.

All the data were screened for normality. According to recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), all the cases were sorted and separated into three groups of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists using SPSS SORT and SPLIT FILE functions. SPSS FREQUENCIES was utilized to obtain values of skewness and kurtosis for adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists on each dependent variable (SDI, SPC, RE, RABBM, CBWF, and RISC). The values for kurtosis and skewness are reported in Appendix L. Values for skewness range from -.41 to .34, and values for kurtosis range from -.77 to .63. The numerical values for skewness and kurtosis are roughly the same for all six dependent variables. Values for skewness and kurtosis do not appear extreme. Z-scores for skewness range from -. 2.56 to 2.12 and z-scores from kurtosis range from - 2. 40 to 1.97. All obtained z-scores are within acceptable levels: the distribution of variables does not appear to deviate significantly from normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Preliminary Analysis of the Data Set. Participants were identified as having close friends or good friends and were separated into two groups. The 280 participants included one group with close friends (234 participants), and another group with good friends (46 participants). A between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the six dependent variables. SPSS MANOVA was used for the analysis with type of friendship as the independent variable. The value of Wilks' Lambda (.839) was significant, $F(9, 267) = 5.66, p < .001$. Given the significance of the multivariate test, univariate ANOVAs were examined for each dependent variable. The means were significantly different for SDI, RE, RABBM, and RISC, at $p < .01$.

The means were not significantly different on SPC and CBWF. Based on these statistically significant differences, the 46 participants with good friends were not included in the principal statistical analyses. Values of means and standard deviations for the participants with close friends and good friends are reported in Table 2.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Groups with Close Friends and Good Friends

DV	SDI*		SPC		RE*		RABBM*		CBWF		RISC*	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
CF	22.5	7.0	4.0	.76	3.1	.89	3.3	.92	3.7	1.0	58.4	9.1
GF	16.0	7.3	4.1	.65	3.6	.94	3.8	.95	3.8	1.0	51.7	12

Note: CF = group with close friends; GF= group with good friends; SDI = Self-Disclosure Index Scale, SPC = Success, Power, Competition subscale; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale, CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale; RISC = Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale.

* $p < .01$.

The participants with close friends included 50 (22.9%) participants majoring in business and finance, 102 (46.7%) participants majoring in engineering, 23 (10.6 %) participants majoring in physical sciences, 37 (16.9%) majoring in humanities and social sciences, and 6 (2.8%) who were undecided about their majors. According to the breakdown of participants' majors, the sample was divided into five groups. A between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the six dependent variables. SPSS MANOVA was used for the analysis with type of major as the independent variable. The value of Wilks' Lambda (.83) was not significant, $F(5, 227) = 1.41$, $p = .07$. Given the nonsignificance of the multivariate

test, the participants from the five groups did not differ on the six dependent variables and were combined for further analysis.

Demographic Description of the Final Sample

The mean age of the 234 male participants with close friends was 20.2 years with a standard deviation of 2.70 years. A total of 234 participants reported their academic standing. The sample included 60 (25.6%) first year students, 58 (24.8%) sophomores, 51 (21.8%) juniors, and 61 (26.1 %) seniors. A total of 233 participants with close friends reported their sexual orientation. The sample included 1 (0.4 %) bisexual male, 14 (6.0%) gay males, 215 (91.4%) heterosexual males, 2 (.9 %) males who were questioning their sexual identity, and 1 (0.4%) transgendered male.

A total of 234 participants with close friends reported their racial/ ethnic identity. The sample included 42 (17.9%) Asian American males, 19 (8.1%) Black American males, 24 (10.3%) Hispanic American males, 136 (58.1%) White American males, 6 (2.6 %) males who identified themselves as multiracial and 7 (3.0 %) males who identified themselves as foreign nationals. A total of 216 participants reported their grade point average (GPA). The mean GPA for these participants was 3.14/ 4.00 with a standard deviation of 0.78. Two hundred and thirty two participants with close friends were identified and classified as perfectionists: 67 adaptive and 65 maladaptive perfectionists and 100 nonperfectionists using the cutoff scores reported by Rice and Ashby (2007).

Descriptive Statistics for the Study Instruments. The descriptive statistics for the instruments are presented for the 231 participants with close friends. Three participants with close friends were excluded because they had missing values on the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R and RISC. The values for mean, standard deviation, range, and minimum and maximum

values for each subscale or scale are reported in Appendix G. The Cronbach alpha coefficients are reported in Appendix H. Their numerical values support the appropriateness of the instruments used in the current study. The Cronbach alpha values found for the instruments are consistent with the data from previously published studies with the exception of the Conflict Between Work and Family subscale of the GRCS-I (Cross et al., 2000; Good et al., 1989; 1995; Miller et al., 1983; Sprecher & Hendrick, 2004). For this subscale, the internal consistency Cronbach alphas ranged from .75 to .78 (O'Neil et al., 1995). In this study, the Cronbach alpha was .83.

The correlations between subscales and scales are reported in Appendix I: several are notable. The scores on the RABBM did not correlate significantly with the scores on the High Standards and Order subscale implying that no associated relationship between the positive aspect of perfectionism and RABBM was found. The scores on the Discrepancy subscale did correlate significantly and positively with the scores on the RABBM subscale explaining only 3% of variance. A pattern of small or nonsignificant correlations was observed in the relationships between RISC and the subscales of APS-R. Similarly, the small significant relationship between the scores on the RISC scale and the scores on the High Standards subscale explains only 4 % of the variance.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and Testing of Study Hypotheses

The 231 participants with close friends were used to examine the study hypotheses. There were 67 adaptive perfectionists, 65 maladaptive perfectionists, and 99 nonperfectionists. A between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the six dependent variables: SDI; SPC, RE, RABBM, CBWF, and RISC. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was used because the number of participants in the three groups was not equal (Field,

2005). This test demonstrated that the assumption of homogeneity was not significantly violated, $p = .45$, $p > .01$. Levene's test of equality of variance was conducted for each dependent variable. Levene's test should be non-significant for all dependent variables if the assumption of homogeneity of variance has been met. The results of the test for these data were not significant, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. This finding suggested that the univariate tests that followed the multivariate statistics were reliable (Field, 2005).

The Wilks' Lambda criterion was used to evaluate the multivariate test statistic for MANOVA. The Wilks' Lambda criterion was .742, $F(12, 446) = 5.97$, $p < .01$. Univariate ANOVAs were examined for all dependent variables; the Gabriel's pairwise comparison test (Gabriel, 1978) was used as a follow-up procedure. This test is a recommended statistical procedure when group sizes differ (Field, 2005).

Perfectionism and Self-Disclosure in Close Same-Sex Friendships

The hypothesis was that adaptive perfectionists would score the highest, and maladaptive perfectionists would score the lowest on the measure of self-disclosure. A univariate ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences on the Self-Disclosure Index Scale, $F(2, 228) = 3.58$, $p < .05$. The hypothesis was partially supported. Adaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher than maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who were not significantly different from each other.

