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FRIENDSHIP PATTERNS, DESIRE FOR CHANGE AND SATISFACTION

Thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters in
Science at Massey University

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1994

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This thesis is dedicated to my Nana & Da.

ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study was to investigate friendship patterns and change within these over the past twelve years. A replication of an earlier friendship study conducted using a New Zealand sample was undertaken. Additional information was gathered relating to satisfaction with elements of friendship and desire for change in friendships. Few changes in variables relating to friendship patterns were expected. Being in a relationship was expected to reduce the numbers of friends possessed especially in cross-sex friendships. Both men and women were expected to value women more in areas of emotional support, discussing personal problems and therapeutic value in friendship. Men and women were expected to rate greater satisfaction with women in areas of assistance and emotional support. Men were expected to desire greater increases in friendship numbers and conversation intimacy than women. A sample of 64 male and 78 female Massey University Psychology students volunteered as participants. Comparisons were made between the present study's findings and those of earlier work, noting changes in males friendships. Most friendship patterns were found to be largely unchanged. Predictions about valuing friendship were supported. Satisfaction data indicated that women rate themselves more satisfied in same-sex friendships than men. Men rated themselves as more satisfied in opposite-sex friendships than women. No significant sex-differences were noted for desire for change in friendship. However both sexes would like more friends of each type, and greater personal conversation in friendship. Results are discussed with reference to change in friendship patterns and traditional male sex-roles.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to extend hearty thanks to Dr. Keith Tuffin, my supervisor. His bravery, assistance and support was pivotal in the completion of this work.

Thanks also to Kerry Chamberlain, Shannon Roache, and Joan Barnes for their various roles in my studies and this research.

I would like to register my appreciation to Joan and Elaine in the office for their assistance in my getting things done.

To Michelle, thanks, though you are far away, you seem so far away. Helen, I am grateful for your tolerance and gentle ways over the past few months (it aint been easy). I have been lucky enough to enjoy the support and company of friends such as Karyn, Cath and Shane, thank you.

To Mum and Ken, Dad and Rose, and ALL my family, I couldn't have survived my years of study with out you all. (One last thing, if the bank phones pretend you don't know me)

Finally thanks to those students who took the time to respond to my questionnaire.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION:

In undertaking this thesis the primary aim was to investigate the possible changes that have occurred in friendship patterns. The secondary aim was to explore satisfaction and desire for change in friendships.

It seems that men are changing, but not quickly or loudly. New role models for men exist beside, rather than instead of, older ones. The differences that exist presently between the well known and accepted older role models for men and newer ones create a tension between them. Men today are exploring new options in work environments, looking at physical and emotional well-being, yet still suffer higher rates of stress related illness and disease. Fathers are more compassionate and helpful, yet the burden of responsibility still rests principally with mothers. Males are attempting to widen their emotional range of experience and expression, yet still violence against women, and homophobia seem to be increasing. So it seems that we live in a time of transition in the definition of male roles. The transition is not of one model simply replacing another, but one in which the tension between emergent traditions produce some new synthesis (Kimmel, 1987, cited in Doyle, 1991).

The present study investigated patterns in friendship, and compares these to the previous findings of Caldwell and Peplau (1982), and Aukett, Ritchie and Mill (1988). Exploration of satisfaction with three aspects of friendship (assistance, emotional support and socializing) was made. Finally desire for change in friendship numbers and personal conversation within friendship was undertaken.

IMPORTANCE OF FRIENDSHIP

Research has revealed the positive influence of friendships on psychological

Cramer, 1990; Reisman, 1985; Rubin, 1985; Townsend, McCracken, & Wilton, 1988; Winstead & Derlega, 1985). Costanza, Derlega, & Winstead, (1988) have noted some negative effects of some types of friendship in interaction. However the majority of research in this area provides support for the positive effects of friendships.

Other studies look more specifically at links between socialization with friends and life or health outcomes.

FRIENDSHIP: NEED AND MENTAL HEALTH

It seems logical that friendships are a central ingredient for psychological well-being. More importantly certain psychiatric disorder nomenclature include peer relation disturbances (DSM-3-R, 1987), for example schizophrenia, infantile autism, pervasive development disorder, and avoidant disorder (Bednar & Wells, 1989; Reisman, 1985). Other disorders such as attention deficit disorder, and oppositional disorder consist of behavior likely to result in peer rejection. It can be said having friends is not a symptom of disorder, but having none can be. A variety of theorists believed in the importance of friendships and framed it's function in different ways, it is important to consider some of these before covering recent research outlining more specific utilities of friendship.

The present study does not attempt to validate or extend theory in the area of friendship. However it is useful to consider some of the more basic theoretical functions of friendship.

THEORY & FUNCTION OF FRIENDSHIP

Adler viewed social interest as an empathetic attitude, a sense of concern for others, and a wish to be of service as a primary means of constructively overcoming feelings of inadequacy (Bischof, 1970). Friendship containing

caring and co-operation served to instruct a child's social interest. Friendship was viewed as only one means to cultivate social interest. The kind of friendship (positive or negative) and the importance of the attitudes and skills acquired from friendship was significant in promoting favorable or unfavorable effects in adulthood and certain roles such as marriage. Adler viewed a primary difference in friendship type to be whether the relationship was co-operative or competitive.

Sullivan (1947) saw the development of 'chums' in childhood as central in developing from insensitivity to compassion and caring. The experiences and security experienced by these chums were almost as important as the child's own in this development. The seemingly blunt and cruel critical reactions of these chum-peers shape behavior during this stage. Anxiety stemming from negative evaluations coupled with positive responses for conforming behavior alter behavior patterns as a function of increasing status and a broadening of behavior standards away from just the immediate family. Acquiring a 'chum' with which confidences could be exchanged and fondness felt, was a milestone in development according to Sullivan (1947).

Identity formation was the principle task of adolescence according to Erikson (Reisman, 1985). Intimacy was the psychological attainment of early adulthood. Intimacy for Erikson required a commitment and exclusiveness and an inner strength to abide by such commitments despite the effort and sacrifices involved. With regard to friendships Erikson's theory saw adolescence as a period where engaging significant friendships could assist in overcoming the crisis of intimacy verses isolation. Erikson also viewed the culture in which relationships developed would have an influence on the outcome of development.

Cognitive developmental theory looks for growth in understanding to

determine the nature of relationships that are formed and the level of social competence that any individual demonstrates (Reisman, 1985). Selman and Selman (cited in Reisman) proposed a five stage theory of friendship, largely dependent on the development of the ability to be empathic. Friends according to this model would be expected to be exclusive, engage in intimate communication, and work towards mutual, longer range goals. This theory was developed from interview data using children. Normative research using older populations would be necessary to relate this to adults.

Cognitive theory such as Bandura (1977) focuses on the significance of models and vicarious learning. Within this framework friendships develop along lines learned earlier in life from sources available to a child. They may be modified through time with exposure to others. Support for this formulation can be seen in Robins (1966) research in to juvenile delinquents. Robins suggested that there is a link between friendship patterns of delinquents and their behavior. This principally viewed the roles of friendship as teaching and encouraging delinquent behavior and locking youths into a peer structure in which destructive competitive and violent behavior were viewed "normal" or "good", and were necessary for membership in the clique. Delinquent groups friendships were considered bound together in tight camaraderie, which was destabilized by non-conforming members.

Rubin (1980) also saw negative aspects of exclusive friendships. Exclusiveness was considered to lead to stereotyping and rejection of different others. Any change such as conflict, disappointment, and failure to live up to expectations would be perceived as a threat to the security of such a relationship and would result in resentment and jealousy. However close friendships were still considered to possess, by and large, many more positive rewards than disadvantages.

Jung saw the function of friendship as being positive or negative depending on the basic personality of the person. Introverted persons would lose personal energy to the world by being with others and extroverted persons would gain energy by being with others (Duck, 1991). Both were seen as normal, but the outcomes of engaging in friendship were relative to this basic personality typing.

The present study recognizes the differences in these theoretical approaches to understanding the development and function of friendships. These theories also stress the development of friendships as necessary for 'normal' development and harmonious relations with others later in life. The present study only wishes to draw attention to their basic belief in the importance of engaging others in intimate friendships.

UTILITY OF FRIENDSHIP

The following studies investigated the assumption that friendships serve us in (mostly) positive ways. Attention is drawn to qualities of friendship and how they serve to promote well being.

Buhrke and Fuqua (1987) noted that friends were contacted more frequently in times of stress for their supportive qualities. Friends were found more important, and more utilized in grief resolution than family members (Durbin, 1993). This suggests that friends are used in times of crisis or stress, and presumably have some benefit in reducing or coping with such demands. This assumption is supported by Winstead, Derlega, Lewis, Sanchez-Hucles and Clare (1992). Their study found interacting with friends offered more social support and lowered depression ratings than interaction with strangers.

Townsend, McCracken and Wilton (1988) conducted a study of popularity and intimacy as predictors of psychological well-being in adolescents using a sample of New Zealand fourth form students. They criticized the use of friend numbers (popularity) in research as a method of assessing need for social skills training, claiming that such research was missing the vital ingredient of intimacy as an important quality of friendship. Their results found intimacy in friendship (rather than popularity) to be more predictive of psychological adjustment.

Self esteem has been related to psychological well being (see Bednar & Wells, 1989 for a recent review). Low self esteem has been related to psychological disturbance such as mood disorders and anxiety (Kaplan & Sadock (1991). Increasing levels of self esteem correlate with lesser degrees of disturbance (Bednar & Wells, 1989). Cramer (1990) found self esteem to have a significant positive relationship with self disclosure. This relationship was present for same and opposite sex friends, and for romantic partners, but not casual friends. The sample included only women and can be criticized on the grounds of a lack of generalizability to males. The relationship between self-esteem and self disclosure was strongest in the romantic relationship and same-sex friend category, and suggests that development of intimacy in friendship is influenced by the self esteem of individuals.

Cramer's (1990) study also looked at facilitative variables of; regard, unconditionality, empathy and congruence on self esteem. Facilitative variables were found to show significant positive correlation with self esteem. Using partial correlations it was noted that removing the effect of the facilitative variable removed the significance of the correlation. This suggested that simply revealing personal information about the self to friends and romantic partners may not be sufficient for self esteem in the discloser. This is congruous with the Clark and Reis (1988) definition of intimacy in which self

revelation *with* perception of understanding, value and caring (which is similar to the facilitative variables) was necessary for intimacy. Thus it can be argued that Cramer's (1990) study supports the link between intimate friends, romantic partners and self esteem, which in turn had been related to psycho-physical well-being (Bednar & Wells, 1989).

Research has demonstrated the positive as well as the negative effects of social support in coping with stress (Doyle, 1991; Duck, 1990, 1991; Durbin, 1993). Some literature has demonstrated the importance of friendships as a provider of such social support (Winstead & Derlega, 1985). Winstead, Derlega, Lewis, Sanchez-Hucles and Clarke (1992), in an experimental setting found that friends were significantly more effective in providing social support than non-friend peers. Subjects experienced a stressful event (giving an impromptu speech), and were measured using the Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (MAACL) which has been demonstrated to be sensitive to affective state over short periods of time (Winstead & Derlega, 1985). They also completed likert scales rating fear of public speaking and at the conclusion a "perceived social support questionnaire". Those subjects who had friends to talk to prior to the speech were less depressed, and were judged more confident in the speech. Specifically, discussing their fear of public speaking prior to their speech produced much lowered fear than avoiding this topic. This final finding supports the concept of self revelation between friends being functional in mediating stress.

The importance of friendship in development and maintenance of well being is not only logical but is supported in literature (Cramer, 1990; Costanza, Derlega, & Winstead, 1988; Reisman, 1985; Rubin, 1985; Winstead & Derlega, 1985; Townsend, McCracken, & Wilton, 1988). Though theoretical positions stress different influences on the development and utility of friendships, they share a central tenet; that friendships are normal and necessary components in

the development of healthy functional persons. The present study seeks to detect changes within the important relationship of friendship, especially for men.

RATIONALE FOR THE PRESENT STUDY

The rationale for the present study centered about investigating change in friendship patterns. This was achieved by replicating, and extending the friendship studies of Caldwell and Peplau (1982), and Aukett, Ritchie and Mill (1988). The present work's focus is upon changes in males interaction with friends.

With recent literature (eg. Cohen, 1990; Keen, 1991) indicating a range of new role models, and roles for males, it is unclear if change in behavior has occurred as a result. The new roles suggest a variety of changes in existing ones, principally in development of males who are capable of experiencing and expressing a much wider range of emotions with out fear, guilt, or shame. Attention is paid to the harmful effects of traditional male fear of emotion and letting others become aware of their feelings (eg. depression, social withdrawal/isolation, and anger). Presently non traditional pursuits for males are greeted by-and-large with suspicion and ridicule. Non traditionalism is tantamount to deviance in the eyes of the majority. Cohen and Keen both suggest new roles for men in which acceptance for diversity is valued without derision. It is possible to view such these suggestions for new male roles as idealistic and with out support. However both authors argue the spontaneous formation and continuation of male-groups during the eighties in the western world indicates that men themselves are becoming aware of the limitations of their traditional roles. These groups are motivated by their common desire to see a new set of male roles emerge. They forward this as social evidence the beginning of a social movement rather than romantic notions of utopia from a dwindling minority. Cohen also identifies such groups as representing a cross

section of their societies.

The social evidence listed in Cohen (1990) and Keen (1991) is recognizable in New Zealand. Men's groups addressing male violence have been available in many regions for some time, and in larger centers groups and meetings can be found who address issues relating to the development of less traditional male roles in society (McLean, 1992).

The traditional male sex-role involves elements of emotional reservation, avoidance of femininity, competition and adventure seeking (McBroom, 1985; Pleck, 1976; Phillips, 1986; Thompson Grisanti & Pleck, 1985). It has been suggested that new male sex-roles would embody less competitiveness, less fear of femininity, and greater emotional engagement (Keen, 1991; Pleck, 1976). In the present study this may be evidenced by increased desire in males for personal conversation.

In addition to checking for changes in friendship patterns (particularly for males), the present study investigates satisfaction with, and desire for change in, elements of friendship. The thinking behind this is that males may still be operating under traditional sex-roles, but as a result of exposure to concepts within new male sex-roles, desire change in their interactions with friends. If this were so, lowered satisfaction with existing friendships may result. Movement towards this 'new' sex-role suggested by Pleck (1976) may see preference for close intimate friendships.

It is necessary to consider literature regarding friendship, sex-roles and change in friendships before developing hypotheses used in the present work.

CHAPTER TWO

DEFINITIONS SURROUNDING FRIENDSHIP

Friendships vary greatly in their natures, but there are some characteristics which are considered to be central. These typically are; to hold conversations, keep confidences (Argyle and Henderson, 1985, cited in Duck, 1991; Argyle, 1986), provide emotional support (Buhrke & Fuqua, 1987), be trustworthy (Rotenberg, 1986), and can self disclose to (Cozby, 1973; Davidson & Duberman, 1982; Dolgin, Meyer, & Schwartz, 1991; Walker & Wright, 1976). The present study accepts Duck's (1991) definition of friendship; they are voluntary bonds embodying qualities of openness, trust, reliability, companionship, respect, exchange of favors, and respect of privacy.

