Gender, Gender Roles and Academic Success in Diverse College Students

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Abstract

More than ever before, college serves as an important entity to further an individual’s personal and professional goals. An interesting pattern has emerged: women are outpacing men in college enrollment, as well as in degree attainment. Hegemonic masculinity serves as one of many theories to explain this gender gap. Additionally, little research has focused on the topic of hegemonic masculinity exhibited by men of color. Thus, this study had three purposes: to understand the academic behavior and achievement of racially diverse college students, understand how hegemonic masculinity contributes to decreased academic achievement among males, and how hegemonic masculinity differs across racial groups. Utilizing the online survey software Qualtrics, 116 undergraduate students (approximately 64% White and 81% female) participated in this study. The mean age of participants was 20.34 (SD=3.78). Participants responded to items relating to demographics, academic behavior, and gender role ideology. It was found that Black and White female students had higher GPAs than their male counterparts. Black male students displayed high conformity to hegemonic masculine ideals, while engaging in higher rates of academic help-seeking behavior than White male students. This illustrates the double bind that many young men find themselves in. Lastly, it was found that there was a fairly strong positive relationship between hegemonic masculinity and amotivation. The results of this study are intended to aid in the development of initiatives to assist academic and career counselors to best serve college students of diverse backgrounds.

Keywords: college students, academic behavior, gender roles
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Executive Summary

According to the most recent United States educational statistics, females have been outpacing males in degree attainment of bachelor, master, and doctor degree. This pattern has also been found across racial and ethnic groups. While there are several theories to explain this educational gap, one prominent theory is hegemonic masculinity, which was utilized in this study. Hegemonic masculinity can be described as the stereotypical conception of masculinity that a society holds as ideal, such as physicality and heterosexuality. Additionally, little research focuses on hegemonic masculinity exhibited by men of color. Thus, this study attempted to address this gap.

Utilizing the theory of hegemonic masculinity, this quantitative study compared the academic behavior and academic achievement of males and females across racial groups. With assistance from Matthew Mulvaney, my Capstone advisor and an Associate Professor in the Department of Human Development and Family Science (HDFS), an online survey was distributed during the Fall 2018 semester to nine undergraduate level courses in the HDFS department. Students were awarded extra credit for their participation. The survey contained questions pertaining to demographics, academic motivation, career aspirations, academic help-seeking behavior, and gender roles. Additionally, only male participants responded to the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory-46, which is a commonly used instrument to measure the construct of hegemonic masculinity.

There were a total of 116 participants. The majority of participants were White female college students. Additionally, while male participants were the minority, many of the male participants were student-athletes. These participants are reflective of the undergraduate student population in the Department of Human Development and Family Science.
Data analyses included comparing means on instruments, as well as using correlation analysis to determine the relationship between two variables. There were several notable findings. First, Black male college students exhibited higher levels of conformity to hegemonic masculine norms in comparison to White male college students. Second, White and Black female college students had higher GPAs than their male counterparts. Third, despite exhibiting the highest level of academic help-seeking behavior, Black male college students had the lowest GPA. Fourth, there is fairly strong relationship between identification to hegemonic masculine ideals and amotivation, which can be described as a lack of initiative in engaging in academically-related tasks.

This moderately large and diverse sample highlighted how academic behavior, academic achievement, and gender role ideology differs among a diverse group of undergraduate students. In particular, this study demonstrated that there needs to be an emphasis on developing effective academic supports and resources for Black male college students in order to promote their academic achievement. Most importantly, culturally-competent interventions are important to address the needs of today’s increasingly diverse college student population.

As an aspiring school social worker, this study illuminated the importance of providing effective academic resources and supports to students prior to entering the college atmosphere. Developing strong self-efficacy strategies within adolescence will assist students as they encounter the academically-rigorous college atmosphere. While students are subject to various societal pressures, student support service personnel can play an influential role in building academic resiliency, so that students are empowered to work toward their educational and career aspirations.
Gender, Gender Roles, and Academic Success in Diverse College Students