Perfectionism and the Subscales of the Gender-Role Conflict Scale-I

Success, Power, Competition Subscale (SPC). The hypothesis was that maladaptive perfectionists would have the highest scores on this subscale while adaptive perfectionists would receive lower scores than maladaptive perfectionists but not be significantly different from nonperfectionists. The *univariate* ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences on the

subscale of SPC, $F(2, 228) = 20.73, p < .05$. Adaptive perfectionists and maladaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher on the subscale of SPC than nonperfectionists, but their scores did not differ from each other. Support was found for the hypothesis that maladaptive perfectionists would score significantly higher than nonperfectionists and the highest on the subscale in relation to two other groups. Maladaptive perfectionists, however, did not have significantly higher scores than adaptive perfectionists.

Restrictive Emotionality Subscale (RE). The hypothesis was that maladaptive perfectionists would score significantly higher than adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who would not differ from each other on this subscale. The data were consistent with this hypothesis. A univariate ANOVA was statistically significant, $F(2, 228) = 9.89, p < .05$. Maladaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher on the subscale than adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who did not differ from each other.

Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men Subscale (RABBM). The hypothesis was that maladaptive perfectionists would score significantly higher than adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who would not differ from each other on this subscale. The data were not consistent with this hypothesis. A univariate ANOVA was not statistically significant for RABBM, $F(2, 228) = 1.46, p > .05$.

Conflict Between Work and Family Relations Subscale (CBWF). The hypothesis was that maladaptive perfectionists would score significantly higher than adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who would not differ from each other. The data were consistent with this hypothesis. A univariate ANOVA was statistically significant, $F(2, 228) = 11.24, p < .05$. Maladaptive perfectionists scored significantly higher than adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists who did not differ from each other.

Perfectionism and Relational Interpersonal Self-Constraint Scale (RISC)

The hypothesis was that maladaptive perfectionists would have the lowest scores on the measure of RISC while adaptive perfectionists would score significantly higher than maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists on this scale. The data were not consistent with this hypothesis. The *univariate* ANOVA was not statistically significant, $F(2, 228) = 2.07, p > .05$. The effect size (partial eta-squared) for the statistically significant ANOVAs ranged from .03 to .15 representing small and medium effect sizes respectively. According to Field (2005), the value of partial eta-squared of .01 represents a small effect size whereas .09 represents a medium and .25 represents a large effect sizes respectively. The means and standard deviations for the perfectionism groups on all dependent variables along with the Gabriel's post hoc comparisons and effect sizes (partial eta- squared) are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Perfectionist Groups with Close Friends for Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable	Adaptive Perfectionists n = 67		Maladaptive Perfectionists n = 65		Nonperfectionists n = 99		p	Partial eta ²
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
	SDI	24.27 ^a	5.97	21.09 ^b	7.58	22.21 ^b		
SPC	4.10 ^a	.74	4.31 ^a	.72	3.62 ^b	.67	.00	.15
RE	2.92 ^a	.88	3.54 ^b	.92	3.05 ^a	.81	.00	.08
RABBM	3.0	.86	3.2	1.0	2.9	.87	.23	--
CBWF	3.45 ^a	1.07	4.18 ^b	.97	3.53 ^a	.95	.00	.09
RISC	60.3	8.5	58.2	9.8	57.4	8.9	.13	--

Note: Values with distinctive superscripts indicate significant within-row differences between the groups using Gabriel's post hoc comparisons, $p < .05$.

SDI = Self-Disclosure Index Scale; SPC = Success, Power, Competition subscale of the GRCS-I; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale of the GRCS-I; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale of the GRCS-I; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family subscale of the GRCS-I; RISC = Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale.

Testing of a Mediation Model

As recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), three regression equations were estimated to establish if the measure of self-disclosure was a mediator for the relationship between RISC and RE of the GRCS-I among participants with close friends who were classified as maladaptive perfectionists, adaptive perfectionists, or nonperfectionists. The model was summarized as $RISC \rightarrow SDI \rightarrow RE$. It was deconstructed into three steps: a) outcome variable SDI = predictor variable RISC; b) outcome variable RE = predictor variable SDI; c) outcome variable RE = predictor variables of SDI + RISC. Type of perfectionism was included in the regression equations as a predictor variable to test for interaction effects between perfectionism in relation to RE. Type of perfectionism is a categorical predictor with 3 levels (adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists).

Dummy coding was utilized in the analysis to convert the categories of perfectionism into a predictor variable with two categories. One categorical predictor variable compared nonperfectionists to adaptive perfectionists (Per1), and another variable compared nonperfectionists to maladaptive perfectionists (Per2). According to recommendations of Cohen,

Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), predictor variables SDI and RISC were centered before they were entered into regression equations. Centered variables SDI1 ($SDI_i - M_{SDI}$) and RISC1 ($RISC_i - M_{RISC}$) were used for the mediation analysis. Cohen et al. (2003) advised testing interaction terms for regression models as products of the centered predictor (SDI1 and RISC1) and dummy coded (Per1 and Per2) variables. The following interaction terms were tested: Per1xSDI1, Per2xSDI1, Per1xRISC1, and Per2xRISC1. All new predictors and interaction terms were entered into three regression models that needed to be evaluated to establish the SDI as a mediator variable.

The first condition that was evaluated was to establish the significance of the relationship between the predictor variables and interaction terms of RISC, Per1, Per 2, Per1RISC1, Per2RISC1 and SDI, the outcome variable. The two-step regression model revealed that there was a significant main effect of RISC, Per1, and Per2 on SDI indicating that 11.4 % of the variance in the outcome variable of SDI was predicted by RISC, Per1, and Per2. The regression model revealed that type of perfectionism did not interact with the model in predicting SDI from RISC. Controlling for type of perfectionism, the first regression equation $RISC \rightarrow SDI$ was found to be significant, thus meeting the first condition for the evaluation of SDI as a mediator.

The second condition that was evaluated was to establish the significance of the relationship between the predictor variables: SDI, Per1, Per2 and the outcome variable of RE. The two step regression model revealed that there was a significant main effect for variables of Per1, Per2, and that 24.3% of the variance in RE was predicted by SDI, Per1, and Per2. The regression model revealed that type of perfectionism did not interact with the model in predicting RE from SDI. Controlling for the type of perfectionism, the second regression equation $SDI \rightarrow$

RE was statistically significant meeting the second condition for the evaluation of SDI as a mediator between the variables of RISC and RE.

The third condition that was evaluated was to establish the significance of the relationship between the predictor variables: SDI, RISC, Per1, Per 2 and the outcome variable of RE. The three -step regression model revealed that there was a significant main effect for RISC, Per1, Per2, SDI, and 26.9 % of the variance in the outcome variable of RE was predicted by RISC, SDI, Per1, and Per2. The regression model revealed that the variable type of perfectionism did not interact with RISC and SDI. Controlling for type of perfectionism, the third regression equation with RISC and SDI as predictor variables \rightarrow RE as the outcome variable was significant, violating the third condition for the evaluation of SDI as a complete mediator in the model. According to Frazier et al. (2004), the obtained significance of three regression models indicates that SDI partially mediates the relationship between RISC and RE.