The present study considers friendship patterns in three types of friend. These are intimate, good and casual. Intimate friends are defined in the questionnaire as those who really know each other, with whom communication is free and frank, and with whom confidences, feelings and personal problems are shared. Good friends are not so close, communication is important and ranges over important matters, but lacks the personal sharing found in the previous type of friend. Finally casual friends are those who mostly share activities with, and conversation tends to center around shared activity. The main difference between these classes of friendships is the degree of intimacy within them.

An important dimension which distinguishes between types of friends relates to the degree of intimacy between parties. Intimacy can be framed in terms of the level of self revelation/disclosure between friends, with high levels of self disclosure corresponding to high levels of intimacy (Aries & Johnson 1983; Aukett et al, 1988; Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Clark & Reis, 1988; Whicker & Kronenfeld, 1986).

What differentiates between non-friends, loved ones and friends? Literature

(eg. Clark & Reis, 1988; Duck, 1991; Rubin 1985) view these types of friendship (eg best-friend or acquaintance) interaction with others as points on a continuum. Increasing levels of intimacy (evidenced by self revelation) seem to be the key variable in this continuum. Moving from non-friend or acquaintance where self revelation is nil or very low through to close friends where expression of self and personal information is common.

FRIENDSHIP, KINSHIP, AND LOVED ONES.

At the high end of intimacy friendship is considered different from loved ones such as family and romantic partners. Friendship differs from kinship in that it is a voluntary relationship often temporary in nature (Argyle 1986; Duck, 1991). The physical intimacy of lovers distinguishes itself from friendship (in most cases) (Booth & Hess, 1974). Put most simply friendships involve voluntary association and do not *usually* involve expressive sexual contact (Booth & Hess, 1974; Duck, 1991; Whicker & Kronenfeld, 1986).

DEFINING INTIMACY AND SELF DISCLOSURE

Literature differs in the usage of terms of intimacy and self disclosure. Rubin (1985) and Jones (1991) use the terms interchangeably, without drawing a distinction between them. Duck (1991) states that self revelation is part of intimacy, but fails to clarify the relationship between the terms. A more distinct delineation is adopted in the present research comes from Clark and Reis (1988). They define intimacy as "a process in which one person expresses important self-relevant feelings and information to another, and as a result of the others response comes to feel known, validated (i.e. obtains confirmation of his or her world view and personal worth), and cared for." (Clark & Reis, 1988, pg. 628). They go on to note the involvement of both verbal and non-verbal communication of personally relevant information and emotions as necessary but not sufficient characteristics in intimacy. Intimacy develops as the discloser's feelings are understood, validated and cared for (Reis & Shaver,

1988, cited in Reisman, 1990). Disclosure of personal feelings and information here is considered "self disclosure " or "self revelation", which may be either verbal or non-verbal.

Thus intimacy is an umbrella term covering interactions of expression, and feelings of being understood and cared for. Self revelation is the principle element influencing the continuum of intimacy, with high self disclosure and perception of being understood) correlating with high intimacy.

Intimate friends were distinguished by frank and free communication and sharing confidences, feelings and personal problems. As with Clark & Reis's (1988) definition, qualities of *feeling understood* were important to this category.

To sum up, friends are people who we form voluntary bonds embodying qualities of openness, trust, reliability, companionship, respect, exchange of favors, and respect of privacy. Friends differ from kin in the voluntary nature of the relationship. Friends are separated from lovers/partners by the absence of romantic or sexual relations. The principle distinction between closeness or depth of friendship is intimacy, with high intimacy relating to most close friends. Intimacy usually develops as a function of the amount and level of self disclosure/self revelation between friends. Disclosed information must be perceived as being understood, respected and cared for by the receiver to foster intimacy. Greater intimacy usually is associated with greater amounts, and more deeply-personal self disclosure.

CHAPTER THREE

SEX-ROLES AND FRIENDSHIP

As indicated earlier, research regarding patterns in friendship has become more specific in attempting to isolate which variables effect behavior, preference, desire for change and satisfaction in friendship. A body of literature has formed which specifically investigated sex-role effects on elements of friendships. Before considering research which relates to the present investigation, terms surrounding this body of literature need to be introduced.

DEFINITIONS; SEX, GENDER, ROLES, AND SEX-ROLES

Sex refers to the dichotomous variable usually assigned at birth. Sex is the socially agreed upon *biological* criteria for classifying individuals as either male or female (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Being in a sex category is achieved through application of the Biological sex criteria.

Gender refers to a collection of managed situated behaviors which are normative conceptions of attitudes and activities appropriate for ones sex category (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Thus a person may possess a male sex and a feminine gender if they possess a penis etc, but behave in ways socially expected primarily of a woman (eg, wear skirts, behave passively, sit with legs together).

ROLES

Roles are a collection of situated norms defining how people ought to behave (Chaplin, 1985; Myers, 1983). They are not definite categories such as sex category. Roles are part of everyday function, there are many types of roles such as professional roles in which members of any given job are expected to behave and fulfil expectations placed upon them from the application of social stereotypical norms. This extends beyond professions to most actions in everyday functions; shopping for example, in which there are clear behavior

roles for purchaser and teller (Doyle, 1991).

SEX-ROLES

Sex-roles and gender roles are terms used synonymously in the present research. They relate to the same concept (West & Zimmerman, 1987). The use of the term gender-role is preferred by some on the grounds that it draws attention to the arbitrary nature of sex-role assignment. Because gender is more obviously social than sex, it conveys an additional emphasis on arbitrary rather than deterministic implications of assignment on the basis of sex (Lueptow, 1984). However both terms refer to the situated norms defining how people ought to behave depending on their sex category (Myers, 1983). Again they are generalizations about behavior and attitudes, they reflect social stereotypes which individuals fit into to a greater, or lesser degree. Sex-role is a useful but imperfect concept referring to those differences between men and women which are socially recognized and described by appropriate normative role expectations.

Traditional sex-roles embrace different social norms of expected behavior than non-traditional sex-roles. The term 'traditional' has a limit in the length of time to which it refers. For example the renaissance male sex-role emphasized rationality, intellectual endeavor and self exploration (Doyle, 1991). Traditional sex-role here refers to those sex-role elements which have repeatedly been described in literature over the past 20 years (M^CBroom, 1987; Pleck, 1976; Phillips, 1986). The traditional western male sex-role incorporates avoiding anything feminine, striving for success, admiration and respect, and adopting a strong and silent portrayal of self. Other elements include being calm in crisis, handle difficulties on their own, avoiding showing weakness, keeping personal aspects of self from public view, and enjoying adventure, violence and danger (M^CBroom, 1987; Phillips, 1986; Pleck, 1976; Thompson, Grisanti & Pleck 1985) .

Thompson, Grisanti and Pleck (1985) investigated theoretical concomitants of the traditional male sex-role. They hypothesized such a sex-role could be used to explain research findings about males behavior in personal and social settings. Their results found that males rating highly on the traditional male sex-role correlated significantly with homophobic feelings, approval of type-A behaviors, considering self disclosure unmanly, and approval of asymmetrical decision making power in intimate relationships. Fear of homosexuality has been postulated as maintaining low levels of intimacy between men (Keen, 1991; Phillips, 1986; Pleck, 1976) as has fear of being seen weak, and competitiveness between men. This research provided support for the contention that traditional sex-roles can explain significant amounts of male behavior.

Pleck (1976) viewed a growth of a (new) modern sex-role as possessing more developed interpersonal skills. Pleck expected a capacity for tenderness and emotional intimacy to be present but linked closely to romantic heterosexual relationships and excluded elsewhere. Pleck viewed males developing a sex-role in which remaining emotionally cool would be valued, and impulsive violent behavior viewed unacceptable.

Little empirical evidence has followed up on these theoretical speculations. Some social evidence supporting Pleck's (1976) prediction that violence and impulsiveness can be found in the dramatic increase of men's groups and male anger management groups running currently. Males certainly are more actively involved in domestic duties than before (Werner & LaRussa, 1985), but this is not evidence enough to validate his prediction of continuing change in the modern male sex-role.

Pleck's (1976) hypothesis for expecting change in these stemmed from his

construction of difficulties and stresses within males sex-roles.

Sex roles have been used to account for male behavior. Traditional male sex-roles concomitants include some potentially negative male traits such as fear of homosexuality and violence (Keen, 1991; Thompson, Grisanti & Pleck, 1985). Change in male sex-roles would predict change in behavior, however while research has developed investigating change in sex-roles for men little has focused on the implications of this in friendship.

FOSTERING SEX-ROLES.

Socialization forces primarily have been forwarded as promoting development of sex-roles, and sex-role differences between men and women (Aries & Johnson, 1983; Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Lueptow, 1984). Ritchie and Ritchie (1978) using a social learning framework noted that quite different behaviors were encouraged or discouraged depending on the sex of a child. The outcome of this differential reinforcement, coupled with social learning from variety of sex-role models was quite different sex-roles for boys and girls. For example boys were encouraged for aggressive, forthright and independent behavior, while girls were encouraged to be passive, more dependant, and less forthright. Cann and Garnett (1984) found by the age of six children possess some accuracy in identifying sex stereotyped roles.

The relevance to the present study is that sex-roles emerge from differential reinforcements of behaviors and cognition's by significant agents in a child's life such as parents, peers and teachers. These roles are emergent from a young age actively influence interaction through life. The differences in role have different effects throughout life. The male sex-role can assist in explanation of males low levels of friendship intimacy, fear of homosexuality, competitiveness.

SEX-ROLES AND FRIENDSHIP

The reality of sex-role impact on friendships has been evidenced in recent research. Jones and Dembo (1989) investigated intimacy in best friends using eight to fourteen year old children. Best friendships were characterized by higher levels of intimacy (Duck, 1991), Jones and Dembo examined sex-role differences finding that females and androgynous males formed a high intimacy group, with (traditional) sex-typed males intimacy scores being significantly lower. They concluded that sex-role explained the differences between high and low scoring groups better than sex.

CHANGE IN SEX-ROLES

Sex-role change is considered as part of general social change. However sex-role change is distinct from general social change because of the relative differences between the sexes on any aspect under consideration (Lueptow, 1984). Sex-role change has received attention recently, however research investigating this change with relation to friendships is rare.

Role change in women recently has seen their involvement in a wider variety of employment categories, and delay in having children. Males have been involved more in domestic duties and child rearing (McBroom, 1987; Phillips, 1986; Werner & LaRussa, 1985).

A replication of Sherriff and Mckee (1957) was conducted by Werner and LaRussa (1985) employing identical measures, and very similar samples. A series of behavioral adjectives were sorted by subjects. Behavioral adjectives relating to males saw them viewed by both sexes as more forceful, independent, stubborn and reckless than women. Overall little had changed in over two decades. Warner et al concluded that despite publicity, activism, and legislative changes "emphasizing the blurring of sex-role distinctions" (pg. 1098) men and

women were still perceived as fundamentally different from each other in behavior attributed. They suggested that sex-role stereotypes change at a slower rate than do the behaviors of the groups involved.

McBroom (1987) investigated change in sex-role orientation over a five year period (1975-1980). Results indicated significant change for both men and women had been principally in the direction of less sex-role traditionalism. Change had been significantly greater for women. Women had enjoyed more employment, marriage and child birth at a later age. McBroom's (1987) sample used three cohorts from the mid-50's, 60's and 70's, where as Warner et al's (1985) sample comprised of a single age group. McBroom's argument for this type of sample was that often research into trends does not allow determination of change as stemming from age, period or cohort effects. Measures were principally of the likert type (agree/disagree) over a list of statements endorsing both traditional and non-traditional sex-roles for each sex. It can be expected that with a large and diverse sample with the inclusion of three cohorts that McBroom's data would index change over the five year period.

Considering the relationship between sex-roles and friendships noted earlier, it is likely that any shift in sex-roles will have impact on friendships. There is a notable lack of research linking change in sex-role with change in friendships. The present study does not address sex-role directly, but will consider change in friendship patterns with relation to sex-roles in the discussion.

ROLE STRESS

Pleck (1976) introduced the concept of male sex-role stress, which resulted from inherent contradictions in sex-role. Examples are the contradiction between males being expected to exert strong emotional control, yet simultaneously being expected to possess an ability to become angry and

violent easily. Males are supposed to enjoy strong friendships with other males, yet are found to avoid emotional intimacy with males and fear homosexuality more than women (Plasek & Allard, 1984). Physical abilities are dominant images of masculine achievement, yet intellectual and interpersonal abilities are likely to promote greater achievement and rewards for men in society.

CHAPTER FOUR

FRIENDSHIP PATTERNS AND SEX DIFFERENCES

Friendships have been investigated quantitatively quite extensively over the past 25 years (eg. Aukett, Ritchie & Mill, 1988; Berman, Murphey-Berman & Pachauri, 1988; Caldwell and Peplau, 1982; Jones, Bloys & Wood, 1990; Jones, 1991; Rose, 1985; Tiger, 1969 cited in Rubin, 1985; Wright & Scanlon, 1991). Though the focus of each study may vary, research has often centered about differences between men and women's friendships (Wright and Scanlon, 1991). Approaches typically adopt a comparative style between the sexes and the particular focus of a study such as friendship numbers.

NUMBER OF FRIENDS

Before examining studies related to this, it is important to note that different classes of friends will prevail here. Consideration for types of friendship will extend not only across the intimacy continuum, but across sex also. For example intimate friends can also be split across same-sex and opposite-sex categories (intimate, good, and casual). Studies investigating sex differences in the numbers of friends are sometimes in conflict.

Caldwell and Peplau (1982) found no sex differences were present in quantities of any type of friend in a sample of college students. This study was replicated by Aukett, Ritchie and Mill in 1988 using a sample of New Zealand university students. Aukett et al (1988) did not report quantitative aspects of friendship. The present research will address friendship quantities and relate its findings back to earlier work in this area.

Jones, Bloys and Wood (1990) examined relationships between sex and sex role orientation and friendship, they found that females possessed more friends than males. They also reported women had more female intimate friends than

males, and males had more male intimate friends than females. That is each sex possessed (and preferred) close friends of the same-sex.

Buhrke and Fuqua (1987) collapsed data across types of friendship and found that again women possessed more friends of all types. Women again had a slight but significantly greater number of same-sex friends than men.

Though Booth and Hess (1974) found non-significant trends for men to possess more close friends and more opposite-sex close friends, their investigation also explored the effect of marriage on such variables. Booth and Hess's investigation yielded important results; single men reported fewer close friendships than married men, however the opposite was true for women. Further consideration for the possible effects of being in current relationships are made later.

Feiring and Lewis (1991) used a sample of late childhood and early adolescent children. They found children have more contact with same-sex friends, and girls have a larger number of friends than boys, this referred to all types of friends. Girls have more same *and* opposite sex friends than boys.

Phillips (1986) using a qualitative model of investigation noted males have few intimate friends of either sex, and fewer friends than females.

So there is some inconsistency in the data about relative numbers of friends with regard to the sexes. Booth and Hess (1974) indicated that these inconsistencies may stem from methodological differences between studies such as the age and marital status of subjects. The present investigation will investigate comparative numbers of friends across the sexes, at the same time assessing partnership status to observe if there is any effect of this variable on results. These will be compared to previous literature.

CONTACT WITH FRIENDS

Contact with friends refers to the amount of time and frequency of engagement with various types of friends. Studies vary in their inclusiveness of this variable. For example some include telephone contact, where others do not, some fail to specify if time spent together is engaging or just being in the same room at the same time. Where possible indication as to the limits of this variable will be explained.