Much research has focused on the lack of female representation in higher education, but current researchers have begun to focus on their male counterparts (Kahn, Brett, & Holmes, 2011). It has been noted that women are outpacing men with regards to degree attainment. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2016a), females have outpaced their male counterparts in bachelor’s, master’s, and doctor’s degrees. In all races and ethnicities, including White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and two or more races, females are earning more bachelor’s, master’s, and doctor’s degrees (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016b). One of the most notable explanations for this pattern of degree attainment is boys’ strong adherence to hegemonic masculine ideals, thus influencing several domains of their lives. Society’s strict notion of gender norms can have a lasting impact on the educational experience and outlook of both boys and girls (Morris, 2011). Additionally, there is a lack of research on the topic of hegemonic masculinity exhibited by men of color. Thus, this study serves to provide more knowledge surrounding how hegemonic masculinity exhibited by men of different racial groups, impacts their academic performance in comparison to their female counterparts.
Literature Review

Historical Considerations

The exclusion of girls and women at formal schooling institutions significantly impacted their ability to obtain an education (Parrillo, 2008). Much of this exclusion derives from the notion that women were best fit catering to household duties, as well as caretaking (Parrillo, 2008). In fact, this gender role ideology infiltrated policies to enforce the limitation of these educational opportunities (Parrillo, 2008). The enactment of Title IX was established to ensure that educational institutions did not engage in the discriminatory practice of denying an individual into an educational program or an activity simply due to their sex (Nicholson & Pasque, 2011). Title IX opened the door for girls and women to gain access to educational institutions that once previously served only men (Parrillo, 2008). Over the last century and a quarter, women have made significant advancements in educational attainment due to increasing number of educational opportunities made available to them (Parrillo, 2008).

Current Educational Trends

College enrollment rates have increased for both males and females within the last decade and a half (McFarland et al., 2018). However, females have enrolled in college at higher rates (McFarland et al., 2018). Additionally, female students account for 56% of total undergraduate enrollment (McFarland et al., 2018). Approximately, 54% of undergraduate students are White (McFarland et al., 2018). In 2016, 59% of post baccalaureate students are female (McFarland et al., 2018). Additionally, 64% of post baccalaureate students are White (McFarland et al., 2018).
The Underachievement of Males: Social Considerations

Peers play an influential role in the way boys conceptualize schooling. Displaying a strong interest in academics likely warranted disapproval from their male counterparts (Morris, 2008). In a study done by Morris (2008), boys that were academically-oriented were subject to taunting by their peers. Interestingly, students in this study asserted that academically-oriented boys were deemed strange, whereas it was normal for girls to be academically-oriented (Morris, 2008). Instead, the boys in this study valued manual work, as this allowed them to display their masculinity (Morris, 2008).

Due to this peer influence, this puts boys and young men in a unique position as to how they are going to display their masculinity. For example, young men describe the difficulties about staying on top of their academics (Jackson & Dempster, 2009). Their hardworking capabilities must not be very evident, or else it may warrant ostracization by their male peers (Jackson & Dempster, 2009). This is related to the notion of appearing cool, and a core component of this persona is not being viewed as a hard worker (Jackson, 2003; Kuriloff & Reichert, 2003). Interestingly, adolescent boys admitted the importance of obtaining an education as they knew the financial and career prospects associated with such (Jackson, 2003). Overall, boys are likely to display a facade in which they put in the right amount of effort to do well in school, yet not too much to warrant backlash from their male peers (Jackson, 2003). It is evident that masculine behaviors should be easily identifiable by other men, which attributes to in-group acceptance (Warin & Dempster, 2007). The adaptation of masculine behaviors was indicative of feelings of social exclusion (Warin & Dempster, 2007).
Hegemonic Masculinity

R.W. Connell is one of the most prominent scholars in gender theory, particularly in the concept of hegemonic masculinity. Connell (1995) defined hegemonic masculinity as “the configuration of gender practice which embodies the currently accepted answer to the problem of the legitimacy of patriarchy, which guarantees (or is taken to guarantee) the dominant position of men and the subordination of women” (p. 77). This demonstrates that hegemonic masculinity is conceptualized as the most dominant gender role (Howson, 2006). Due to this emphasis on dominance, hegemonic masculinity is very visible (Connell, 2001). In fact, the visibility of hegemonic masculinity creates the image that it is the only acceptable form of masculinity (Connell, 2001; Connell, 2005; Younger & Warrington, 2005). Another component of hegemonic masculinity is the importance of distinguishing one’s self from others, such as femininity, homosexuality and marginalized masculinities exhibited by men of color and men with disabilities (Vantieghem, Vermeersch, & Van Houtte, 2014a). Thus, the image of hegemonic masculinity is indicative of a White heterosexual male who is able bodied (Ferber, 2008). Superiority is a key aspect in this concept (Haywood & Mac an Ghaill, 2003).