The results of this three- step evaluation of the mediation model are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Summary: Evaluation of Mediation (M1) and Interaction (M2) Models: RISC \rightarrow SDI \rightarrow RE

Model	Estimated Regression Equations	R ²	R ² change
<u>First condition*</u>			
M1	$SDI^{\wedge} = 22.17 + 1.4 (Per1) - 1.3 (Per2) + .23 (RISC1)$.11	--
M2	$SDI^{\wedge} = 22.17 + 1.6 (Per1) - 1.3 (Per2) + .26 (RISC1) - .09 (Per1 \times RISC1) - .02 (Per2 \times RISC1)$.34	.11
<u>Second condition*</u>			
M1	$RE^{\wedge} = 3.07 - .001 (Per1) + .46 (Per2) - .05 (SDI1)$.24	--
M2	$RE^{\wedge} = 3.07 + .03 (Per1) + .46 (Per2) - .06 (SDI1) -$.49	.24

$$-.01 (\text{Per1x SDI1}) + .02 (\text{Per2xSDI1})$$

Third condition*

M1	$RE^{\wedge} = 3.07 - .03 (\text{Per1}) + .48 (\text{Per2}) - .05 (\text{SDI1}) - .02 (\text{RISC1})$.27	--
M2	$RE^{\wedge} = 3.07 + .08 (\text{Per1}) + .48 (\text{Per2}) - .01 (\text{RISC1}) - .05 (\text{SDI1}) - .02 (\text{Per1xRISC1}) - .007 (\text{Per2xRISC1}) - .002 (\text{Per1xSDI1}) + .02 (\text{Per2xSDI1})$.52	.27

Note. SDI^{\wedge} = Self-Disclosure Index Outcome Variable; RISC = Relational Interdependent Self-
 Construal; RE^{\wedge} = Restrictive Emotionality Subscale of the Gender Role Conflict Scale –I
 Outcome Variable; Per1 = Adaptive Perfectionist versus Nonperfectionist; Per2 = Maladaptive
 Perfectionist versus Nonperfectionist; Per1x SDI1, Per2x SDI1, Per1x RISC1, Per2x RISC2 =
 Interaction terms; * $p < .05$

The partial mediation effect of SDI in relation to RISC and RE was further supported by conducting a three-step regression analysis for the sample of 231 participants with close friends without controlling for perfectionism type. The first regression model $RISC \rightarrow SDI$ was significant, $p < .01$. The second regression model $SDI \rightarrow RE$ was significant, $p < .01$. The third regression model $RISC \& SDI \rightarrow RE$ was significant, $p < .01$. The results of testing the mediator effect of SDI are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Testing Mediator Effect of SDI using the Method of Multiple Regression

Model	Estimated Regression Equations	R^2
<u>First condition*</u>		
M1	$SDI^{\wedge} = 8.7 + .24 (\text{RISC})$.10
<u>Second condition*</u>		

M1 $RE^{\wedge} = 4.4 - .06 (SDI1)$.19

Third condition*

M1 $RE^{\wedge} = 5.2 - .05 (SDI1) - .02 (RISC1)$.21

Note. M1 = Mediation Model, SDI = Self-Disclosure Index Scale; RISC = Relational

Interdependent Self Construal Scale; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale of the GRCS-I.

* $p < .05$

The change in the predicted relationship between RISC and RE with the introduction of SDI as a partial mediator when type of perfectionism was not utilized in the model equals to .01. The significance of this change which represents the partial mediation of SDI was evaluated based on the recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986). A z- score of the mediated effect by SDI = -3.52. The absolute value of [- 3.52] was compared with a z score of 1.96, a significant z - score at $p = .05$. Thus, SDI is a significant partial mediator in the relationship of RISC and RE. The indirect effect of introducing SDI (-.01) as a mediation variable into a relationship between RISC and RE was calculated by multiplying (.24) x (-.06); values for a and b respectively. The confidence interval for the mediation effect is {- 0.02; -0.004}. The numerical interval does not include the value of zero further indicating that the variable of SDI serves a partial mediator in the relationship between RISC and RE.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Overview of the Chapter

This chapter will discuss current findings regarding the impact of perfectionism on experiences of intimate self-disclosure in close same-sex male friendships, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal. In addition, a partial mediation effect of self-disclosure in close same-sex male friendships on the link between relational interdependent self-construal and restrictive emotionality will be presented. A hypothesized mechanism of mediation will be discussed. The overall summary and conclusions of the study will be presented. Finally, study limitations and recommendations for future research are offered.

Perfectionism and Its Impact on Individual Self-Disclosure in Close Same-Sex Male Friendships

The results of this study support the notion that adaptive perfectionists tend to be willing to self-disclose more to their close male friends about their own habits, accomplishments, fears, or embarrassments. Higher levels of self disclosure among adaptive male perfectionists are indicative of more intimate friendships (Hays, 1988). Intimate friendships are important sources of emotional support and predict overall sense of wellness (Donchi & Moore, 2004). Adaptive male perfectionists may be at a greater psychological advantage in comparison with maladaptive perfectionists because their openness and less restricted style of interpersonal interaction can lead to the utilization of close same-sex friends as better sources of emotional support.

Several researchers found that adaptive perfectionists tend to score higher on measures of self-esteem in comparison with maladaptive perfectionists (Ashby & Rice, 2002; Rice & Slaney, 2002; Grzegorek, et al., 2004). In addition, Doling et al. (1991) reported that participants who scored higher on a measure of self-esteem self-disclosed more to their best friends. It is possible

that self-disclosure and self-esteem are positively associated for male college students, hence the higher self-esteem in adaptive perfectionists may relate to a higher level of self-disclosure to their close male friends.

The finding that maladaptive male perfectionists report lower levels of intimate self-disclosure than adaptive perfectionists in close same-sex friendships may be reflective of their orientation toward hostile avoidant interpersonal behaviors in social relationships (Slaney et al., 2006). Also, this finding is consistent with conclusions from a study by Kawamura and Frost (2004) where maladaptive female perfectionists tended to conceal more sensitive information about their college-related activities from their family members. Ashby and Rice (2002) found that maladaptive perfectionists were sensitive to external criticism. It is feasible that maladaptive perfectionists may want to conceal sensitive information about their evaluative thoughts or feelings in order to avoid being rejected by close friends.

It was expected that maladaptive perfectionists would score significantly lower on the Self-Disclosure Index Scale than nonperfectionists. The data from this study do not support this hypothesis. It is possible that maladaptive perfectionism does not relate to the construct of self-disclosure in a predictable way. It has been shown that maladaptive perfectionism usually relates to variables of psychological distress in a predictable way, meaning that on a measure of psychological distress maladaptive perfectionists tend to have a higher level of distress in comparison with adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists. A construct of self-disclosure reflects a normative developmental task (Buhrmester, 1996); it cannot be classified as a measure of psychological distress. Adaptive perfectionism may relate to measures of normative psychological functioning such as self-disclosure in a predictable way. Ashby and Martin (1996)

developed a similar argument in interpreting the results of their study on perfectionism and fear of intimacy.

Perfectionism and Success, Power, Competition of the GRCS-I. O'Neil et al. (1995) stated that men who experience a high level of gender role conflict related to success, power, and competition tend to experience persistent worries about personal achievement, professional competence, success, social status, or competition for limited resources with other men. Higher scores for both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists on the subscale of Success, Power, and Competition reflect their personal attitudes about achieving academic or professional success by means of asserting their power in competitive environments (O'Neil, 2008). The obtained findings regarding adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists may be consistent with the desires of both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists, but not nonperfectionists (Ashby & Rice, 2002; Rice & Slaney, 2002) to achieve high personal standards for their individual performances.