Caldwell and Peplau (1982) found men 'got together' with significantly more friends than women. No sex differences were present for the number of hours spent together with friends. Their research considered contact to be time engaged with friends, rather than simply coincidental contact. When specifically asked about contact with friends 'just to talk' (including phone conversations) women engaged others about three times per week and males only twice a week.

Aries and Johnson (1983) found no sex differences in frequency of contact with friends. Regarding phone contact it was found that half the women contacted their friends by phone for more than ten minutes daily or weekly, but only a fifth of men utilized this type of contact.

The present investigation will investigate hypotheses developed from past research regarding amount of contact with friends. Again these will be linked to previous literature and any changes in patterns discussed.

PATTERNS OF SELF DISCLOSURE AND INTIMACY

Sex differences in self disclosure in friendships have been found to possess much more consistency in results. Typical results indicate that women enjoy greater intimacy in friendships of nearly all types. Intimacy is a term used

variously in literature, the nature of studies terms will be explained as appropriate.

Caldwell and Peplau (1982) noted that women listed conversation topics of feelings and problems twice as frequently as men. They also were more likely to talk about other people significantly more than men. Males were more likely to discuss activities than women. That is, women involve emotion, men avoid this sticking to activity related conversation.

Aries and Johnson (1983) differentiated about the closeness of friends in their investigation, they found women discussed personal problems, doubts and fears, family problems, and intimate relationships with close friends of either sex more than men. These topics were discussed frequently by half the female sample but only about a quarter of the male sample. The only topic to be discussed by men more frequently than women was sport.

Reisman (1990) again found the pattern of women indicating they discussed personal problems significantly more than did males, and rated themselves talking about affectionate and tender feelings more than males.

Similar patterns of self revealing conversation were reported by Aukett, Ritchie and Mill (1988) with twice as many women than men discussing personal problems with their **same-sex** friends. On the other hand more than three times as many men discussed personal problems with **opposite-sex** friends than did women. There is an important distinction in this study by differentiating between same, and opposite-sex friends. Aukett et al reveals that the target of self disclosure is important, with women *and* men discussing intimate matter with women. Men it seems are not selected for such intimate disclosure.

Sapadin (1988) framed intimacy as "a mutual closeness and connection that

[was] more intense and personal than 'sharing/enjoying' responses" (pg. 397). She found women rated their same-sex friendship higher in intimacy/closeness, and that men rated their cross-sex friendships greater in intimacy/closeness. Again women choose women to reveal personal information to, as do men. Regarding other sex differences, Sapadin noted that women emphasize the interactional elements in their friendships while men emphasize the activity aspects. This finding is similar to research findings about different friendship preferences the sexes have (considered below).

The pattern of males being less, and females being more self disclosing may be instilled into people at an early age. This is consistent with the concept of sex-roles and the sex-role research listed earlier. Sex-roles may explain the persistence of findings regarding male and female sex-differences in behavior. A related concept of self disclosure (intimacy) is confidence keeping. As noted earlier confidence-keeping is generally accepted as a part of the role or definition of friendship (Duck, 1991). Breaking confidences is similar to self disclosure in that it involves disclosure of personal (that is non-public) information about self and or others. Rotenberg (1986) studied a sample of ten year old children looking at secret sharing and perceptions of secret sharing across sexes. Findings indicated that males tended to share fewer secrets with same-sex friends than females, and both sexes shared fewer secrets with opposite-sex friends than same-sex friends. A perception that secrets would be shared (broken) more by opposite sex friends was noted in both sexes. This literature suggests that what ever promotes or explains sex differences in self revelation begins at an early age.

Akin to intimacy and self revelation is conversation content in friendship interaction. Davidson and Duberman (1982) investigated conversation content in males and females with regard to three levels; topical, relational, and personal. Topical conversation is the least revealing content, relational

conversation is principally centers on exchanges between the people, and personal is the most intimate with thoughts from the internal arena. Males primarily engaged in topical conversation, while females typically utilized all three levels in engaging others. This study investigated conversation across the board not specifically with friends, and as such is not directly related to the present study. However, clearly the concepts of interaction with friends and conversation content are linked with concepts of self disclosure. More specifically intimate conversation (related in Davidson et al (1982) to personal conversation) again seems to be emphasized in female friendship interaction with males left with a less intimate style of engaging friends.

Moving away from between sex findings, Walker and Wright (1976) showed that in general, level of friendship increased as a function of intimate and non-intimate disclosure. Their findings in particular found that males reported greater difficulty and discomfort in early stages of friendship formation. This relates to intimacy in the sense that males again display less ability in becoming close to friends.

In literature the theme of women enjoying greater intimacy through self revelation is repeated. Research looking into sex-roles allows a more complex account of the influences upon self disclosure.

Winstead, Derlega and Wong (1984) found sex role to be related to the degree of self disclosure. Disclosure was of a written form following a conversation between the pairs. In male to male pairs it was found that intimate disclosure was significantly negatively correlated with masculinity and significantly positively related with femininity. That is, intimate disclosure was more likely to be found if one or both of the pair possessed a feminine gender. Winstead et al's results suggest that sex alone does not account for differences in disclosure, they consider that gender is involved.

In a similar vein Thompson, Grisanti and Pleck (1985) noted traditional western male sex-role (anti feminine, striving for status, strong and silent, and risk taking) was negatively correlated to the level of self disclosure to women but not correlated with level of disclosure to men. All men revealed more about themselves to female rather than male friends.

This section has attempted to bring together concepts and research linking self disclosure to intimacy in friendship. Firstly intimacy is a central element of friendship, it is typified by friends engaging in self disclosure and perceptions of being understood and cared for (Clark & Reis, 1988; Reisman, 1990). When viewing research into this area it was notable that even from early ages males differ from females by being less self revealing in friendships. There are also findings that women prefer to talk intimately (self disclose) to other women, while males also prefer women for this type of interaction. Some findings suggest that gender has some role in explaining these differences.

PARTNERSHIP AND INTIMACY

Another influence on self disclosure is the marital or partner status of friends. As noted above Booth and Hess (1974) found marriage was a variable which influenced friendship patterns. Tschann (1988) found married men disclose less to friends than unmarried men, or women (married or single). The latter three groups revealed similar degrees of self disclosure. While in married men intimate disclosure to friends was low, intimate disclosure to spouses was higher for both men and women.

Explaining the influence of being partnered on friendships Rose (1985) believes that social disapproval especially of cross-sex relationships may curb their frequency. This was related to the social belief that a partner can be sufficient almost totally as a confident and support. That is partners are expected to

serve as primary best friendships (Booth & Hess, 1974; Komarovski, 1967, cited in Rose, 1985). Assuming that this belief still prevails it is possible to hypothesize a lesser motivation to seek extra-marital close friendship.

A retrospective study by Fiebert & Wright (1989) found that 50% of the women and 64% of the men sampled stated that marriage had a profound effect on their friendships. The effects noted were a reduced amount of time and emotional need for friendships, and shifted priority to work, spouse and family. This supports Rose's (1985) contention that being in a marriage (or similar partnered relationship) reduces contact with friends. Fiebert & Wright's study relied on subjects (aged between 40-55) recall of friendships from adulthood to mid-life. Naturally this method of enquiry is open to the criticism of selective and distorted memories misleading results, however it does support notions listed above.

In summary there are reasons to expect that being in a romantic partnership will influence interaction with friends. Research predicts that the influence is likely to decrease the number of, and time spent with friends. This relates in particular to cross-sex friendships. This notion will be explored in the present study.

FRIENDSHIP PREFERENCES AND SEX

The present investigation will shortly consider desire for change in existing friendship relations. Before this an exploration of what research has discovered about friendship preferences will be undertaken. This is important for the present investigation, as friendship preference does not necessarily reflect the way friendships are experienced. Preference can offer some insight in to desires and expectations people have of friendships *ideally*, that is in the future or in an ideal world. Very little research has assessed desire for change in

friendship directly. In the present investigation friendship preference is considered an indirect way of researching how friendships ideally would/could be. This assumption rests upon the argument made above; that friendship preferences can highlight the differences between how friendships actually are and how they would be in the future/ideal world.

Caldwell and Peplau (1982) found that a majority of both men and women preferred to have a few intimate same-sex friends, *and* to spend a lot of time with their intimate friends rather than spending less time with all types of friends. Despite this valuing of intimate friends, when a choice between 'doing some activity' or 'just talking' with a same-sex friend, twice as many men (84%) as women (43%) preferred to do some activity. Over three times as many women (57%) than men (16%) preferred 'just to talk' with same-sex friends. Men also preferred a same-sex friend who 'liked to do the same things' rather than one who 'feels that same way about things'.

This points to some inconsistencies in men's actual to preferred friendships. Men are noted to possess fewer friends in Caldwell et al's (1982) study, and these friendships are characterized by lower intimacy than women's. Male friendships are often instrumental, "side-by-side", rather than the more intimate "face-to-face" (Wright, 1982, pg. 8), and yet men would prefer to possess intimate same-sex friendships than less intimate same-sex friends. These inconsistencies point to a possible desire for change in male friendships. The direction of change could be expected to show an increase in intimacy in male friendships. Perception of intimacy is important here as it is possible that despite findings of less (measured) intimacy in men's friendships (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Aukett et al, 1988; Aries et al, 1983; Davidson et al, 1982; Sapadin, 1988; Thompson et al, 1985; Winstead et al, 1984), that men perceive these relationships as intimate.

Aukett et al's (1986) research using a New Zealand sample mainly replicated Caldwell et al's (1982) work. In friendship preference Aukett et al (1986) found the similar sex differences in preference though of a lower magnitude. Men still preferred to engage in activities with other men, and women favored just to talk with women friends. Women still preferred a few close same-sex friends, but New Zealand males favored many less intimate same-sex friends. This is slightly different from the founding study in which males preferred few intimate same-sex friends. In this respect and in light of research noted above, the New Zealand male sample reflect more congruent preferences, that is males preferences in friends match observed friendship patterns. From the earlier argument, less desire for change would be expected in this sample.

In a study by Barbee, Gulley and Cunningham (1990) friendship preference was investigated along with expectations of the type of assistance offered in task versus relationship problems. Both sexes preferred to talk with same-sex friends about both types of problem. However men indicated that they would rather talk about task, than relationship problems with other men, and expected more dismissive behaviors in response to a relationship problem. Males believed that women would provide more problem solutions and supportive behaviors. Females expected female friends to provide more solve and support behaviors in response to a relationship problem. The inconsistency here is that males, though believing that female friends would offer more supportive and solution based behavior to a personal problem, they still prefer to talk with men (if they were to talk about to with anyone). In reality, studies find that males discuss personal (intimate) matters with females rather than males (Aukett et al, 1988; Caldwell et al, 1982).

Relating friendship preference to desire for change, Caldwell et al (1982) find men prefer more intimacy in same-sex friendship than they currently exhibit. This is a move away from traditional male sex-roles in friendship. Barbee et al

(1990) found males preferred to discuss personal problems with males rather than females, this differs from actual behavior, as in other findings where males discussed personal problems more with women. This too is a movement away from traditional male sex-roles where men do not talk to men about their problems for fear of being seen as weak or feminine. The present study views these findings on friendship preference as tentative evidence of movement, in some men, away from traditional western male sex-roles. Another possibility taken from such work is that desire for change in a non-traditional direction exists.

CHAPTER FIVE

FRIENDSHIP; SATISFACTION AND DESIRE FOR CHANGE

There are a variety of sex differences in friendship as has been noted. Some have quietly hinted that females enjoy a level of friendship greater than males do (Tiger, 1969, cited in Rubin, 1985, proposed exactly the opposite). Such a suggestion is based on findings about the relationship between intimacy in friendship and positive mental well-being and that males are missing out largely in this "ingredient". From here it seems logical that developing friendships for males which include this will provide more satisfying and healthy relationships. But again the question of *perception* of friendship satisfaction is central to these assumptions.

CHANGE, AND DESIRE FOR CHANGE IN FRIENDSHIP PATTERNS

Friendship preferences were investigated and noted as possible indicators of the difference between the reality of experienced friendship and how they would/could ideally be. Questionnaire items have been included to begin investigation in to this area.

Literature directed specifically at desire for change is rare. Reisman (1990) found that males despite their stereotypical friendship patterns, preferences and beliefs, would prefer to be more disclosing in friendship.

Several books (eg. Bell, 1981; Cohen, 1990; Keen, 1991; Millar, 1983) explore friendship in a personal and/or sociological manner, findings are drawn from personal life experience, experience with workshops and encounter groups and other non-empirical sources. Rather than attempt to describe such works and their various relationship with friendships and change, the present work will indulge in a thematic summary.

A lack of information about change in friendships is common even in non-empirical literature, and desire for change is a post hoc consideration. Cohen (1990), Keen (1991), and Millar (1983) consider male friendships as *requiring* change to promote new, more fulfilling and harmonious relations with others. Bell (1981) claims that "many males in American society want to become more expressive and open to their feelings. Many men have benefited from such expression, from reduced potential for ulcers and other anxieties caused by pent-up emotion to freer and more intimate personal relationships with family members and friends." (pg. 92). Conceptually this is not challenging, there are frequent reports that many men have developed inexpressive, non-intimate, and activity based friendships. It seems that society has spent some effort in publicizing the negative aspects of such qualities, and offered alternative models for males in terms of domestic violence, friendship and interaction with others (Warner et al, 1985; Reisman, 1990), but little movement in patterns of male friendship has been documented (at least empirically). Common to all authors is their belief that male friendships are in need of some change. This is usually expressed as a need to become more intimate and sensitive to others. This broadens to predict that change will occur initially in those with the foresight and courage to recognize deficits in present modes of interaction with others (Keen, 1991; Millar, 1983; Pleck, 1976).

In summary, such books explore male friendships using various methodologies, and relate impressions of typical friendships that are very close to the empirical findings on friendship patterns. They consider change in male friendships variously as not happening, about to happen, or in early stages of progression (Bell, 1981; Keen, 1991; Duck, 1991). There remained an overriding sense that male friendships have to change if they are to become more enjoyable and of service to individuals and society. This required change typically emphasized becoming more intimate and feeling in friendships and relationships.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY AND HYPOTHESES

This thesis focuses on friendship patterns, particularly those of men. Sex-roles have demonstrated influence on behavior, and as such any change in sex-roles for males should see expression in their behavior. As described above there has been some indication that traditional male sex-roles are changing, or are likely to change. By investigating friendship patterns through replication of previous work, some evidence of behavior change may be found.

It is possible that despite publicity and activism heralding new sex-role models for men that change has not kept pace. Men may be aware of these 'new' possibilities in friendship but lack the avenues and social permission (ie. release from traditionalism) to begin exploring them. Change would not show strongly in this case, but it could be expected that satisfaction with some aspects of friendship would diminish. Direct questioning about desires for change in friendship could tap into this also.

The goal of the present research was to check for changes in friendship patterns and enquire into satisfaction with, and desire for change in, friendships. Consideration of results regarding sex-roles, intimacy, and the influence of partners is made in the discussion section.

HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses are presented in three sections. Each section coincides with presentation of findings in the results section.

The first section presents hypotheses regarding sex differences in the friendship patterns of; number of friends, friendship preferences, and friendship value. The first hypothesis relates to the effect of being in a relationship upon reported numbers of friends, and contact with friends.