Hegemonic masculinity consists of practices, behaviors, and beliefs that are deemed as masculine by a large proportion of individuals (O’Brien, 2009). Men engage in these practices, behaviors and beliefs to ensure control within society (O’Brien, 2009). Essentially, exhibiting hegemonic masculinity demonstrates to others that you are exhibiting mannerisms that parallel with what it means to be a man (O’Brien, 2009). Common characteristics associated with hegemonic masculinity are the following: “physical strength, economic success, control, exclusive heterosexuality and the search for sexual conquests even if by force, athletic prowess, stoicism and suppression of emotions that convey vulnerability, and patrolling of other men’s
masculinities (as well as women’s femininities)” (O’Brien, 2009, p. 412). Hegemonic masculinity thrives on the notion that men must appear socially acceptable as men to others (Alldred & Davis, 2007).

**Historical Considerations.**

Hegemonic masculinity was closely related to the times of industrialization (Weis, 2003). Prior to industrialization, there was much emphasis on strict notions of gender in which men provided for the family and women took care of the children and household duties (Kimmel, 1993). Kimmel (1993) references sweeping changes in the early 1900s that occurred within society such as the influx of immigrants and minorities, emerging gay population, and increasing rights for women, in which these three groups appeared to challenge hegemonic masculinity (Kimmel, 1993). Additionally, over the course of the last several hundreds of years, there has been a shift in the job market where hard, physical labor does not pay as much as it once did (Morris, 2011). Moreover, many of the most financially secure careers require at least a college education (Weis, 2003). Lastly, women continue to enter the workforce more than in the past (Stacey, 1993). These societal changes have significantly altered the educational and occupational outlook of men.

**Racial and Ethnic Considerations.**

Historically, the notion of masculinity was focused on White males (Henfield, 2012). Lee (2004) iterates that Whiteness is deemed as the norm for many identities, including one’s masculinity and femininity. However, there has been a recent movement toward the conceptualization of several masculinities which are predicated on the many identities individuals possess (Henfield, 2012). For example, due to the racism experienced by men of color, it is likely that they will conceptualize masculinity much differently than their White male
counterparts (Henfield, 2012). Furthermore, hegemonic masculinity is perhaps more attainable for White men as they have more opportunities than men from marginalized population, to achieve significant social status and power (Bhana, 2005).

Pompper (2010) illustrated how masculinities are conceptualized for men of various racial and ethnic backgrounds. Among all men, masculinity was described as an internal attribute (Pompper, 2010). Black and White men agreed that masculinity is associated with a cool demeanor (Pompper, 2010). Latino and Asian men particularly emphasized the notion of responsibility, especially with regards to providing for their families (Pompper, 2010). Additionally, Asian men believed that American men were obsessed with their physicality (Pompper, 2010). Latino men were also critical of the American perception of masculinity as they believe that a man’s mental qualities were more important than their physicality (Pompper, 2010). White men expressed the strongest reluctance toward losing their privilege in society (Pompper, 2010). For men of color, pride was strongly associated with masculinity (Pompper, 2010). Across all racial and ethnic groups, there was emphasis on not being a coward (Pompper, 2010). There was a consensus among the men that masculinity was defined in opposition to homosexuality (Pompper, 2010).

**Hegemonic Masculinity within the College Sphere.**

Hegemonic masculinity within the context of schools ensures that there are strict guidelines for masculinity and femininity (Lesko, 2000). Harris and Edwards (2010) found that prior to college, many young men already hold hegemonic masculine ideals. These young men defined masculinity in opposition to weakness, femininity, and homosexuality, which are indicative of the definition of hegemonic masculinity (Harris & Edwards, 2010). Moreover, respondents in the study by Harris and Edwards (2010) stated that college men are under
immense pressure to consistently exhibit hegemonic behavior. For example, they must appear heterosexual in all social interactions, which demonstrate that heterosexuality is closely intertwined with masculinity (Harris & Edwards, 2010). Additionally, college men exhibited their masculinity by engaging in sexual endeavors, being defiant, saying sexist statements, binge drinking, and having a nonchalant attitude towards their school work (Harris & Edwards, 2010; Taulke-Johnson, 2010). Edwards and Jones (2009) illustrated that despite the enormous pressure for college men to party, they did seem to be aware that they must prepare for life after college. The young men cited their coursework helped them make sense of their internal battle with regards to their masculinity (Edwards & Jones, 2009).