Perfectionism and Restrictive Emotionality of the GRCS-I. Restrictive emotionality is a key aspect of the gender role conflict that has been associated with multiple measures of psychological distress (Pederson & Vogel, 2007). Adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists appear to be least affected by restrictive emotionality because they appear to reflect normative interpersonal processes. The results obtained in a study on perfectionism and interpersonal problems by Slaney et al. (2006) provide empirical support for the assertion about adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists made in the previous statement. When the researchers examined the difference between adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists on the Inventory of Interpersonal Problems Circumplex (Alden et al., 1990), they found that adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists conveyed a friendly-submissive

interpersonal style. Adaptive perfectionists were engaged in normative interpersonal behaviors reflecting affiliation and cooperation in relationships. The current study's instruments did not measure participants' emotional expressiveness directly; however, it is possible that one aspect of engaging in normative interpersonal behaviors involves a willingness to express personal emotions and acknowledge emotions of other people in relationships.

Consistent with the definition of the Restrictive Emotionality subscale (O'Neil et al., 1986), maladaptive perfectionists' scores appear to reflect difficulties in recognizing and expressing their own feelings, or allowing other people to express their feelings in relationships with them. Maladaptive perfectionists are characterized by high scores on the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R (Rice et al., 1998; Slaney & Ashby, 1998; Slaney et al., 2001). Ashby and Rice (2002) found that the Discrepancy subscale of the APS-R was a negative predictor of a global measure of self-esteem. There is strong evidence that male college students with low self-esteem report higher scores on the Restrictive Emotionality subscale (O'Neil, 2008). These results seem to be consistent with the results of the current study.

Perfectionism and Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men of the GRCS-I. Lack of any statistical differences between adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists on RABBM may be rooted in rigid social norms that have been established in our society regarding ways males can be affectionate with other men. Males are allowed to show physical affection for each other only in the process of playing organized sports (Maccoby, 1990). Given the complex sociocultural climate in which expressing personal affection between men is restricted only to socially-authorized venues, it is feasible that college-aged males regardless of perfectionism type experience concerns regarding showing affection toward one another equally.

Perfectionism and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations of the GRCS-I. The finding regarding perfectionism and conflict between work and family relations is consistent with the operational definitions of maladaptive perfectionism and masculinity. The construct of discrepancy, a defining aspect of maladaptive perfectionism, measures the perceived discrepancy between high standards and performance (Slaney et al., 2001). O'Neil (1981b) asserted that professional success is one of the important values associated with masculinity, and that most males are affected by these expectations. It can be argued that maladaptive perfectionistic males' desire for success may drive them toward workaholic behaviors which in turn may leave them little time for paying attention to their family relations, leisure time, or health problems. In fact, the association between the Discrepancy subscale and the CBWF subscale is significant and explained 13% of the variance. Adaptive perfectionists, on the other hand, tend to be high achievers who have realistic expectations for their performance (Slaney et al., 2001). It appears that neither adaptive perfectionists nor nonperfectionists seem to have unrealistic expectations about their performance. Adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists may have realistic expectations about balancing work and family relations.

Perfectionism and the Relational Interpersonal Self-Conceptualization (RISC)

The degree of RISC is intended to reflect individual preferences for the incorporation of close relationships in the sense of self (Cross et al., 2000). Maladaptive aspects of perfectionism in the context of the interpersonal dimension may reflect maladaptive perfectionists' fear of rejection in relationships, social avoidance, and lack of closeness in existing relationships (Habke & Flynn, 2002). In light of existent knowledge about RISC and maladaptive perfectionism in the interpersonal context, the obtained lack of significant associations between perfectionism type and RISC among college-aged male participants with close friends is somewhat surprising. In

addition, adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists have been empirically shown to have different styles of relating to people. Specifically, maladaptive perfectionists are oriented toward socially avoidant and cold interpersonal styles whereas adaptive perfectionism, like nonperfectionists, tends to be cooperative and engaging with others (Slaney et al., 2006).

Although different interpersonal styles of engagement, as they are dictated by perfectionism type may not be significantly associated with college-aged males' preferences for interdependent relational self-construal, interesting findings were presented by Gardner and Gabriel (2004) which addressed whether males were fully responsive to a sense of relational self as measured by the RISC. Gardner, Gabriel and Hochschild (2002) found that males showed a propensity toward a greater sense of collective or group interdependent sense of self whereas women showed a greater preference toward relational interdependent sense of self. Gardner and Gabriel (2004) suggested that collective interdependence is understood in terms of one's view of self in relation to a membership in an important group rather than in terms of a close relationship. Alternatively, it is feasible that the measure of perfectionism and relational interdependent self-construal are not related or the relationships between them cannot be detected by the current instruments.

Relational Interdependent Self-Construal and Restrictive Emotionality: Partial Mediating Effect of Self-Disclosure

Although Gardner and Gabriel (2004) suggested that males may see their self-concepts in terms of important group memberships, there is a strong evidence that males see themselves in terms of close relationships as well (Cross et al., 2000). In the current study, a clear significant negative relationship between RISC and RE is partially mediated by the tendency to self-disclose about personal topics to close male friends. The mediating effect of self-disclosure in a

relationship between RISC and RE seems to be consistent with the results of previous studies. Specifically, Cross et al. (2000) found strong empirical support for the finding that individuals who scored high on the RISC tended to self-disclose more and were perceived by others as sensitive and responsive to other people's feelings. In addition, Swenson (1999) indicated that males who reported self-disclosing more about personal topics in their friendships tended to experience less psychological distress associated with restricted emotionality.

Summary of Findings.

Close friendships are important intimate relationships in people's lives. Eighty three percent of the participants in this study reported having close friends. It was found that adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists differed significantly on the Self-Disclosure Index Scale and on three subscales of the Gender Role Conflict Scale-I: Success, Power, Competition; Restrictive Emotionality; and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations. Adaptive perfectionists reported fewer difficulties with expressing their feelings and balancing their schoolwork, family life, and leisure activities in comparison with maladaptive perfectionists. Adaptive perfectionists did not differ from nonperfectionists in the ways they expressed their emotions, balanced their work responsibilities and attended to their personal and family responsibilities. Unlike adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists reported having higher levels of concern with restrictive emotionality and more conflicts between work and family relations. Nonperfectionists reflected the heterogeneity of the general population and incorporated positive and negative characteristics associated with their psychological functioning. In this study, nonperfectionists did not disclose more than maladaptive perfectionists in close friendships and did not differ from adaptive perfectionists in

ways they experienced difficulties with being emotionally expressive or finding a way to balance work and family.

The detection of partial mediation in the relationship between a relational sense of self and a degree of one's difficulty with expressing feelings does not indicate a causal relationship between the variables of interest. Yet it remains possible that efforts that are directed toward a stronger internalization of close relationships in one's view of oneself by self-disclosing can lead to a lessened fear of embracing an emotionally rich life in connection with others.