The second section considers predictions about sex differences in satisfaction with same and opposite-sex friends across areas of assistance, emotional support, and socializing.

The final section presents hypotheses concerning desire for change in friendship numbers in categories of same and opposite-sex intimate, good and casual friends.

SECTION ONE

Relationship differences

Fiebert & Wright (1989) and Rose (1985) hypothesized that being in a romantic relationship reduced friendship numbers, especially in cross-sex friendships. It was expected that results concerning friendship numbers will reveal significantly lowered numbers of **intimate** friends for those subjects with romantic partners. Number of friends contacted and time spent with intimate opposite sex friends was expected to be lower for partnered subjects.

Friendship numbers

It was expected that females will possess more friends in each category. Several studies have found women to have a greater number of friends (eg. Jones, Bloys & Wood, 1990; Buhrke & Fuqua, 1987; Feiring & Lewis, 1991).

Friendship contact

The findings of Caldwell and Peplau (1982) and Aries and Johnson (1983), suggested that males would contact more friends in a week than females, and that more females than males would contact friends just to talk.

Friendship preferences

Based on the work of Caldwell and Peplau (1982) and Aukett et al (1988), some sex differences were expected in friendship preferences. Males were expected to prefer same and opposite-sex friends who like to do the same things, rather than feel the same way about things. Females were expected to prefer same and opposite-sex friends who feel the same way about things, rather than do the same things.

Both sexes were expected to prefer a few close same and opposite-sex friends, rather than many less intimate friends.

Both sexes were expected to prefer to see only intimate friends but spend more time with them, rather than seeing all types of friends spending less time with them.

Males were expected to prefer to do things with same-sex friend, but women were expected to prefer to do things with opposite-sex friends.

Men were expected to prefer to talk with opposite-sex friends, but women were expected to prefer to talk with same-sex friends.

Valuing of friendship

Turning to valuing aspects of friendships, sex differences were expected (Caldwell and Peplau, 1982; Aries and Johnson, 1983; Aukett et al, 1988). Males were expected to describe opposite-sex friendship as of most value in areas of emotional support, discussing personal problems and therapeutic support.

Barbee, Gulley and Cunningham (1990) noted that males preferred to discuss problems with males despite believing that females would provide more solve and supportive help. Based on this males were expected to describe same-sex

friends as of most value.

Females were expected to value same-sex friends most in all areas (support, discussing personal problems, therapeutic support and most value).

SECTION TWO

Satisfaction with friendship

Findings of sex differences in intimacy, friendship interactions, and sex-role strain, predicted sex differences in satisfaction ratings (Caldwell and Peplau, 1982; Aries and Johnson, 1983; Aukett et al, 1988; Phillips, 1986; Thompson, Grisanti & Pleck, 1985). Males were expected to be more satisfied with opposite-rather than same-sex friendships regarding assistance and emotional support. In socializing they were expected to rate same-sex friends as more satisfying. Females were expected to rate same-sex friends as more satisfying in all three areas.

SECTION THREE

Desire for change in friendship

Turning to desire for change in friendships, sex differences in areas of friendship numbers, and personal conversation were expected. Males have been found to be less intimate in friendship and less self revealing. Groups advocating the need for change in male sex-roles have emphasized the need for males to become more emotionally invested in relationships with others. However few models offer explanation of how such social adjustments are achieved. Social pressure and fear of being labelled homosexual are offered as possible mechanisms in maintaining the status quo (Phillips, 1976; Cohen, 1990; Pleck, 1976).

Males were expected to desire, significantly more than females, increased

friend numbers, and increased conversational intimacy in intimate same and opposite-sex friendships.

A summary of hypotheses is listed below

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

The notation (in brackets) refers to the friendship categories to which the hypothesis relates.

SECTION ONE

Effect of being in a romantic relationship:

1. Being in a romantic relationship significantly reduces both **same-sex (SS)** and **opposite-sex (OS)** intimate friendship numbers.

Friendship numbers:

(SS/OS - intimate/good/casual).

2. Women have more friends in each category than men.

Friends contacted:

(SS/OS - intimate/good/casual)

3. Men contact more friends in each category in a week than women.
4. Women contact more friends in each category just to talk than men.

Friendship preferences:

Friends who like to do the same things VS friends who feel the same way about things;

5. Men prefer **SS/OS** friends who do the same things, whereas women prefer **SS/OS** friends who feel the same way about things.

Prefer to do things with friends VS prefer to talk with friends;

6. Men prefer to do things with **SS** friends but women prefer to do things with **OS** friends.

7. Men prefer to talk to **OS** friends but women prefer to talk to **SS** friends.

8. Men and women prefer to have a few intimate **SS/OS** friends rather than many

9. Men and Women prefer to see intimate **SS/OS** friends but spend more time with them rather than see all types of friends but spend less time with them.

Valuing aspects of friendship:

10. Men derive more emotional support from **OS** friends but women derive more
emotional support from **SS** friends.

11. Men discuss personal problems more with **OS** friends but women discuss perso

12. Men derive more therapeutic value **OS** friends but women derive more thera

13. Men and women describe **SS** friends as being of more value.

SECTION TWO

Satisfaction with friendship:

14. Men rate greater satisfaction with **OS** friends while women rate greater satis

- 15 Men rate greater satisfaction with **OS** friends while women rate greater satisf
- 16 Men and women rate greater satisfaction with **SS** friends on socializing.

SECTION THREE

Desire for change:

- 17 Men desire greater increases to intimate **SS/OS** friendship numbers than wom
- 18 Men desire greater increases to conversation intimacy in intimate **SS/OS** friends than women.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Method

Subjects

A total of 142 subjects were recruited from Massey University Psychology Department students. The subject pool consisted of 64 males and 78 females. Considering partnership status 34 of the males were in relationships, as were 37 of the females. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 40 years of age, with an average age of 22.5 years old ($sd=4.7$).

The Questionnaire

The friendship questionnaire was based on one used by Caldwell and Peplau (1982), and by Aukett, Ritchie and Mill (1988). The questionnaire comprised of an information cover-sheet with individual identification numbering, a consent form, and a five section questionnaire (see appendix A).

The information sheet gave an overview of the study's domain and what a participant would be required to do. The participants rights were explained in point form following the above. Final paragraphs contained the researchers pledge to assist any participant who experienced any personal issues arising from taking part in the study, where to return the questionnaire to (with a map), and thanks to participants.

A consent form constituted the second page.

General information preceded section one of the Friendship Questionnaire concerning sex, age, and relationship status.

Section one gathered data about the number, desire for change in number, and desire for change in personal conversation in three categories of friendship (intimate, good

and casual). Each category was defined for the participant.

Section two concerned contact with same- and opposite-sex friends. The number of friends contacted and total contact time was gathered for each sex category.

Section three contained forced choice items regarding friendship preferences. Preferences about activity and feelings, friend number and intimacy, numbers contacted and time spent with friends, and activity with friends were asked.

Section four asked participants rate which type of friend was valued most in four areas of interaction.

The final section (section five) used a likert scale on which participants rated satisfaction with assistance, emotional support and socializing of friends of each sex.

Desire for change items were developed by the researcher in areas of friend number and contact. These were included in the first section.

Satisfaction ratings were derived from a questionnaire used in Barth and Kindler (1989).

The original Questionnaire used by Caldwell and Peplau (1982) was restructured into logically grouped sections to facilitate easier responding. The original Caldwell and Peplau (1982) questionnaire contained an open ended question section, and a best same-sex friend section which did not relate to the present research hypotheses. These sections were dropped from the present questionnaire.

Use of sections from the original Caldwell and Peplau (1982) questionnaire was to

allow comparisons of results over time, and between the American and New Zealand sample. As mentioned earlier, Aukett, Ritchie and Mill (1988) replicated Caldwell et al's (1982) work using a New Zealand sample, this to formed a comparison item for the results of the present study.

Specific items added regarding desire for change in friendship numbers and conversation intimacy were added to investigate possible differences between present behavior and desired behavior. The variables of conversation intimacy and friendship numbers were chosen specifically with the male population in mind.

In particular research has been consistent in finding males less intimately involved with various types of friends. Also noted above is the strong relationship between personal conversation (self-disclosure) and intimacy. Little research has addressed the question of whether males would like to engage friends at a more intimate level.

Questions pertaining to desire for change in friendship number were included in a bid to gather data about at what level males would like to engage others, this also can be used in conjunction with one of the questions about friendship preference. Comparing the consistency of these two items allows inferences of consistency between friendship behavior and desires to be investigated.

It is appropriate to note that no validation of the questionnaire has been published. The present research has not attempted any validation of the questionnaire. Face validity is present in the instrument as related to the researcher from a simplified pilot study conducted in 1991.

Procedure

Subjects were invited into the study from lectures and tutorials. A verbal and visual

overview of the study's area of interest was provided, along with information about the questionnaire format and content. Participants rights were outlined and an opportunity for questions to be asked and answered followed. Before distributing questionnaires to those interested, special attention was drawn to the avenues of support and assistance available to participants who felt any need to discuss matters arising from participation. Questionnaires were handed in to the Psychology office, or collected during the next lecture/tutorial in the same room.

Because data belongs to those providing it subjects were offered access to their own data. No participants utilized this. Data was traceable using individual questionnaire numbering, and participants were asked to record this number should they wish to access their data at a later time. All data was kept by the researcher in strict confidence.

A pilot study was undertaken by the researcher in 1991. The questionnaire was largely the same, though without sections regarding desire for change, and satisfaction. Thirty males and 30 females were subjects and informal assessment of face validity was gained in conversation from approximately a dozen subjects. Subject responses indicated the questionnaire bore a clear relationship to friendship patterns, but responses promoted the restructuring into a more logical format.

Data screening

Data was screened using SPSS for normality, linearity and heteroscedasticity. Plots and calculations indicated assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were not violated. Treatment of some variables that were positively skewed by methods recommended by Tabachnic and Fidell (1989), involved screening and removal of univariate and multivariate outlier's. Two analyses were performed; one using the

original data, and the other using data which had univariate and multivariate outlier's removed. Subsequent analysis of the "clean" data set revealed very few changes to reported results. Results that were altered typically had an increase in the significance of the finding. A few variables dropped or gained significance but these were not central to the investigations hypotheses.

It is the belief of the researcher that in the present investigation inclusion of all subjects was preferable as no literature advised what range of responses can be considered extreme and therefore undesirable in an analysis. The questionnaire did not include measures of socially desirable responding or lying. Therefore there was no reason to expect 'extreme' responses were not genuine, more than there was to expect that central responses were not genuine. Some natural variance in responses from a subject pool of students can be expected, Caldwell & Peplau (1982) noted large standard deviations in their sample also. In addition the argument can be made that by removing certain cases because they seem extreme is an act of deliberate alteration of data similar to selecting a biased sample.

When the above is considered with the fact that the results of two analyses (with data in original and "clean" form) were very similar, there seemed an acceptable argument for inclusion of original data.

This being the case it was decided to include the original data set, accepting that the small degree of positive skewness did not violate the assumptions for using any statistic any more would a deliberate manipulation of the data.

Strategy of analysis

All statistical calculations were made using SPSS, and missing cases were dropped from all analyses.

Friendship numbers, contact, satisfaction with friendship, and desire for change in friendship numbers, and personal conversation were explored for sex differences using 2-way ANOVA. Those variables with significant ANOVA results were then subjected to one-way t-tests. Independent t-tests were employed to test the null hypothesis that the means for the two groups were not different. Friendship numbers, and contact were additionally analyzed using this method for relationship differences.

Friendship preferences, and desire for change in friendship numbers and desire for change in friendship numbers and personal conversation in friendships provided frequency data. This was analyzed using Chi Squares for significant group differences for sex. The 'yates corrected chi-square' was used for 2x2 tables with less than 20 cases.

For all data the minimum significance level was set at $p < 0.05$.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULTS

Results are presented in parts corresponding with sections of the questionnaire. The first deals with friendship patterns (friendship numbers, types, contact and value), the second section relates to satisfaction with friendships, and the final section considers data about desire for change in friendships. All sections consider the data for sex differences. Friendship number and contact with friends also consider the effects of being in a relationship on friendship patterns.

FRIENDSHIP PATTERNS

Numbers of friends

Considering first the quantitative aspects of friendships, men and women differed slightly in numbers across friend-type with only one category reaching significance (**Intimate same-sex**). Analysis for sex differences was only significant in the **same-sex intimate friend** category, with women possessing more friends of this type, $x_{(\text{male})} = 4.19$, $x_{(\text{female})} = 2.73$, $t(139) = 3.77$, $p < 0.001$. Table 1 presents these figures. A non-significant trend of men and women having fewer **opposite-sex** friends than **same-sex** friends can be seen. This pattern is most marked in the intimate and good friend categories.

Considering sex differences within relationship categories, single men possessed more **casual same-sex** friends on average, than single women, $x_{(\text{male})} = 10.00$, $x_{(\text{female})} = 6.79$, $t(70) = 1.96$, $p = 0.05$. Men with partners possessed fewer **intimate same-sex** friends, $x_{(\text{male})} = 2.79$, $x_{(\text{female})} = 4.23$, $t(67) = 2.29$, $p < 0.05$, than partnered women. Women with partners reported having fewer **intimate opposite-sex** friends than men with partners, $x_{(\text{male})} = 1.63$, $x_{(\text{female})} = 2.79$, $t(67) = 2.85$, $p < 0.01$. No other significant sex differences across relationships were discovered.

Table 1

MEAN NUMBER OF SAME-SEX FRIENDS BY TYPE.

		Same-sex friends					
		WOMEN			MEN		
FRIEND-TYPE		Single	Partnered	Combined	Single	Partnered	Combined
INTIMATE		4.2 (2.08)	4.23# (2.4)	4.19** (2.21)	2.76 (1.88)	2.79# (2.78)	2.73** (2.39)
GOOD		7.00 (4.33)	7.09 (3.41)	7.00 (3.90)	5.67 (3.68)	7.09 (3.51)	6.42 (3.63)
CASUAL		6.79# (6.33)	8.60 (7.03)	7.59 (6.61)	10.00# (7.56)	8.28 (6.02)	9.08 (6.79)
TOTAL		18.00 (10.63)	19.91 (10.49)	18.81 (10.49)	18.33 (10.64)	18.15 (10.62)	18.23 (10.55)
		Opposite-sex friends					
		WOMEN			MEN		
FRIEND-TYPE		single	partnered	combined	single	partnered	combined
INTIMATE		2.31 (1.77)	1.63# (1.50)	1.99 (1.67)	1.97 (2.16)	2.79# (1.89)	2.41 (2.04)
GOOD		5.14 (4.09)	5.09 (3.27)	5.12 (3.71)	4.37 (3.62)	4.94 (3.12)	4.67 (3.35)
CASUAL		5.98 (6.79)	6.03 (4.99)	6.00 (6.00)	6.40 (6.81)	4.59 (5.21)	5.44 (6.03)
TOTAL		13.43 (11.24)	12.74 (6.86)	13.12 (9.45)	12.73 (10.19)	12.32 (8.30)	12.52 (9.16)

Brackets = standard deviations.

** = Sex difference present, $p < 0.001$ # = Sex difference within the Relationship category present, $p < 0.05$

Contact with friends

Table 2 and 2a present data regarding contact with friends. Analysis of self-reported contact with friends indicated that men and women did not differ in the number of friends of either sex contacted, or contacted to 'talk or do things with'.