**Academic Success**

Hegemonic masculinity is associated with success, but this success must be displayed in a masculine manner (Lusher, 2011). In a study conducted by Harris (2010), young men said that they could display academic success as long as they display competence in other areas as well. Adolescent boys viewed academic success as feminine quality, which they equate with homosexuality (Curtin & Linehan, 2002). Frosh, Phoenix and Pattman (2003) stated that the ideals of hegemonic masculinity encourage boys to equate schooling as not masculine. Despite not needing to demonstrate their academic success, they still felt the need to exert their dominance of their female classmates, such as saying disparaging comments to their female peers (Renold, 2010).

As demonstrated in a study done by Morris (2008), girls were more academically successful than their male counterparts. In fact, girls equated knowledge from school as the foundation to a successful life (Morris, 2008). Many of the girls as participants in Morris’ (2008) study appeared to be hardworking students. Many of the boys in these rural communities
conceptualized hard work with manual labor instead of with school work (Morris, 2008). In manual labor, men are able to display their masculinity. Also, Morris (2008) found that girls held higher academic goals than their male peers (Morris, 2008). Of the students that were planning to attend 4 year colleges, girls made up more than two-thirds of these students (Morris, 2008). However, the boys did express interest in professions that involve manual labor, which does not require a college education (Morris, 2008). Essentially, masculinity is typically associated with the physicality asserted by men. Thus, professions that involve manual labor align with their views of masculinity.

Young men place significant emphasis on striving for effortless success in sports and socially (Jackson & Dempster, 2009). When boys do experience an academic failure, they tend to blame it on lack of effort in comparison to lack of ability (Jackson, 2003; Jackson & Dempster, 2009). The notion of effortless is associated with self-flattery (Jackson, 2003). Male students made an effort to distance themselves from the term nerd (Munsch & Gruys, 2018). It appears that this notion of effortless success is connected with the dominance associated with being a man, according to the notion of hegemonic masculinity.

Throughout college, women earned higher grades than men (Sax & Arms, 2008). In addition, it was found that women dedicated more time to studying and working on homework (Sax & Arms, 2008; West, 1999). Women spent more time engaging with their professors (Sax & Arms, 2008). Men were more likely to oversleep and miss a class or an appointment (Sax & Arms, 2008). In a study of college men, the male students said that their female counterparts are more studious than they are (Munsch & Gruys, 2018). In a sense, intelligence for female students was tied with academics whereas male students exhibited practical skills which were associated with the intelligence of men (Munsch & Gruys, 2018). Adult men who returned back to college
stated that underachievement reduced the number of career options available to them (Hancock, 2012).

**Academic Help-Seeking Behaviors in the College Setting**

There is no agreed upon definition of academic help-seeking, however it can be broadly defined as behaviors to enhance one’s understanding of their school work and class work (Wilmer & Levant, 2011). Academic help-seeking is closely related to an individual’s academic success because one is exhibiting the effort to improve their academic performance (Ames & Lau, 1982). Additionally, students may have a positive or negative connotation towards seeking help (Ames & Lau, 1982). It appears that gender role ideology has an influence in this help-seeking behavior.

According to a study conducted by Wilmer and Levant (2011), a high level of conformity to masculine norms appeared to decrease the likelihood of an individual seeking help. For male college students, the strict adherence to this macho persona prevented men from seeking academic help even when it is necessary for their academic success (Musser, St. Pierre, Wilson, & Schwartz, 2017). Male students were reluctant to seek academic help as they do not want to appear vulnerable (Musser et al., 2017). Wilmer and Levant (2011) cited self-reliance and dominance as characteristics that limit a man from seeking help. Men believed that they are supposed to be self-sufficient, thus seeking academic help threatens this (Wilmer & Levant, 2011). Thus, boys believed that seeking help is associated with more risk than rewards, especially with the social repercussions (Kessels & Steinmayr, 2013). In their study, Musser et al. (2017) found that instead of seeking this academic help, college men may engage in social isolation and substance use. As demonstrated by Winograd and Rust (2014) in a study about underrepresented college students, males equated academic help-seeking with weakness in
comparison to their female peers. For men, it is important for them to demonstrate confidence in all aspects of their lives. Seeking assistance from professors is common in the college setting. One study found that some male college students are reluctant to seek assistance from their professors because none of their peers sought out their professors for this (Vianden, 2009). In addition, these college students were reluctant to tell others that they needed help (Vianden, 2009). Based on the Bem Role Sex Inventory, individuals that were identified as masculine-typed appeared to exhibit the lowest help-seeking score (Marrs, Sigler, & Brammer, 2012). For male students, it was stated that seeking help was conveniently used as an excuse-to not put much effort in to get correct answers (Kessels & Steinmayr, 2013).