Conclusions

Implications for theoretical understanding of perfectionist interpersonal patterns of college-aged males. Type of perfectionism appears to relate to experiences of intimate self-disclosure in college-aged male same-sex friendships. It is reasonable to suggest that for adaptive perfectionists, in comparison to maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists, experiences of more intimate self-disclosure lead to a greater sense of interpersonal closeness which in turn may relate to stronger interpersonal patterns of affiliation and cooperation in their close male same-sex friendships. Although a degree of mutual emotional comfort in friendships of adaptive perfectionists was not directly measured in this study, it is feasible to speculate that given that adaptive perfectionists tend to be comfortable with sharing their thoughts and feelings with close friends, they may feel comfortable with their close friends self-disclosing as well. Adaptive perfectionists may contribute to a more egalitarian interpersonal pattern in their close male friendships. Overall, the finding that adaptive perfectionists self-disclosed more in close friendships contributes to the list of positive relationships associated with being an adaptive perfectionist.

Gender role conflict appears to be defined by interpersonal styles of interaction specific for each facet of the gender role conflict (Mahalik, 2000). Adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism tend to contribute to specific patterns in which different aspects of the multidimensional measure of a gender-role conflict can be experienced by college-aged male participants. Both adaptive and maladaptive male perfectionists are striving to be high achievers in the context of the established male gender role norms. Individuals with high concerns with success, power, and competition tend to be engaged in a wide array of dominant and hostile behaviors including mistrustful, cold, hostile, detached or assured interpersonal patterns (Mahalik, 2000). Since adaptive perfectionists tend to prefer friendly-submissive interpersonal style, it is probably more likely that they will engage in competitive, assured, and exhibitionist behaviors more often than maladaptive perfectionists. Maladaptive perfectionists who are oriented toward hostile-dominant behaviors will be more likely to engage in competitive, mistrustful, cold and hostile interpersonal behaviors. The interplay of perfectionism type and success, power, and competition of the gender role conflict may contribute to more hostile experiences for maladaptive perfectionists even though a level of distress associated with this subscale is shown to be equaled for adaptive and nonperfectionists.

High concerns with restrictive emotionality tend to lead males toward detached and inhibited interpersonal behaviors. Maladaptive perfectionists having high concerns with restrictive emotionality can be at higher risk for engaging in avoidant, emotionally detached interpersonal behaviors. In relation to emotional expressivity, maladaptive aspects of perfectionism may have a stronger impact on individual experiences than one's adherence to masculine norms of interpersonal behavior. Since adaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists do not differ in their experiences of restrictive emotionality, higher scores on RE by maladaptive

perfectionists can be in part explained by the impact of maladaptive perfectionism. Maladaptive perfectionists have higher levels of gender-role conflict on RE and CBWF further supporting the notion that maladaptive perfectionism is associated with psychological distress factors.

It is notable that males with high concerns on the RABBM tend to engage in hostile – friendly interpersonal patterns which are characterized by detached, inhibited, and submissive interpersonal behaviors. Interpersonal patterns for RABBM tend follow the same interpersonal profiles as for RE (Mahalik, 2000). In this case, a high level of male discomfort with affectionate behaviors toward other males in everyday activities outside of organized sports may be more dominant and inhibit any influence of perfectionism type on gender role conflict.

In sum, this study provided additional support for the notion that positive and negative aspects of perfectionism relate differently to interpersonal patterns. Male adaptive perfectionists do report higher levels of self-disclosure exhibiting normative patterns of friendly-submissive interpersonal style in comparison with maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists. Adaptive perfectionists may be at an advantage in comparison with maladaptive perfectionists in dealing with gender role conflicts related to expressing emotions and balancing professional responsibilities, leisure activities, and family involvement.

Implications for clinical practice. The obtained significant findings related to the impact of perfectionism on experiences of self-disclosure and gender-role conflict may be important to consider for clinicians and clinical supervisors who provide and supervise direct mental health care in university counseling centers. Tentatively, clients may benefit from being evaluated in relation to their perfectionism type and their patterns of gender-role conflict. They may benefit from understanding how various aspects of gender role conflict contribute to their ongoing psychological stressors. Male clients may be encouraged to explore their views and experiences

regarding success, power, competition, restrictive emotionality, and conflicts between work and family in individual or group therapy settings. It is possible that male clients may experience emotionally richer friendships if they can be made aware of psychological barriers that prevent them from sharing themselves intimately with their male friends.

The empirical support which is obtained in the current study for a partial mediation model involving RISC, RE, and SDI allows hypothesizing how males' lives can be emotionally enriched. In individual, couples, and group psychotherapy, male clients can be encouraged to explore how they view themselves relation to their important relationships, and the ways they attempt to facilitate closeness and intimacy in their relationships. By virtue of encouraging college-aged males to put more emphasis on the process of relational interdependence as it relates to their views of themselves, they can reduce feelings of psychological distress associated with restrictive emotionality.

Tentatively, male clients can be encouraged to acknowledge their degree of association with the behavioral patterns of the independent versus interdependent relational self-concepts. They can be assisted with implementing new behavioral patterns such as intimate self-disclosure that are associated with relational interdependence. College-aged males can have a stronger sense of relational selves without threatened by incorporating values of cooperation and affiliation which may be accomplished in part through personal self-disclosure.

Limitations of the Current Study

The study participants were undergraduate students; therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalized beyond this group. The recruiting methods were not standardized. For instance, some students were recruited via direct email invitation or by invitations posted through list serve/ newsletters whereas other students were recruited through direct in-person

presentations by the principal investigator. The participants were offered opportunities to enter their names in a prize drawing. In addition to that some students were offered academic credit for their participation in the study. This combination of several incentives that were made available to prospective participants might have influenced their motivation for participation in the study.

It is feasible that participants' responses to the study instruments were affected by their responses to other items from the study or by the ordering of the instruments in the electronic file. The utilization of an electronic file and the availability of the study materials via the Internet made it procedurally easier for participants to take part in the study. At same time, I could not ensure that the physical environment in which participants were responding was conducive to optimal test-taking. The participants were asked to respond to 93 items using their personal computers. A fatigue effect might have influenced their motivation to respond to study instruments as carefully as possible.

Students who participated in the study reported fairly high GPAs. It is feasible that the participants were more achievement-oriented than other students in a general college population. Also, at least 50% of the sample came from Colleges of Business and Engineering. It is possible that people with similar intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics and values chose to pursue careers in these areas. The results of the study may be affected by a self-selection effect, and thus have limited generalizability.

The final number of participants who were included in the study appeared to satisfy the requirements for sufficient power to detect significant differences for MANOVA and follow-up ANOVAs. In the test of mediation effects, it is accepted that this test often has low power (Frazier et al., 2004). Hoyle and Kenny (1999) found that samples of 200 participants have sufficient power of at least .8 for the testing of a mediation model. MacKinnon, Lockwood,

Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002), however, found that a mediation method described by Baron and Kenny (1986) required at least 500 participants for the mediation test to be powerful. The current study's sample of 231 participants might not be powerful enough to detect a full mediating effect of self-disclosure if such an effect is actually present in the relationship between RISC and RE.