Women contacted, on average, 4.06 **same-sex** friends per week with 'just to talk', while the average for men was 2.63, $t(139) = 3.26, p > 0.001$. This significant difference was present for single and partnered subjects, $t(\text{single})(70) = 2.40, p > 0.05$, $t(\text{Partnered})(66) = 2.26, p > 0.05$. That is there was a significant sex difference, but no relationship difference regarding friends 'contacted just to talk' in any friendship category.

A significant effect of being in a relationship emerged for men on the 'contact to talk or do things' variable. Single men spent nearly twice as much time talking or doing things with **same-sex** friends than partnered men, $x = 16.33, t(62) = 2.61, p > 0.01$.

Table 2a concerns contact with opposite-sex friends, it is notable that almost all means were lower for opposite-sex friends than for same-sex friends. The male 'number contacted just to talk' category reported similar values across the same and opposite-sex friendship groups. No significant sex differences or relationship effects were present.

This last figure compares closely Caldwell and Peplau's (1982) original study using American students.

Table 2.

Averages of Weekly Contact with Same-Sex Friends

AVERAGE CONTACT PER WEEK WITH SAME-SEX FRIENDS.			
	Number Contacted	Number Contacted just to Talk	Hours Contacted to talk or do things
WOMEN	6.05	4.26 *	13.17
Single	(6.05)	(3.50)	(10.79)
Partnered	5.91	3.88 **	12.03
Combined	(6.05)	(2.35)	(10.02)
	5.96 #	4.06 **	12.54
	(5.98)	(3.01)	(10.37)
MEN	5.57	2.53 *	16.33#
Single	(3.76)	(2.16)	(14.89)
Partnered	5.65	2.71 **	9.03#
Combined	(4.51)	(1.93)	(6.26)
	5.61	2.63 **	12.45
	(4.15)	(2.03)	(11.67)

* = Sex-difference present, $p < 0.001$ ** = Sex-difference present, $p < 0.05$ # = Relationship-difference present, $p = 0.05$

Table 2a.

Averages of Weekly Contact with Opposite-Sex Friends

AVERAGE CONTACT PER WEEK WITH OPPOSITE-SEX FRIENDS.			
	Number Contacted	Number Contacted just to Talk	Hours Contacted to talk or do things
WOMEN	3.43	2.83	11.73
Single	(3.36)	(2.29)	(9.98)
Partnered	3.14	2.86	6.31
Combined	(2.50)	(2.26)	(6.03)
	3.27	2.81	9.77
	(2.97)	(2.26)	(8.09)
MEN	3.80	2.51	14.59
Single	(3.00)	(2.07)	(9.47)
Partnered	3.59	3.05	6.77
Total	(3.20)	(2.22)	(7.03)
	3.69	2.81	9.16
	(3.09)	(2.14)	(8.19)

No significant sex or relationship differences for opposite-sex friends.

Friendship preferences

Considering activity preference in **same-sex friendships**, results showed a significant sex difference in preference in activity with same-sex friends. Table 3 provides a summary of these results. Of women, 38% preferred to do some activity with a same-sex friend rather than just talk compared to 75% of men, $\chi^2(1) = 10.6$, $p = 0.001$. No other sex differences were noted in **same-sex friendships**, nor were there any significant relationship differences.

Most men (76%) and women (78%) preferred to have a few very close, intimate same-sex friends rather than many good but less intimate friends. Correspondingly, most men (59%) and women (55%) preferred same-sex friends that felt the same way about things as opposed to doing the same things. Here no sex or relationship differences were present, however a distinct friendship preference is indicated by most subjects regardless of sex choosing to have a few intimate same-sex friends rather than many less intimate friends. It is interesting to note here that despite a *preference* for this type of friendship, both sexes *reported* larger numbers of both good and casual friends.

Table 3.

Men and Women Friendship Preferences in Same-sex Friendships.

	Women %	Men %
Preferred a Same-sex Friend who likes to do the same things	44.9	40.6
Preferred a Same-sex Friend who feels the same way about things	55.1	59.4
Preferred a few very close intimate Same-sex Friends	78.2	76.2
Preferred many but less intimate Same-sex Friends	21.8	23.8
Preferred to see only intimate Same-Sex Friends but spend more time with each	64.1	53.1
Preferred to see all types of Same-Sex Friends but spend less time with each	35.9	46.9
Preferred to do some activity with Same-sex Friends	38.2***	75.0***
Preferred to just talk with Same-sex Friends	61.8	25.0

*** = χ^2 Significant Sex Differences, $p < 0.001$

Table 3a.

Men and Women Friendship Preferences in Opposite-sex Friendships.

	Women %	Men %
Preferred a Opposite-sex Friend who likes to do the same things	47.4	35.9
Preferred a Opposite-sex Friend who feels the same way about things	52.6	64.1
Preferred a few very close intimate Opposite-sex Friends	41.0**	57.8**
Preferred many but less intimate Opposite-sex Friends	59.0	42.2
Preferred to see only intimate Opposite-Sex Friends but spend more time with each	30.8*	59.4*
Preferred to see all types of Opposite-Sex Friends but spend less time with each	69.2*	40.6*
Preferred to do some activity with Opposite-sex Friends	63.6	48.4
Preferred to just talk with Opposite-sex Friends	36.4	51.6

* = χ^2 Significant Sex Differences, $p < 0.05$ ** = χ^2 Significant sex Differences, $p < 0.01$

Table 3a represents the activity preferences for **opposite-sex friendships**. Most women (64%) and just over half the men (53%) preferred to spend more time with intimate same-sex friends as opposed to less time with all types of friends.

Sex and relationship differences emerged in considering preferences of the above categories for **opposite-sex friends**. Most men (58%) preferred a few very close, intimate opposite-sex friends compared to 41% of women, $X^2(1) = 19.1, p < 0.001$.

Of men, 59% preferred to see only intimate friends and spend more time with them, rather than see all types of friends and spend less time with them, this compares to 31% of women, $X^2(1) = 11.7, p < 0.05$.

Non-significant sex-difference trends described nearly 64% of women and 48% of men preferring to do some activity with an opposite-sex friend as opposed to just talk with them. About half the women (53%) and a small majority men (64%) preferred an opposite-sex friend to feel the same rather than do the same things as them.

Value of friendship qualities

Considering the source of various qualities valued in friendships, some very clear sex differences emerge. Table 4 presents these results, note that in text percentages are rounded to nearest whole numbers. More women (72%) than men (16.0%) derived support primarily from their same-sex friends. By comparison nearly four times as many men (52%) than women (13%) derived emotional support from opposite-sex friends $X^2(2) = 43.6, p < 0.0001$.

Over twice as many women (78%) as men (31%) discussed personal problems with same-sex friends rather than opposite-sex friends. Only 9% of women and 38% of men discussed personal problems with opposite sex friends as opposed to same-sex friends. About twice as many men (22%) than women (10%) shared personal problems with both sexes, $X^2(2) = 29.8, p < 0.0001$.

In turning to therapeutic value of friendship, 53% of women as opposed to 28% of men obtained therapeutic value from their same-sex friendships. This is reversed when considering therapeutic value obtained from opposite-sex friends. Only 19% of women as contrasted to 45% of men expressed gaining therapeutic value from opposite-sex friendships. Almost equal proportions of women (26%) and men (25%) gained therapeutic value from both same and opposite sex friends, $\chi^2(2) = 12.8$, $p < 0.005$.

In reporting which type of friend is described as being of most value a less clear pattern emerged. Both men and women (48% and 51% respectively) thought that friends of each sex were of equal value. More men (22%) than women (6%) stated opposites-sex friends to be of more value. More women (42%) than men (27%) rated same-sex friendships to be of most value, $\chi^2(2) = 11.8$, $p = 0.05$.

A fourth category of "neither" was included in the friendship preferences section of the questionnaire. Only two subjects responded in this category and as such a decision to drop this category from analysis was made.

Table 4.

Differences Between Men and Women Regarding Emotional and Therapeutic Support, and Sharing of Personal Problems (Percentages)

	Women	Men
Derived Emotional Support from opposite -Sex Friends	12.8***	51.6***
Derived Emotional Support from Same -Sex Friends	71.8***	15.6***
Derived emotional Support from Both Same and Opposite -Sex Friends	14.1***	25.0***
Shared Personal Problems with Opposite -Sex Friends	9.0***	37.5***
Shared Personal Problems with Same -Sex Friends	78.2***	31.3***
Shared Personal Problems with Both Opposite and Same -Sex Friends	10.3***	21.9***
Derived Therapeutic Value from Opposite -Sex Friends	19.2**	45.3**
Derived Therapeutic Value from Same -sex Friends	52.6**	28.1**
Derived Therapeutic Value from Both Same and Opposite -Sex Friends	25.6	25.0
Valued same -sex Friends as Most value	6.4*	22.6*
Valued Opposite -sex Friends as Most Value	42.3*	27.4*
Valued Both same and opposite -sex Friends as Equal Value	51.3	50.3

*** = χ^2 Significant Sex Differences, $p < 0.0001$

** = χ^2 Significant Sex Differences, $p < 0.005$

* = χ^2 Significant Sex Differences, $p < 0.05$

SATISFACTION WITH FRIENDS

Looking at ratings of satisfaction in three areas of friendships, sex differences emerged. Table 5 displays means relating to this section. Women rated themselves more highly satisfied in categories of assistance from **same-sex** friends, emotional support from **same-sex** friends, and in socializing with **same-sex** friends, $\bar{x}_{(assistance)} = 5.19$, $t_{(assistance)}(140) = 2.68$, $p < 0.001$, $\bar{x}_{(emotional\ support)} = 5.55$, $t_{(emotional\ support)}(140) = 5.25$, $p < 0.001$, $\bar{x}_{(socializing)} = 5.18$, $t_{(socializing)}(140) = 5.25$, $p < 0.001$. Conversely men rated higher satisfaction in assistance from **opposite-sex** friends, $t(140) = 2.59$, $p = 0.001$. A post hoc summative global score was calculated and women again rated themselves as significantly more satisfied, $t(140) = 4.08$, $p < 0.001$.

Table 5.
Mean Ratings of Satisfaction with Three Aspects of Friendship

	Women	Men
Assistance from Same -Sex Friends	5.19** (1.37)	4.58** (1.34)
Assistance from Opposite -Sex Friends	4.26** (1.37)	4.81** (1.14)
Emotional Support from Same -Sex Friends	5.55** (1.48)	4.28** (1.37)
Emotional Support from Opposite -Sex Friends	4.60 (1.55)	4.92 (1.19)
Socializing with Same -Sex Friends	5.18** (1.70)	4.53** (1.69)
Socializing with <u>Opposite</u> -Sex Friends	4.68 (1.69)	4.41 (1.68)

1= very dissatisfied, 7= very satisfied

** = T significant, $p < 0.001$

DESIRE FOR CHANGE IN FRIENDSHIPS

Personal Conversation

Examining Desire for change in personal conversation within friendship, two sex differences emerged, means are presented in table 6. Men on average rated themselves as desiring more intimate conversation than women in **good opposite-sex** friendships and in **casual opposite-sex** friendships, $x_{(good)}(male/female)=3.39,3.68$, $t_{(good)}(67) = 2.11, p<0.05$, $x_{(casual)}(male/female) = 3.66,3.85$, $t_{(casual)}(67) = 2.18, p<=0.05$.

Desire for change in friendship numbers

Turning to reported desire for change in friendship numbers by friendship type, no significant sex differences were noted (See Table 7). A non-significant trend emerged indicating that most people of either sex or relationship status would prefer more friends of every type. This trend indicated a greater desire for more friendships in the 'good' and 'casual' friend categories. No subject desired to have fewer friends.

Table 6.

Mean Desire For Change in Personal Conversation in friendships.

Friend-type	Same-sex Friends		Opposite-sex Friends	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
INTIMATE	3.49 (0.77)	3.43 (1.13)	3.25 (0.94)	3.40 (0.90)
GOOD	3.74 (0.71)	3.78 (0.72)	3.39* (1.00)	3.68* (0.82)
CASUAL	3.90 (0.81)	3.72 (0.77)	3.66* (0.80)	3.85* (0.64)
TOTAL	3.71 (0.56)	3.64 (0.67)	3.49 (0.65)	3.63 (0.58)

Brackets = standard deviations.

* = T significant, $p < 0.05$

Table 7.

MEAN DESIRE FOR CHANGE (increases) IN FRIENDSHIP NUMBERS.

Friend-type	Same-sex Friends (number more desired)		Opposite-sex Friends (number more desired)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
INTIMATE	1.12 (0.74)	1.38 (1.03)	1.59 (1.34)	1.42 (1.22)
GOOD	2.44 (2.06)	2.25 (2.30)	2.11 (1.90)	3.20 (2.56)
CASUAL	3.80 (2.01)	5.18 (2.94)	3.75 (1.91)	5.46 (3.11)
TOTAL	6.20 (4.86)	8.49 (6.27)	6.49 (5.13)	8.69 (6.89)

Brackets = standard deviations.

No significant sex differences

SUMMARY

In section one women were found to possess significantly more **same-sex** intimate friends than men. Single men possessed more casual **same-sex** friends than single women. Partnered men possessed significantly fewer intimate **same-sex**, but more intimate **opposite-sex** friends than partnered women.

Men contacted significantly fewer friends in a week 'just to talk' than women. Single men spent significantly more time doing things or talking with **same-sex** friends than partnered men.

In **same-sex** friendships men preferred to do some activity while women preferred to talk. However in **opposite-sex** friendships no significant sex differences were found on this variable.

In **opposite-sex** friendships most males preferred to a few close intimate friends, while women preferred many less intimate friends. Most men preferred to see only intimate **opposite-sex** friends but spend more time with them, while women preferred to see all types of **opposite-sex** friends but spend less time with them.

Sex differences prevailed in valuing qualities of friendship. Most men derived emotional support from **opposite-sex** friends, while most women derived this from **Same-sex** friends. A small majority of men shared personal problems with **opposite-sex** friends, while a strong majority of women chose **same-sex** friends to share personal problems. A most men derived therapeutic value from **opposite-sex** friends, while most women derived this value from **same-sex** friendships.

Section two related to satisfaction with elements of friendship. Sex differences emerged only for **same-sex** friendships. Women rated greater satisfaction with

assistance, emotional support, and socializing in **same-sex** friendships.

Section three dealt with desire for change in friend numbers and in personal conversation with friends. No significant sex differences emerged.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated 18 hypotheses relating to friendship patterns, satisfaction with aspects of friendship, and desire for change in friendship numbers and conversation intimacy.

Results will be discussed with comparison to previous research. Due to the number and complexity of hypotheses, they will be considered in sequence first. This rather rigid style is an attempt at maintaining clarity through the discussion.

SECTION ONE

The notation used (in brackets) refers to the categories of friendship that the hypothesis relates to.

Effect of being in a relationship

HYPOTHESIS ONE:

Being in a romantic relationship significantly reduces both same-sex (SS) and opposite-sex (OS) intimate friendship numbers.

It was predicted that within sexes partnered men and women would possess fewer friends of this type than single men and women. However no within sex relationship differences were found for this type of friend.