The evaluation of a mediation analysis where self-disclosure was found to be a partial mediator for RISC and RE was performed using the method of multiple regressions. Although this method is a widely acceptable method of a mediation analysis and the most commonly documented approach in existent psychological literature, structural equation modeling (SEM) is considered the preferred method (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier, Barron, & Tix, 2004). The accepted advantage of SEM is that it can control for measurement error, delivers data on the degree of fit of the entire mediation model, and it is a much more flexible method overall. Finally, this study, similar most studies related to perfectionism and interpersonal phenomena, was nonexperimental and exploratory in nature. As a result, no causal inferences can be made.

Suggestions for Future Research

In the current study, I examined how perfectionism is related to experiences of self-disclosure and four aspects of gender role conflict for college-aged males with close same-sex friends. What remains unknown is how contextual factors like individual racial, cultural, ethnic, socioeconomic backgrounds or personal attachment style can relate to perfectionistic and nonperfectionistic college-aged males' (1) levels of self-disclosure in their close same-sex friendships and (2) their drive for success and power in society. Also, it is not known whether same-sex male friends' sexual orientation can mediate a relationship between perfectionism and restrictive emotionality. To my knowledge, this attempt to examine how perfectionism type

affects RABBM was a first effort to understand how perfectionism may influence male patterns of affectionate nonverbal communication with one another. It may be important to conduct a qualitative investigation that can further explore if any associations indeed exist between perfectionism type and RABBM. As it inferred from the definition of discrepancy, adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists, and nonperfectionists differ in terms of their relationships to their own expectations about their performance across all life tasks. It is not clear if all three groups share the same values about life and work balance. Examining these values may contribute to new directions in the process of exploration of relationship between perfectionism and CBWF

In addition, it may be important to examine the impact of perfectionism type on males' independent self-construal. There is considerable evidence presented in literature that males are raised with principles of independent self-construal but want to incorporate close relationships in their views of themselves (Cross & Madson, 1997; Cross et al., 2000). Relationships between perfectionism and independent self-construal, interdependent relational self-construal and group-related self-construal may highlight areas of emotional remediation for males which will help men to achieve a goal of successful functioning: autonomy and interdependence (Blatt, 1992).

To increase the external validity of the current study, it would be beneficial to learn more about the impact of perfectionism on experiences of self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal among young men from 18 to 23 years old who chose not to or cannot afford to be in college. It would be important to recruit participants who have joined the workforce right after high school or are attending vocational training or general literacy programs. Also, in light of drastically changing demographics in the United States, it is important to continue exerting additional efforts for ensuring the successful recruitment of male participants from diverse communities. Recruiting male participants who are college students

and their diverse peers who are in the workforce would help to enrich our understanding about the psychological experiences of non-college bound young people.

The current study looked at the construct of self-disclosure as a key observable measure of intimate connection in a close friendship. It may be valuable to recruit participants and their close friends to participate in a study and evaluate whether both friends' ratings of each other's degree of self-disclosure relate in a meaningful way. In addition, integrating both close friends in a research study will enable researchers to evaluate the impact of adaptive perfectionism, maladaptive perfectionism, and nonperfectionism on close friends' experiences of each other's contributions to their friendships. Also, it may be of interest to investigate whether having satisfying close male friendships can help both friends in building strong senses of autonomy and interdependence that are translated into healthy romantic relationships.

In summary, the current study addressed how self-disclosure, gender role conflict, and relational interdependent self-construal are associated with positive and negative aspects of perfectionism for male college students with close friends. Potential areas of empirical exploration that relate to all of these concepts can help us to evaluate how perfectionism affects multiple areas of intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning as well as to help researchers and clinicians to appreciate the value of friendship in young men's lives.

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Appendix A: Demographic Information

Please fill out the appropriate information in the space provided to the left of each item:

1. Your Age: _____
2. Year in College: _____
3. Your Major: _____
4. Your current cumulative grade point average: _____
5. Your Gender: _____
6. Your Sexual Orientation: _____

1 = Bisexual

2 = Gay

3 = Heterosexual

4 = Questioning

5 = Transgendered

7. Your Ethnicity: _____

1 = Asian American

2 = Black American

3 = Hispanic American

4 = White American: please specify

5 = Biracial/ Multiracial: please specify

6 = Foreign National: please specify

8. Your Same-Sex Friendships:

Please indicate what applies best to you:

I have a close same -sex friend (s) with whom I can easily communicate and confide my personal feelings and problems_____

1-Yes

2- No

I have known this person (s) for _____

1- at least 1 month

2- at least 1 month but no more than 6 months

3- more than 6 months

I have a same-sex good friend (s) with whom I enjoy doing things that I like but not being open about my persona feelings or problems_____

1 = Yes

2 = No

I have known this person (s) for _____

1- at least 1 month

2- at least 1 month but no more than 6 months

3- More than 6 months

Appendix B: **Self-Disclosure Index Scale**

Instructions

The following items are designed to measure the degree to which respondents had disclosed about personal topics to a same-sex friend. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to all the items.

:

Respond on the answer line to the right of each item by using the scale below to describe your degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement

0	1	2	3	4
discuss not all				discuss fully and completely

1. My personal habits. _____
2. Things I have done which I feel guilty about. _____
3. Things I wouldn't do in public. _____
4. My deepest feelings. _____
5. What I like and dislike about myself. _____
6. What is important to me in life. _____
7. What makes me a person I am. _____
8. My worst fears. _____
9. Things I have done which I am proud of. _____
10. My close relationships with other people. _____

Appendix C: **Gender Role Conflict Scale**

Instructions:

The following items are designed to measure the degree to which respondents agree or disagree about their personal gender role attitudes, behaviors and conflicts. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to all of the items.

Respond on the answer line to the left of each item by using the scale below to describe your degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	slightly agree	agree	strongly agree

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

17. Finding time to relax is difficult for me. _____
18. Doing well all the time is important to me. _____
19. I have difficulties expressing my tender feelings. _____
20. Hugging other men is difficult for me. _____
21. I often feel that I need to be in charge of those around me. _____
22. Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior. _____
23. Competing with others is the best way to succeed. _____
24. Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth. _____
25. I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling. _____
26. I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me. _____
27. My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like. _____
28. I strive to be more successful than others. _____
29. I do not like to show emotions to other people. _____.
30. Telling my partner my feelings about him/her during sex is difficult for me. _____
31. My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life (home, health, leisure) _____
32. I am often concerned about how others evaluate my performance at work or school. _____
33. Being very personal with other men makes me feel uncomfortable. _____
34. Being smarter or physically stronger than others men is important to me. _____
35. Men who are overly friendly to me, make me wonder about their sexual preference (men or women). _____

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

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

1
strongly
disagree

2
disagree

3
neutral

4
slightly
agree

5
agree

6
strongly
agree

Appendix D: **Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale**

Instructions:

The following items designed to measure a general orientation of a person toward representing oneself in terms of close relationships. Please respond to all of the items. Use your first impression while responding to these items.

Respond on the answer line to the right of each item by using the scale below to describe your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. My close relationships are an important reflection of who I am_____
2. When I feel very close to someone, it often feels to me like that person is an important part of who I am_____
3. I usually feel a strong sense of pride when someone close to me has an important accomplishment_____
4. I think one of the most important parts of who I am can be captured by looking at my close friends and understanding who they are_____
5. When I think of myself, I often think of my close friends or family also_____
6. If a person hurts someone close to me, I feel personally hurt as well_____
7. In general, my close relationships are an important part of my self-image_____
8. Overall, my close relationships have very little to do with how I feel about myself_____
9. My close relationships are unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am._____
10. My sense of pride comes from knowing who I have as close friends._____
11. When I establish a close friendship with someone, I usually develop a strong sense of identification with that person._____.

Appendix E: **Almost Perfect Scale- Revised**

Instructions:

The following items are designed to measure attitudes people have toward themselves, their performance, and toward others. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to all of the items. Use your first impression and do not spend too much time on individual items in responding.

Respond on the answer line to the right of each item by using the scale below to describe your degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I have high standards for my performance at work and at school.____
2. I am an orderly person._____
3. I often feel frustrated because I can't meet my goals._____
4. Neatness is important to me._____
5. If you don't expect much out of yourself, you will never succeed._____
6. My best just never seems to be good enough for me._____
7. I think things should be put away in their place._____
8. I have high expectations for myself._____
9. I rarely live up to my high standards._____
10. I like to always be organized and disciplined.____
11. Doing my best never seems to be enough._____
12. I set very high standards for myself._____
13. I am never satisfied with my accomplishments._____
14. I expect the best from myself._____
15. I often worry about not measuring up to my expectations._____

16. My performance rarely measures up to my standards. _____
17. I am not satisfied even when I know I have done my best. _____
18. I try to do my best at everything I do. _____
19. I am seldom able to meet my own standards for performance. _____
20. I am hardly ever satisfied with my performance. _____
21. I hardly ever feel that what I've done is good enough. _____
22. I have a strong need to strive for excellence. _____
23. I often feel disappointment after completing a task because I know I could have done better. _____

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix F: **INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH**
The Pennsylvania State University

Title of Project: Male Friendships Among Perfectionists: Self-Disclosure, Gender-Role Conflict, and Relational Self- Construal

Principal Investigator: Eleonora Odes, MA
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 16802
 814-865-3427
exo904@psu.edu

Dissertation Advisor: Robert Slaney, Ph. D.
 307 Cedar Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA
 16802
 814-865-3427
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1. **Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of gender-role conflict and relational view of self on the experiences of self-disclosure in male friendships among perfectionists and nonperfectionists.
2. **Procedure to be followed:** The research survey is available exclusively online and needs to be completed via a secure web-based file. If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete five questionnaires.
3. **Discomforts and Risks:** This study involves minimal risk; that is no risks to your physical or mental health beyond those encountered in the normal course of everyday life. However, some of the questions may be perceived as mildly invasive or upsetting. If you wish to speak with someone regarding your reactions to any questions, feel free to contact the principal investigator (Eleonora Odes, 327 Cedar) or Counseling and Psychological Services Center (221 Ritenour Building, 863-0395). Questions regarding this statement or your rights as a participant of this research study should be directed to the Office for Research Protections in 212 Kern Building (814) 865-1775.
4. **Benefits:** As a result of participation in this study, you may gain insight into your personal beliefs and practices and how they affect your experiences with male friends. The benefits to society include the potential of expanding our understanding on how male friendships can be improved and become source of greater satisfaction and connection in men's lives.
5. **Duration:** This study should take no more than thirty minutes to complete.
6. **Statement of Confidentiality:** Please be assured that all responses will be strictly confidential. Names or contact information will not be collected to assure confidentiality.

Participants who choose to request extra academic credit for participating in the research study will be directed to a separate web-based survey that is not linked to their data file where they can record their names and course number. Participants' names will be shared with their instructors so that course credits can be properly recorded for their participations. Likewise, participants who choose to participate in a random prize drawing will be directed to a separate web-based survey that is not linked to their data file where they can record their names and contact information so that the winners of a random drawing can be contacted. The data will be stored in the secure location. Participants' confidentiality will be kept to the degree permitted by the technology utilized for the data collection in study. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The principal investigator and her advisor will have sole access to your responses. The following may review and copy records related to this research: The Office of Human Research Protections in the U. S. department of Health and Human Services, Penn State University's Social Science Institutional Review Board, and Penn State University's Office for Research Protections.

7. **Rights to Ask Questions:** You can ask questions about this research study or request a copy of the results of this study by contacting Eleonora Odes at 814-865-3427 or by emailing her at exo904@psu.edu. You can also call this number if you have concerns about this research, or if you feel that you have been harmed by this study. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, or have concerns or general questions about the research, contact the Pennsylvania State University's Office for Research Protections at (814) 865-1775. You may also call this number if you cannot reach the research team or wish to talk to someone else.
8. **Compensation:** All participants who complete this research study will be able to enter a prize drawing for eight \$ 25 dollars gift certificates for Penn State Bookseller or Best Buy Electronics. Winners of a random prize drawing will be able to specify their preference for a type of a gift certificate
9. **Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to participate in this study is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. Refusal to take part in or withdrawing from the study will involve no penalty of loss of benefits that you would receive otherwise.

You must be **18 years of age or older** to consent to take part in this research study. Clicking on the **Continue** icon at the bottom of the screen and completion of the study materials implies your informed consent. Please print out a copy of this form for your records.

This informed consent form was reviewed and approved by the Office for Research Protection and the Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB # 26429, Doc. #1) at Pennsylvania State University (10-15-2007). It will expire on (09-10-2008). DWM

Appendix G: Descriptive Statistics for the Instruments

Instrument	Subscale	M	SD	Min Value	Max Value	Range
APS-R	High Standards	41	5.9	15	49	34
APS-R	Discrepancy	44	14.1	15	84	69
APS--R	Order	20	4.8	4.0	28	24
SDI		23	7.0	00	36	36
GRCS- I	SPC	3.9	.76	1.8	5.9	4.1
GRCS-I	RE	3.1	.89	1.2	5.7	4.5
GRCS-I	RABBM	3.1	.91	1.0	5.6	5.0
GRCS-I-	CBWB	3.7	1.0	1.2	6.0	4.8
RISC		58	9.0	23	77	48

Note. APS-R =Almost Perfect Scale- Revised; SDI = Self-Disclosure Index Scale; GRCS-I = Gender Role Conflict Scale-I: SPC = Success, Power Competition subscale; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale; RISC = Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale.

Appendix H. Instruments: Measure of Internal Consistency

Instrument	Subscale	Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	
		N ¹ = 279	N ² = 231
APS-R	High Standards	.86	.83
APS-R	Order	.87	.85
APS-R	Discrepancy	.93	.92
SDI		.89	.87
GRCS-I	SPC	.84	.84
GRCS-I	RE	.87	.86
GRCS-I	RABBM	.84	.81
GRCS-I	CBWF	.84	.83
RISC		.87	.85

Note. N¹= the entire sample that includes participants with close and good friends; N²= the sample that included participants with close friends only

APS-R=Almost Perfect Scale- Revised; SDI = Self-Disclosure Index Scale; GRCS-I = Gender Role Conflict Scale-I: SPC = Success, Power Competition subscale; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale; RISC = Relational Interdependent Self-Construal Scale.