Two possible explanations can be made for the lack of support of this hypothesis. Firstly, no data was collected about the length or degree of involvement with partners. In a sample of predominantly young people, partners could be expected to change frequently, and relationships to possess low involvement. It is possible that partner

influence on friendships occurs primarily in long-term and more deeply involved partnerships.

The subject's age ($x = 22.5$) could explain the differences between Fiebert and Wright's (1989) and the present study's findings. Cohort effects may be operating, or simply the more staid nature of mature couples as compared to more socially active young couples could influence results. The nature of influence would be in the direction of more socially active younger subjects having greater opportunity to engage in all types of friendships (Duck, 1991). The use of a broad age-group sample or distinct cohorts would allow for clarification of this.

Friendship numbers

HYPOTHESIS TWO:

(SS/OS - intimate/good/casual)

Women have more friends in each category compared to men.

It was expected that women would have significantly more friends in each category than men. This hypothesis was only partially supported; women possessed significantly more ($x_{\text{female}} = 4.19$, $x_{\text{male}} = 2.73$) **intimate same-sex** friends than men.

The present study's finding differs slightly from that of Caldwell and Peplau (1982), who found no sex differences in these variables. However in the present study, a significant result in only one of the six categories ((SS/OS)X(Intimate/Good/Casual)) provides little support for the hypothesis.

Friend numbers increased over the three friend categories (intimate/good/casual). The lowest numbers of friends were found in the 'intimate' category with the largest numbers

of friends in the casual category. Apart from the one significant sex difference (intimate SS), numbers of friends did not differ greatly across the sexes.

Previous findings have found women to have larger numbers of all types of friends (Jones, Bloys & Wood, 1990; Buhrke & Fuqua, 1987; Feiring & Lewis, 1991); the present work does not support these findings.

Possible explanations for this result are the age and social opportunities available for the subject pool. The relative youth of subjects (mean age 22.5 years) and student status may offer greater social opportunities than older, non-student samples. This richness in social opportunity and socializing would minimize the differences between many group's friendship numbers.

Students were used by other studies finding no sex-differences in friendship numbers (Caldwell et al, 1982).

There were significant sex differences within the relationship variable (partnered versus single). Partnered males ($x = 2.79$) had fewer **intimate same-sex** friends than partnered females ($x = 4.23$), and more ($x = 2.79$) **intimate opposite-sex** friends than women ($x = 1.63$). Single men had more **casual same-sex** friends ($x = 10.0$) than single women ($x = 6.79$).

Women having fewer men as intimate friends support Rose's (1985) hypothesis that romantic relationships reduce friend numbers and contact. This was predicted especially in cross-sex friendships because of partner tensions stemming from cross-sex friendship. The result is consistent with findings suggesting that intimacy in friendship is most often supplied to men by women (than by men) (Aries & Johnson, 1983).

Explaining why partnered men did not have fewer female intimate friends is difficult. It

is possible to speculate that power relations in partnerships have some role here. Males traditionally exert greater power in romantic partnerships and thus may more readily define 'rules' of association for the dyad (Miller, 1983). This being the case male's may control their partner's association with cross-sex friends, while maintaining their own.

Research indicates that males may possess some greater need for this type of friendship (Reisman, 1990; Sapadin, 1988). Emotional support, and disclosures of intimate material are regular features of intimate friendships. Women are found to provide these qualities to men significantly more than men provide these to men. Thus an absence or loss of this avenue for intimate disclosure (for men) could be expected to result in personal stress and sense of isolation. This stress or isolation may create greater motivation for men to form and maintain cross-sex intimate friendships. If this were so, then intimate opposite-sex friendships may be sought, or continued by partnered men despite the possible frictions that could result in the romantic partnership. As women provide these types of emotional supports and intimate disclosures to other women, less need would be present to form or maintain cross-sex friendships. That is; the loss or absence of cross-sex friendships would create less stress and isolation for woman, and less motivation to initiate or maintain them.

Friends contacted:

HYPOTHESIS THREE:

(SS/OS - intimate/good/casual)

Men contact more friends in each category in a week than women.

No sex differences were found here; men and women contacted roughly equal numbers of same and opposite-sex friends in a week ($\chi_{total}(SS) = 5.57$ & 6.05 respectively,

$x_{total}(OS) = 3.8 \text{ \& } 3.43$ respectively). This differs from Caldwell and Peplau's (1982) findings that men contacted more friends. However the present findings are congruent with Aries and Johnson's (1986). Both sexes possessed more same-sex than opposite-sex friends.

The youth of this student population again can be used to explain the absence of significant findings. Both sexes have a large and social population available to mix with, being younger also is usually associated with greater social activity (Duck, 1991). The use of different age groups would assist future work in clarifying this explanation.

HYPOTHESIS FOUR

(SS/OS - intimate/good/casual)

Women contact more friends in each category just to talk.

Women were found to contact more friends of each category 'just to talk'. This is consistent with findings by Caldwell and Peplau (1982) and Aries and Johnson (1986). Single and partnered women contacted friends just to talk around four times a week, while men did this with less than three friends. These numbers of friends contacted in the present study are very similar to those of Caldwell and Peplau, and Aries and Johnson.

This result is consistent with the concept of female friendship being less activity oriented (Wright, 1982). It is also consistent with traditional male sex-role behavior; being functional in interaction with others, and action oriented rather than expressive (Pleck, 1976; Thompson, Grisanti & Pleck, 1985). The amount of communication indicates that women are likely to be better informed about the daily going's on of their friends than men, which in itself is likely to foster development of intimacy.

Friendship preferences:

HYPOTHESIS FIVE

Friends who like to do the same things VS friends who feel the same way about things;

Men prefer (SS/OS) friends who do the same things, whereas Women prefer (SS/OS) friends who feel the same way about things.

This was a forced-choice item. Men were expected to respond by selecting the instrumental-engagement choice and women to select the emotional-engagement option. However a sex difference was not present here. Both men and women preferred to have **same-sex** and **opposite-sex** friends who feel the same way about things.

This result was unexpected as previous findings have noted the instrumental preference of men's friendships, and emotional preference of women's, and of sex differences on this variable (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Aukett, Ritchie & Mill, 1988; Aries & Johnson, 1983). The departure from typical findings suggests a shift in men's way of viewing themselves. Men having friends who feel the same way about things does not exclude activity sharing. Indeed the emotional similarity may make whatever venture they embark upon more enjoyable due to the likelihood that all members desire the same thing (since they feel similarly about things). The shift here is in focus on the individual at an emotional level rather than at an activity level. This shift represents a turning of attention from outside the self, toward the self, and as such may result in greater ability to become aware of emotion, and need for individual expression. Such a change would require self-examination and movement away from the traditional male sex-role, since this guides so many interactions with others. The result is consistent in direction with Pleck's (1976) hypothesis about change resulting from role-stress. It is important to recognize the tentative nature of such an explanation, further work would be required to validate such interpretation.

HYPOTHESIS 6

Prefer to do things with friends VS prefer to talk with friends;

Men prefer to do things with (SS) friends but Women prefer to talk with (SS) friends.

It was expected that men would prefer engaging other male friends at the instrumental level (ie. activity based), while women would prefer to engage women at the emotional level (ie. communication based). Most men (75% compared to 38.2% of women) preferred to do things with SS friends, while women (61.8% compared to 25% of men) preferred just to talk with SS friends. This hypothesis was supported, and adds to similar findings by Caldwell et al (1982), Aries et al, (1983), and Aukett et al, 1988.

The present and previous hypotheses seem incongruent. However as noted earlier this is not the only interpretation, indeed preferring a friend who feels the same way about things and one who prefers to the same thing is likely to be an ideal relationship (for those that enjoy activity). Others have construed men's strong activity preference to be less intimate or emotionally engaging as compared to talking. However in consideration with hypothesis five this would be an assumption. Rather it is possible that the sexes differ in perception of intimacy; men may perceive sharing some enjoyable activity as providing a type intimacy bonding that women would not. Conversely women engaging in conversation may perceive intimacy where men would not. Here then interpretation rests on possible differences in men and women's way of experiencing pleasure and intimacy with friends of their own sex. It may be a case that we should be aware of sexual equivalence in experience.

Men prefer to talk with (OS) friends but Women prefer to do things with (OS) friends.

A reversal of the pattern predicted in SS friends was expected; men would prefer talking

to women, and women prefer activity with men. However no sex differences emerged relating to this hypothesis. A non-significant trend was present in the predicted direction. Of the women, 63.6% preferred to do an activity, the remaining 36.4% preferred talking with a OS friend. Men were split nearly evenly in their preferences (48.4% and 51.6% respectively).

A possible explanation is that the sex-roles for men are changing. Men are becoming less specific in their consideration of engagement with OS friends. The movement in the traditional male sex-role explaining this, is for increasing opportunity to engage in non-instrumental friendship. The lack of sex-differences in OS preferences is supportive of this notion.

HYPOTHESIS 7

Prefer to a few close intimate friends VS prefer many but less intimate friends.

Men and women Prefer to have a few intimate (SS/OS) friends than to have many less intimate friends.

This hypothesis was supported, and is becoming a clear pattern in friendship preference for men and women (78.2% & 76.2% of men and women respectively chose the intimate preference in the present study). The present study's findings are very similar to those of Caldwell et al (1982) and Aukett et al (1988) who also found both sexes preferred a few close intimate SS friends.

The disparity between what types of friends are held, and what friends are preferred is important here. Both men and women desired to possess more of the less intimate friends than they presently had. What promotes this desire may be the basic drive for intimacy that fosters many social interactions. Men have fewer intimate friends than women and thus may desire this intimacy more, however intimacy may be provided to

each sex in different ways.

HYPOTHESIS 8

Prefer to see only intimate (SS/OS) friends but spend more time with them VS see all types of (SS/OS) friends but spend less time with them.

Men and Women prefer to see intimate (SS/OS) friends but spend more time with them rather than see all types of friends but spend less time with them.

No support was found for the SS part of this hypothesis; here men and women chose nearly equally across the **same-sex** variable. A sex difference emerged in the **opposite-sex** category. Men (59.4%) preferred to see intimate female friends and spend more time with them, while women (69.2%) preferred to see all types of male friends but spend less time with them.

These results conflict with Caldwell et al's (1982) findings where men and women preferred to spend more time with their intimate friends. However the present results are congruous with other findings (eg. Sapadin, 1988; Aukett et al, 1988) where males sought female friends for intimate self disclosure.

In the present work, men indicated preference to spend longer periods with women perhaps to engage in this type intimate self disclosure. Though it seemed that women would prefer not to engage in intimate male friends as much as intimate male friends would like to engage them. Shotland and Craig (1988) found that in friendship encounters males are more likely to mistake friendship for sexually interested behavior. The present result may reflect women's recognition of male's misinterpretation and their attempt to moderate or avoid this.

Woman's avoidance of friendship situations that may be misinterpreted by males as sexual interest cannot be used to explain the change in women's preference from earlier work. Presumably men have been making such sexual (mis)interpretations for some time, but what is responsible for the change in women's preference? The social opportunities of a student sample may be used again to explain a greater motivation to seek a variety of friends. However Caldwell et al's (1982) also used a student sample as did Aukett et al (1988). These American and New Zealand friendship studies have so far seen more similarities than differences in results. Other than suggesting an explanation of sex-role change for women that is moving away from intimacy in friendship, the present study would suggest that further investigations are required to validate and clarify this finding.

Valuing aspects of friendship:

HYPOTHESIS 9

Men derive more emotional support from (OS) friends but Women derive more emotional support from (SS) friends.

This hypothesis was partially supported with 51.6% of men finding emotional support from OS fiends and 71.8% of women receiving this support from SS friends. The statistical significance of this sex-difference does clearly explain the data here. Women show a clear majority in deriving emotional support from other women. The finding for men is less distinct. Just over half of men derive emotional support from women. The sex differences in this result illustrate that most women derive this type of support from women (71.8%), with only 15.6% deriving this from men. Just over half the men derive this type of support from women with only 12.8% deriving emotional support from men.

Men's historical use of women as supports and confidants in friendship have been described. The present study's results offer further support for this pattern, and give no indication that it is changing. However if the male sex-role is altering in a non-traditional way, then future work would be expected to note a greater utilization of male friends by men for emotional support.

HYPOTHESIS 10

Men discuss personal problems more with (OS) friends but Women discuss personal problems more with (SS) friends.

Partial support for this sex difference was found. Women clearly chose **same-sex** friends to discuss personal problems (with 78.2%), however men chose the categories of '**opposite-sex** friends' and '**both** men and women' in nearly even percentages. More men choose the 'women' category (37.5%), with 31.3% choosing the 'men' category, and 21.9% choosing the 'men and women' category respectively.

This suggests that men may choose to reveal personal problems to friends on some variable that is not associated specifically with sex. This will be discussed regarding gender below.

HYPOTHESIS 11

Men derive more therapeutic value (OS) friends but Women derive more therapeutic value (SS) friends.

Support was found for this hypothesis. The sex-difference was not as significant ($p < 0.05$) as in hypothesis ten ($p < 0.0001$). Both men and women showed less distinct preferences across the three response categories. The most popular category for men

(45%) described **opposite-sex** friends as of therapeutic value. Most women (53%) described **same-sex** friends as of therapeutic value.

This supports existing literature (Aukett et al, 1988; Barbee, Gully & Cunningham, 1990). The interpretation of this finding deserves caution in the case of men. Although the most frequently chosen category illustrated men as valuing friendships with women for their therapeutic value, over half of the subjects are represented in the other two categories (SS, 31.3% and both sexes, 21.9%). That is, while statistically significant, this result is not strong.

Again no indication of change can be distinguished from these results. The proportions are remarkably similar to those found in the Aukett et al.

HYPOTHESIS 12

Men and Women describe (SS) friends as being of more value .

This hypothesis was not supported. Around half of men and women valued **same** and **opposite-sex** friends equally. A sex difference emerged here as 42.3% of women rated **opposite-sex** friends as most valuable, as compared to 27.4% of the men. Of men, 22.6% selected the **same-sex** category.

Men were expected to identify other men as most valuable friends despite seeking women out as confidants, emotional supports, and for their therapeutic value. Barbee, Gulley and Cunningham (1990) found that despite males' expectations of females greater assistance to them in difficult situations, they chose to engage other males. Thus it was expected that males would value same-sex friendships most. The reason for the same hypothesis for females stems from repeated findings of females emotional closeness and supportive relationships with other females (Caldwell et al, 1982; Aries et al, 1983; Aukett et al, 1988; Reisman, 1990; Sapadin, 1988).

The men chose more evenly across the groups for this variable. Again it is possible that choice is not made as a function of a variable associated with sex. This will be discussed with regard to gender following consideration of individual hypotheses.

SECTION TWO

Satisfaction with friendship:

Results for satisfaction offered only partial support for the hypotheses. Women rated **same-sex** friendships higher in satisfaction (than men) for 'assistance', 'emotional support', and socializing categories.

HYPOTHESIS 13

Men rate greater satisfaction with (OS) friends than women, while Women rate greater satisfaction with (SS) friends than men on assistance.

Partial support was found for this hypothesis. Women rated greater satisfaction than men on this variable in **same-sex** friendships ($x = 4.58$ for men & 5.19 for women). However men and women did not differ in satisfaction ratings for emotional support in **opposite-sex** friendships ($x = 4.81$ for men & 4.26 for women).