Appendix I: Intercorrelations (Pearson Coefficients)

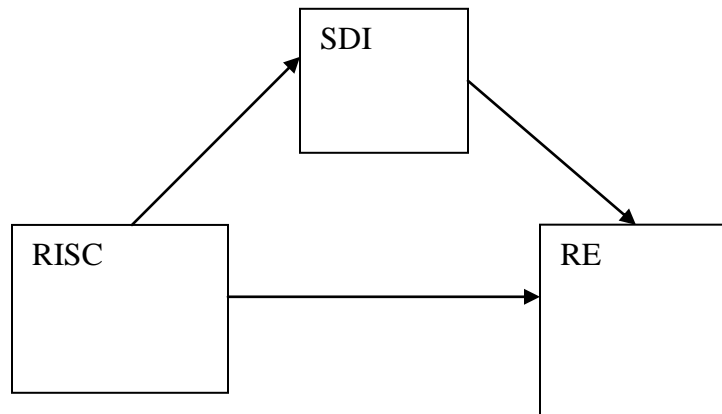
Between Subscales of the APS-R, GRCS-I, SDI, and RISC

Scale	Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. APS-R	HS	1.0	-.03	.60**	.11	.45**	.05	.09	.11	.21**
2. APS-R	DIS	-.03	1.0	.00	-.19*	.32**	.36**	.19*	.36**	-.10
3. APS-R	Order	.60**	.00	1.0	.03	.24*	-.02	-.02	.08	.10
4. SDI		.11	-.19**	.03	1.0	-.03	-.44**	-.40**	.13*	.31*
5. GRCS-I	SPC	.45**	.32**	.24*	-.03	1.0	.34**	.36**	.24**	.11
6. GRCS-I	RE	.05	.36**	-.02	-.44**	.34**	1.0	.55**	.33**	.28**
7. GRCS-I	RABBM	.09	.19**	-.02	-.40**	.36**	.55**	1.0	.19**	.17**
8. GRCS-I	CBWF	.11	.36**	.08	.13*	.24**	.33**	.19*	1.0	.04
9. RISC		.21**	-.10	.10	.31**	.11	-.28**	-.17**	-.04	1.0

Note: APS-R = Almost Perfect Scale Revised; HS = High Standards; DIS = Discrepancy; GRCS-I = Gender Role Conflict Scale I; SPC = Success, Power, and Competition subscale; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men subscale; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale.

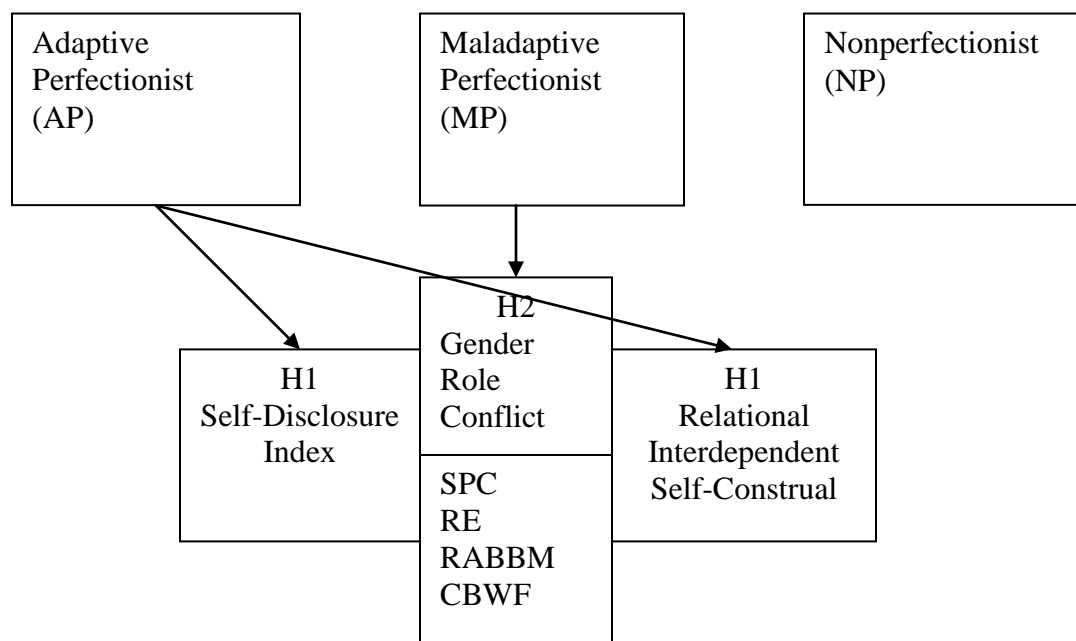
**p < .01; *p < .05; N= 231.

Appendix J: SDI as a Mediator in a Relationship Between RISC and RE



Note. Hypothesized mediation model testing whether the relationship between the relational interdependent self-construal (RISC) and the restrictive emotionality (RE) is mediated by self-disclosure (SDI) in same-sex friendships for 231 college-age men.

Appendix K: Schematic Representation of the Study's Research Questions



Note. The Self-Disclosure Index = SDI; Gender Role Conflict subscales: SPC = Success, Power, Competition, RE = Restrictive Emotionality, RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men , CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations ; RISC = the Relational Interdependent Self-Construct Scale.

H1 = Expected highest scores for adaptive perfectionists on the measures of SDI and RISC.

H2 = Expected higher scores for maladaptive perfectionists on the four subscales of the gender Role Conflict Scale-I.

Appendix L: Multivariate Measures of Kurtosis and Skewness

TP	DV	Skewness	SE1	Kurtosis	SE2
AP	SDI	-.04	.29	-.28	.58
AP	SPC	-.08	.29	.63	.58
AP	RE	.34	.29	-.53	.58
AP	RABBM	.11	.29	-.35	.58
AP	CBWF	.03	.29	-.63	.58
AP	RISC	-.48	.29	.37	.58
<hr/>					
MP	SDI	-.20	.30	-.28	.59
MP	SPC	-.30	.30	-.28	.59
MP	RE	-.22	.30	-.64	.59
MP	RABBM	.29	.30	-.45	.59
MP	CBWF	-.25	.30	-.10	.59
MP	RISC	-.41	.30	-.02	.59
<hr/>					
NP	SDI	-.21	.24	-.18	.48
NP	SPC	-.29	.24	.07	.48
NP	RE	.29	.24	.33	.48
NP	RABBM	-.05	.24	-.34	.48
NP	CBWF	-.10	.24	-.77	.48
NP	RISC	-.32	.24	-.47	.48

Note. AP = Adaptive Perfectionist; MP = Maladaptive Perfectionist; NP = Nonperfectionist; TP = Type of Perfectionism; DV = Dependent Variable; SE1 = Standard Error of Skewness; SE2 = Standard Error of Kurtosis; SDI = Self Disclosure Index Scale; SPC = Success, Power, Competition subscale of the GRCS-I; RE = Restrictive Emotionality subscale of the GRCS-I; RABBM = Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men of the GRCS-I; CBWF = Conflict Between Work and Family Relations subscale of the GRCS-I; RISC = Relational Interdependent Self- Construal Scale.

VITA
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