HYPOTHESIS 14

Men rate greater satisfaction with (OS) friends than women, while women rate greater satisfaction with (SS) friends than men on emotional support.

Again only partial support was found. **Opposite-sex** friends were not rated differently on satisfaction with emotional support ($x = 4.92$ for men & 4.60 for women). Women

rated greater satisfaction with emotional support in **same-sex** friendships ($x = 4.28$ for men & 5.55 for women).

HYPOTHESIS 15

Men and Women rate greater satisfaction with (SS) friends on socializing.

Partial support was found here; **opposite-sex** friends were not rated differently on satisfaction with socializing ($x = 4.41$ for men & 4.68 for women). Women rated greater satisfaction with socializing in **same-sex** friendships ($x = 4.53$ for men & 5.18 for women).

SECTION THREE

Desire for change:

Hypothesis 16 & Hypothesis 17

Men desire greater increases to intimate (SS/OS) friendship than women.

Men desire greater increases to conversation intimacy in intimate (SS/OS) friendships than women.

No support for these sex differences were found; here a small range of means occurred across the sexes for each friendship category (x range-*conversation* = 0.06-0.30, x range-*friend number* = 0.16-1.71 {all 3 categories}).

It was expected that males would rate higher in desire for more intimate friendships as they have been identified as possessing less intimacy in friendships. It must be considered that *perception* of intimacy is different from *measurements* of intimate friendship numbers, hours engaged in talking and amount of personal conversation. It may be that males, though rated lower in these intimacy variables, feel themselves to be

intimately involved. It is an assumption that doing things with friends rather than talking with them is less intimate. Sharing some activity with a friend may bring a perceived intimacy for men that it does not for women. Rubinstien, 1983, (cited in Whicker & Kronenfeld, 1986) found that men perceive just being together and spending time together as intimate even without talk about emotional and personal events. Wright (1988) considered assumptions and interpretations of sex differences in friendship intimacy as needing careful interpretation. Accepting this last point as valid despite no sex differences in desire for change were found, subjects registered a non-significant trend desiring slightly more personal conversation in all friendship categories and increases in friendship number in all categories. The number of friends desired increased from the 'intimate' to the 'good' friend's category, and from the 'good' to the 'casual' friend's category.

INTERPRETATION OF CHANGE IN FRIENDSHIP PATTERNS.

The present study noted several differences in friendship patterns that differ from previous research relating to this field.

From hypothesis five; both sexes preferred friends who felt the same way about things. Several studies have emphasized the instrumental nature of men's friendships (Caldwell et al, 1982; Aries et al, 1983; Aukett et al, 1988). As noted in the present research, friendship preferences do not necessarily reflect the actual experiences of friendship. This result may indicate movement by men to become more emotionally involved within friendships.

Hypothesis ten found no clear sex-differences for men in their choice of whom to discuss personal problems with. Some variable not associated with sex may be influencing the choice of confidants. Gender could account for this finding, as Jones

and Dembo (1989) found gender explained differences in intimacy (self disclosure) in friendship better than sex. In Jones and Dembo's study, friends who possessed a feminine gender were chosen more frequently to disclose to. Sex alone did not account for this choice. The present study did not assess gender. Thus mixed or unexpected findings may have resulted from this un-measured variable of gender rather than from shifts in sex-roles for man or women.

This choice of a friend to disclose to may be more influenced by that person's gender than by their sex. Hypothesis 12 asked subjects to rate what friend was of most value to them. Half of males and females chose the 'both men and women' category. Again Gender could account for this, however further research is required to clarify this. The lack of a definition for the term 'value' leaves open the possibility of subject interpreting the question in idiosyncratic ways.

It is worthy of note that several areas within the present study produced results that were very similar to those found in Caldwell et al (1982) and Aukett et al (1988). The sections regarding friendship number, and value of friendships bore striking similarities to these earlier studies. This is interpreted as a stable friendship behavior for men and women over the past 12 years. Relating this to sex-roles, it would suggest that sex-roles while shifting slightly (see below) are largely unchanged in this area. This offers little obvious support for Pleck's (1976) notion of inevitable male sex-role change stemming from sex-role strain.

Satisfaction and Desire for Change.

Women rated themselves significantly higher in the three satisfaction areas of assistance, emotional support and socializing than men in **same-sex** friendships. No sex-differences were found in desire for change in friendship numbers or personal conversation. Both

sexes indicated a desire for more friendships and greater personal conversation in friendship.

One possible interpretation of these findings focuses on intimacy. Men have repeatedly been found to lack the intimacy noted in women's relationships. In the present study men indicated a desire for greater intimacy in friendship and rated lower satisfaction in emotional support for same sex friendship. Also men preferred friends who feel the same way about things, which is a change from the findings of previous studies. Pleck (1976) hypothesized that strain and subsequent dissatisfaction within the existing male sex-role would promote change in the direction of greater emotional involvement with others. Keen (1991) also viewed current male sex-roles as likely to change in this direction. The present study's findings highlighted in this paragraph could be indication of a movement towards greater emotional involvement in friendship, and a desire for that to continue. Such a conclusion is tentative and would require further investigation to clarify.

To summarize, the patterns found in reviewed literature were largely repeated in the present study's results. Some exceptions indicate preference changes, and desire for change in friendship. The direction of this change is for greater emotional involvement in friendship. Several authors have predicted changes in male sex-roles that would involve more intimacy and emotional involvement in interpersonal interaction. The present study's results can be considered as tentative evidence that changes in male sex-roles are occurring in this direction. The mixed natures of results do not allow for an interpretation stronger than this.

WEAKNESSES OF THE STUDY

Several weaknesses have been identified in the present study. These include methodological issues such as; influences of differing responding situations of subjects,

the possibility of socially desirable responding, possible fatigue while completing the questionnaire, and friend-type definitions.

Responding influences

Subjects were permitted to complete the questionnaire away from the setting of distribution and with no set period in which to complete it. The lack of control in these matters provided opportunities for subjects to lose concentration or be influenced in their responding by any variety of extraneous variables. This possibility is made greater an open period in which to respond since subjects could submit the questionnaire to an office any time.

Socially desirable responding

The questionnaire was unlikely to be promote reactive responding, however the sensitive nature of divulging information about friendship could conceivably promote socially desirable responding. For example, individuals with few friendships could, for personal reasons wish to appear to possess a richer social sphere than was the case. Though speculative, this is a possibility that was not controlled for, and the influence is therefore unknown.

Fatigue

According to Guilford (1954) too many categories in a measure can promote disinterest and fatigue. The use of a nine page questionnaire with multiple categories and asking subjects to provide name-initials for friends across six types certainly invites fatigue and disinterest to operate in responding. During the pilot study comments regarding this possibility were sought. This led to the restructuring of the questionnaire to provide a more logically organized and easily answered measure.

Definitions of friendship

The questionnaire employed brief definitions to provide more standardized responding to questions. There was a compromise between brevity and specificity in this. Brevity assists in

maintaining interest in subjects, and was opted for. However individual responding as a result of less-specific definitions may have compromised the data.

FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

While the present study has added to the body of literature regarding friendship patterns, research into change requires additional studies to clarify such findings. Due to the limitations empirical research has to tap into areas of desire for change and satisfaction, incorporation of qualitative data would provide a better grasp of the nature of these areas. This would allow data reflecting the subtleties of friendships to flow into research where only numbers exist currently. This could provide a way of understanding friendships which is at present unattainable

Due to the present study's design, an inability to account for some changes in friendship patterns have resulted. Future research would require inclusion of gender issues to clarify friendship preference choices.

The lack of research focusing on desire for change in friendship was addressed in the present study, however replication and further work is needed to develop more clear patterns in this area.

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APPENDIX A

The Friendship Questionnaire.

MASSE
UNIVERSITFriendship; Patterns, Satisfaction and Desire for Change.INFORMATION SHEET*What is this study about?*

My name is Alan Guy and I am a MSc student in the Psychology Department looking for participants in my study. The aim of my study is to investigate people's friendships with others. It looks at your numbers and types of friends, activities done with friends, satisfaction with friendships, and what (if any) changes you would like to make in friendships.

What would I have to do?

If you agree to take part, you will be asked to fill out the questionnaire attached and return it now, or in your next class here, or to the psychology department office (map provided below). The questionnaire has instructions, and takes about 15 - 20 minutes to complete.

What are my rights?

If you take part in the study you have the right to:

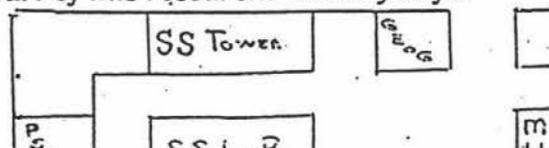
- * refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from the study at any time.
- * ask any further questions about the study that occur to you during your participation.
- * provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researcher. All records are identifiable only by code number, and are seen only by the researcher. It will not be possible to identify you in any reports that result from the study.
- * have access to your own data (make a note of the number at the top of the page.
- * be given access to a summary of findings from the study when it is concluded.

In the event of any personal issues arising for you as a result of participating, full support and help will be available. I can be contacted by leaving a message with Psychology Office; ph. 3504116 if you have any questions about, or matters arise from participation.

Please bring the completed questionnaire to your next class here, OR return it to the PSYCHOLOGY OFFICE, second-floor of the PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT (see map below).

I would really appreciate your help in completing this questionnaire, and hope those who are able to do so enjoy being a part of this research. Thankyou for your time.

Signed:



Friendship; patterns, satisfaction and Desire for change.

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet for this study and have had the details explained to me. My questions about the research have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I also understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time, and to refuse to answer any questions. I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that it is completely confidential and will not be used for any purpose other than this research.

I wish to participate in this study under the conditions set out on the information sheet.

SIGNED: -----

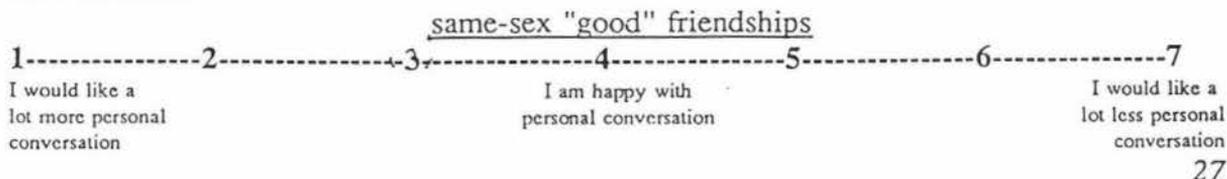
NAME: -----

DATE: -----

Researcher: Alan Guy

Please return completed questionnaires at your next class here, or to the PSYCHOLOGY OFFICE, second floor of the PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT (SEE MAP PAGE 1).

3b. Regarding same-sex "good" friends, would you like more or less personal conversation?



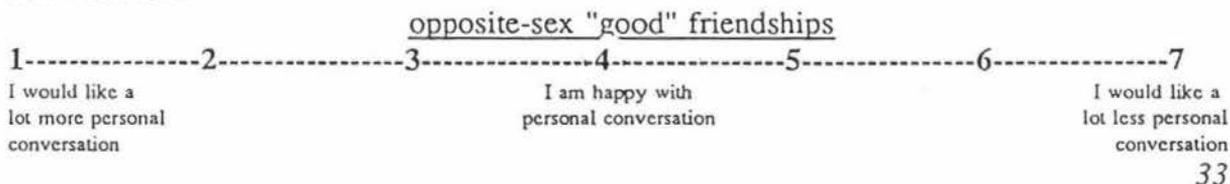
4. Indicate the number of "good", opposite-sex friends you have by writing their initials beside the numbers. Do not include romantic or dating relationships.

None 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
9 10 11 12 13 14 15 or more 28

4a. Would you like to have a different number of good opposite-sex friends? If so how many?

I would like ___ more/less good opposite-sex friends 303132

4b. Regarding Opposite-sex "good" friends, would you like more or less personal conversation?



"CASUAL" FRIEND This is a person with whom you do activities. The activities may be sports, shopping, the movies, eating out, tramping, chess or what ever else you are into. The main purpose of getting together with this person is to have fun doing some activity you both like to do. You talk mostly about what you are doing together. It is pleasant when you are together, but there are no problems if you do not see each other for a while.

5. Indicate the number of "casual", same-sex friends you have by writing their initials beside the numbers. Do not include romantic or dating relationships.

None 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
19 20 21 22 23 24 25 or more 35

5a. Would you like to have a different number of casual same-sex friends? If so how many?

I would like ___ more/less casual same-sex friends 363738

4. In an average week, how many of your opposite-sex friends did you get together with?

I got together with ___ opposite-sex friends. 53

5. In an average week, how many of your opposite-sex friends did you get together with in order just to talk, in person or on the phone?

I got together just to talk with ___ opposite-sex friends. 54 55

6. In an average week, what was the total number of hours you spent talking or doing things with opposite-sex friends?

I spent ___ hours with opposite-sex friends. 56 57

Section 3 General Friendship Preferences

The questions below ask you to choose between two friendship alternatives. Even though it may be difficult to pick one alternative, decide which one of the two you prefer. Check only one alternative for each question.

SAME-SEX FRIEND

1. Which would you rather have?

a/ A same-sex friend who likes to do the same things as you do _____
b/ A same-sex friend who feels the same way about things as you do _____

58

2. Which would you rather have?

a/ A few very close, intimate same-sex friends _____
b/ Many good but less intimate same-sex friends _____

59

3. If you had only a set amount of time to spend with same-sex friends, which would you rather do?

a/ See only intimate friends but be able to spend a lot of time with each of them _____
b/ See all types of friends but be able to spend less time with any one friend. _____

60

4. Which would you rather do?

a/ Do some activity with a same-sex friend _____
b/ Just talk with a same-sex friend _____

61

OPPOSITE-SEX FRIEND

5. Which would you rather have?

- a/ A opposite-sex friend who likes to do the same things as you do _____
 b/ A opposite-sex friend who feels the same way about things as you do _____ 62

6. Which would you rather have?

- a/ A few very close, intimate opposite-sex friends _____
 b/ Many good but less intimate opposite-sex friends _____ 63

7. If you had only a set amount of time to spend with opposite-sex friends, which would you rather do?

- a/ See only intimate friends but be able to spend a lot of time with each of them _____
 b/ See all types of friends but be able to spend less time with any one friend. _____ 64

8. Which would you rather do?

- a/ Do some activity with an opposite-sex friend _____
 b/ Just talk with an opposite-sex friend _____ 65

Section 4 Value of Friendship

In this section you are asked to choose the type of friend you think most appropriate for each situation. Please circle only one alternative.

1. Do you feel that you derive more emotional support from:

- a/ Opposite-sex friend b/ Same-sex Friend
 c/ Same amount from both d/ Neither 66

2. Do you feel that you discuss personal problems more often with your...

- a/ Opposite-sex friend b/ Same-sex Friend
 c/ Same amount from both d/ Neither 67

3. Do you feel that you derive more therapeutic value from your...

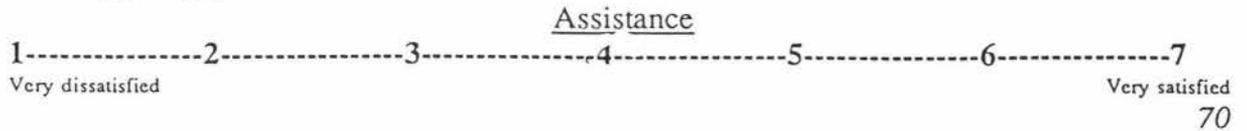
- a/ Opposite-sex friend b/ Same-sex Friend
 c/ Same amount from both d/ Neither 68

4. Which relationships would you describe as being more valuable to you?

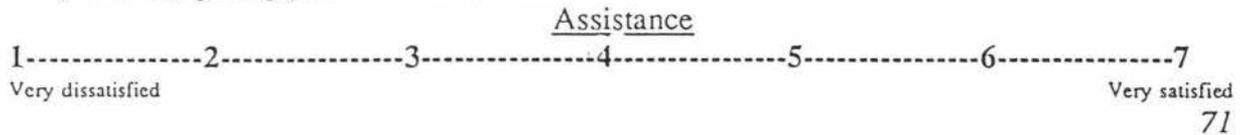
- a/ Opposite-sex friend b/ Same-sex Friend
 c/ Same amount from both d/ Neither 69

Section 5 Satisfaction with Friendships This concerns the types, and qualities of friendships you value. It also relates to elements of friendships you have now or in the future, you might like different.

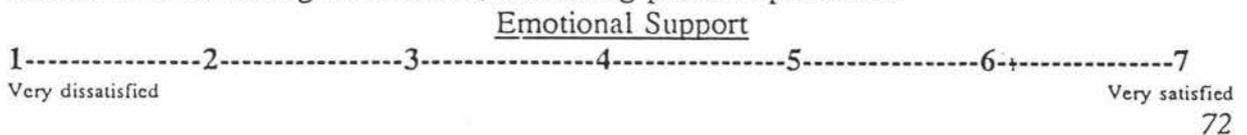
15. How satisfied are you with the assistance you get from your same -sex friends in daily chores, giving you information etc?



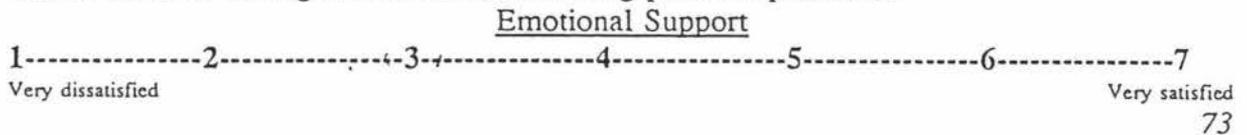
16. How satisfied are you with the assistance you get from your opposite -sex friends in daily chores, giving you information etc?



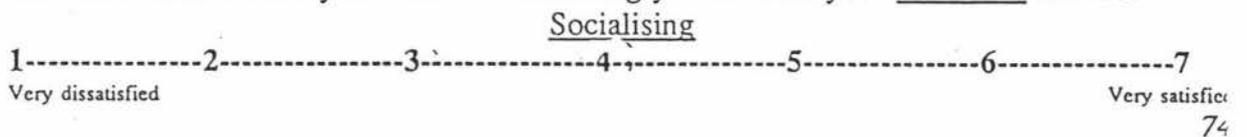
17. How satisfied are you with the emotional support you receive from your same-sex friends such as feeling cared about, discussing personal problems?



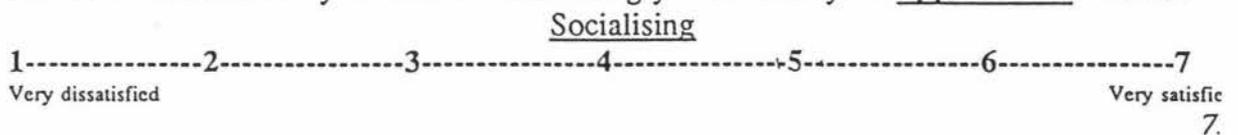
18. How satisfied are you with the emotional support you receive from your opposite-se friends such as feeling cared about, discussing personal problems?



19. How satisfied are you with the socialising you do with your same-sex friends?



20. How satisfied are you with the socialising you do with your opposite-sex friends?



This concludes the questionnaire. If you have any problems or queries relating to this questionnaire, please leave a message with Psychology Office; ph. 3504116.

Thankyou for your participation in this study.

Please bring the completed questionnaire to your next class here, OR return it to PSYCHOLOGY OFFICE, second-floor of the PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT (see p on pg 1).

APPENDIX A

The Friendship Questionnaire.

Friendship; Patterns, Satisfaction and Desire for Change.INFORMATION SHEET*What is this study about?*

My name is Alan Guy and I am a MSc student in the Psychology Department looking for participants in my study. The aim of my study is to investigate people's friendships with others. It looks at your numbers and types of friends, activities done with friends, satisfaction with friendships, and what (if any) changes you would like to make in friendships.

What would I have to do?

If you agree to take part, you will be asked to fill out the questionnaire attached and return it now, or in your next class here, or to the psychology department office (map provided below). The questionnaire has instructions, and takes about 15 - 20 minutes to complete.

What are my rights?

If you take part in the study you have the right to:

- * refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from the study at any time.
- * ask any further questions about the study that occur to you during your participation.
- * provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researcher. All records are identifiable only by code number, and are seen only by the researcher. It will not be possible to identify you in any reports that result from the study.
- * have access to your own data (make a note of the number at the top of the page.
- * be given access to a summary of findings from the study when it is concluded.

In the event of any personal issues arising for you as a result of participating, full support and help will be available. I can be contacted by leaving a message with Psychology Office; ph. 3504116 if you have any questions about, or matters arise from participation.

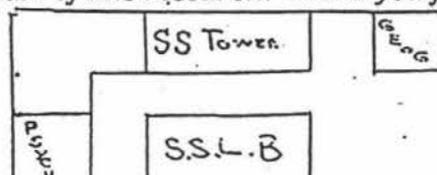
Please bring the completed questionnaire to your next class here, OR return it to the PSYCHOLOGY OFFICE, second-floor of the PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT (see map below).

I would really appreciate your help in completing this questionnaire, and hope those who are able to do so enjoy being a part of this research. Thankyou for your time.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Alan Guy".

Alan Guy



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Friendship; patterns, satisfaction and Desire for change.

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet for this study and have had the details explained to me. My questions about the research have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I also understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time, and to refuse to answer any questions. I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that it is completely confidential and will not be used for any purpose other than this research.

I wish to participate in this study under the conditions set out on the information sheet.

SIGNED: -----

NAME: -----

DATE: -----

Researcher: Alan Guy

Please return completed questionnaires at your next class here, or to the PSYCHOLOGY OFFICE, second floor of the PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT (SEE MAP PAGE 1).

FRIENDSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE.

Alan Guy,
Psychology Department,
Massey University, 1993.

For
Office Use
1234

GENERAL INFORMATION:

- 1. I am _____ Female _____ Male. 5
- 2. I am aged _____ Years. 6 7
- 3. I am presently in a romantic relationship? _____ (yes/no). 8
- 4. My cultural background is
 - Pakeha _____
 - Maori _____
 - Pacific Islander _____
 - Other (specify) _____ 9

Section 1 Different Types of Friends. Below are definitions of three types of friends. Read each description and think of the friends you currently have who fit this description. Indicate the number of friends you have by writing each friend's initials next to the number. For example if you have three "intimate" friends who have the initials; MC, DP and LS, you would write these initials besides the first three numbers.

- 1. MC
- 2. DP
- 3. LS
- 4.

If you have no friends of the type described, circle the word none. Remember there are no correct answers, your honest answer is the best answer.

"INTIMATE" FRIEND This is a person with whom you can really communicate. You can speak freely and frankly. You can confide in this person about your feelings and personal problems. This person really knows you. You value this very close friendship.

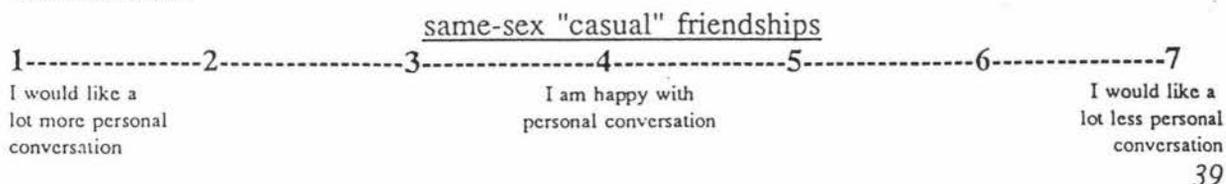
1. Indicate the number of "intimate", same-sex friends you have by writing their initials beside the numbers. **Do not include romantic or dating relationships.**

None	1	2	3	4	5				
	6	7	8	9	10 or more				10 11

1a. Would you like to have a different number of intimate same-sex friends? If so how many?

I would like _____ more/less intimate same-sex friends

5b. Regarding Same-sex "casual" friends, would you like more or less personal conversation?



6. Indicate the number of "casual", opposite-sex friends you have by writing their initials beside the numbers. Do not include romantic or dating relationships.

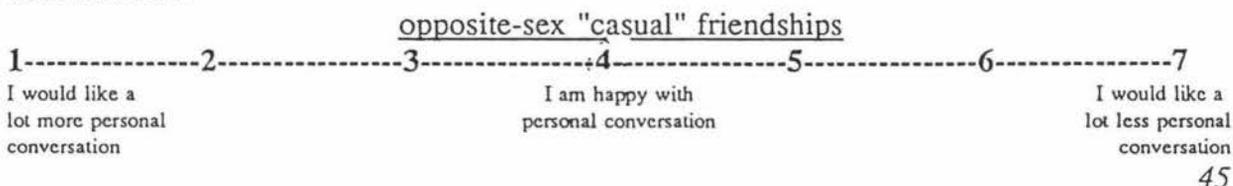
None	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
	19	20	21	22	23	24	25 or more			44

6a. Would you like to have a different number of casual opposite-sex friends? If so how many?

I would like ___ more/less casual opposite-sex friends

424344

6b. Regarding opposite-sex "casual" friends, would you like more or less personal conversation?



Section 2 General Friendship Questions. This section concerns your contact with friends during the last two months. Write the answer in the blank provided

SAME-SEX FRIENDS

1. In an average week, how many of your same-sex friends did you get together with? This is time outside lectures or routine flatting contact (such as being in the same room).

I got together with ___ same-sex friends. 46 47

2. In an average week, how many of your same-sex friends did you get together with in order just to talk, in person or on the phone?

I got together just to talk with _ _ same-sex friends. 48 49

3. In an average week, what was the total number of hours you spent talking or doing things with same-sex friends?

I spent ___ hours with same-sex friends. 50 51

4. In an average week, how many of your opposite-sex friends did you get together with?

I got together with _____ opposite-sex friends. 53

5. In an average week, how many of your opposite-sex friends did you get together with in order just to talk, in person or on the phone?

I got together just to talk with _____ opposite-sex friends. 54 55

6. In an average week, what was the total number of hours you spent talking or doing things with opposite-sex friends?

I spent _____ hours with opposite-sex friends. 56 57

Section 3 General Friendship Preferences The questions below ask you to choose between two friendship alternatives. Even though it may be difficult to pick one alternative, decide which one of the two you prefer. Check only one alternative for each question.

SAME-SEX FRIEND

1. Which would you rather have?

a/ A same-sex friend who likes to do the same things as you do _____
 b/ A same-sex friend who feels the same way about things as you do _____

58

2. Which would you rather have?

a/ A few very close, intimate same-sex friends _____
 b/ Many good but less intimate same-sex friends _____

59

3. If you had only a set amount of time to spend with same-sex friends, which would you rather do?

a/ See only intimate friends but be able to spend a lot of time with each of them _____
 b/ See all types of friends but be able to spend less time with any one friend. _____

60

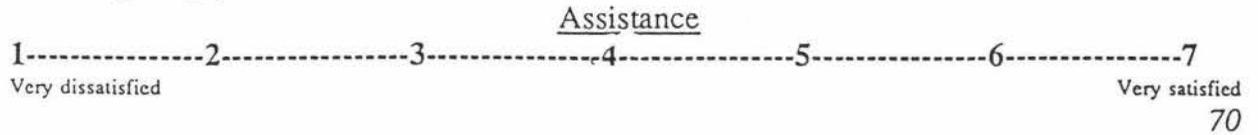
4. Which would you rather do?

a/ Do some activity with a same-sex friend _____
 b/ Just talk with a same-sex friend _____

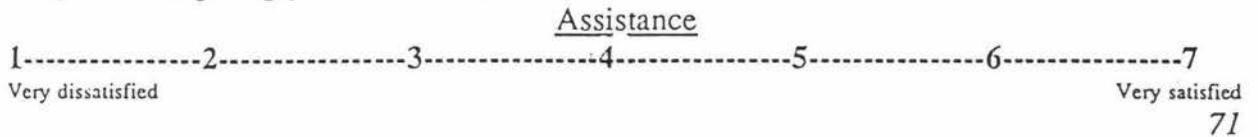
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Section 5 Satisfaction with Friendships This concerns the types, and qualities of friendships you value. It also relates to elements of friendships you have now or in the future, you might like different.

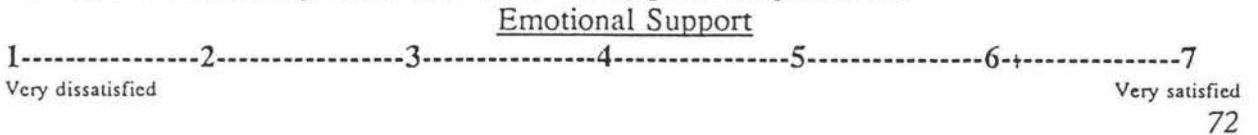
15. How satisfied are you with the assistance you get from your same -sex friends in daily chores, giving you information etc?



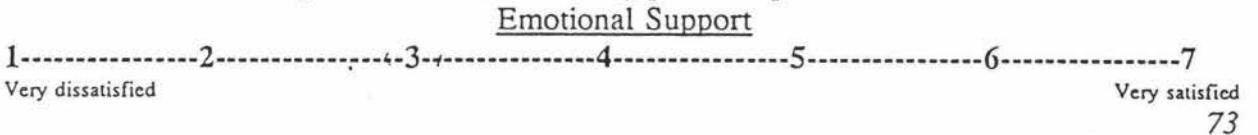
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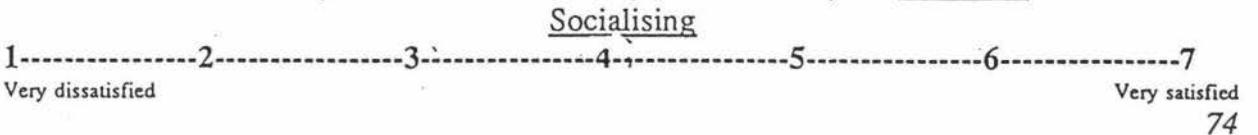
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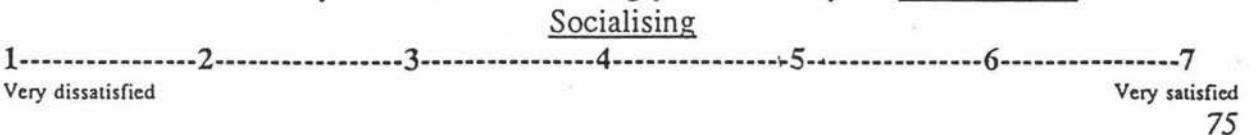
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Thankyou for your participation in this study.

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