However, it appears that female college students are more likely to seek academic help in comparison to their male counterparts (Holt, 2014; Alexistch, 2002). Additionally, based on a study of high school students, Kessels and Steinmayr (2013) found that girls appeared to display more favorable attitudes toward academic help. As seen in the study done by Al-Ansari, El Tantawi, AbdelSalam, and Al-Harbi (2015), female students were found to be more likely to seek for help from their academic advisor, as well as, talk to their advisors about related issues. Nadler (1997) asserted that asking for help appears to fall in line with the interpersonal nature of women (as cited in Raviv, Sills, Raviv, & Wilansky, 2000). Most importantly, individuals that viewed academic help-seeking in a positive manner appeared to experience academic gains (Kessels & Steinmayr, 2013).

**Academic Motivation**

Academic motivation can be defined as the ability to carry out an academically-related behavior or goal (Brouse, Basch, LeBlanc, McKnight, & Lei, 2010). Additionally, this behavior can either be intrinsically, extrinsically motivated or amotivated (Vallerand et al., 1992). Intrinsic
motivation can be defined as engaging in behaviors due to internal motives (Deci, 2004). There are three types of intrinsic motivation including intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment, and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (Vallerand et al., 1992). Intrinsic motivation to know refers to an individual’s interest in acquiring knowledge (Vallerand et al., 1992). Intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment can be described as engaging in behavior solely due to the expected outcome (Vallerand et al., 1992). Lastly, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation focuses on the pleasure an individual experiences when engaging in a task (Vallerand et al., 1992).

Extrinsic motivation can be defined as engaging in behaviors due to external motives (Deci, 2004). Furthermore, extrinsic motivation is composed of three levels, external regulation, introjections and identification. External regulation is connected to how external forces regulate one’s behavior (Vallerand et al., 1992). Introjected regulation is connected to how internal forces regulate one’s behavior, which is often based on previous contingencies (Vallerand et al., 1992). Lastly, identification focuses on the value an individual has attributed to the behavior (Vallerand et al., 1992).

However, amotivation focuses on a lack of initiative due to not recognizing any benefits associated with their actions (Vallerand et al., 1992; Vallerand, 2004). Additionally, amotivation is related to individuals stating that their behaviors are “caused by forces out of their own control” (Vallerand et al., 1992, p. 1007). There is a sense of helplessness associated with this dimension, which can sometimes lead people to give up their academic pursuits (Vallerand et al., 1992).
Intrinsic Motivation.

Brouse, Basch, LeBlanc, McKnight, and Lei (2010) found that female college students exhibited higher levels of intrinsic motivation, including all three types. Turner, Chandler and Heffer (2009) found that intrinsic motivation significantly predicted academic performance. Strong mentoring relationships with faculty play an influential role in the personal and professional development of college students. In fact, it was found that intrinsic motivation was positively related to career guidance (Komarraju, Musulkin, & Bhattacharya, 2010). D’Lima, Winsler & Kitsantas (2014) said there is an increased likelihood of college students achieving high grades in their first semester if there were high levels of intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Males from racial minority groups had higher levels of intrinsic motivation than their female counterparts (D’Lima, Winsler, & Kitsantas, 2014). However, Caucasian female students had higher levels of intrinsic motivation in comparison to Caucasian male students (D’Lima, Winsler, & Kitsantas, 2014). Female college students reported higher levels on intrinsic motivation in comparison to their male counterparts (Brouse, Basch, LeBlanc, McKnight, & Lei, 2000). Additionally, Reynolds and Weigand (2010) found that intrinsic motivation is positively related to resilience. Similarly, Baker (2004) found that there was a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and adjustment, while there is a negative relationship between intrinsic motivation and stress. This suggests that students that have high intrinsic motivation possess the internal strength to overcome academic challenges.

Extrinsic Motivation.

In addition to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation was also found to be positively related to career guidance (Komarraju, Musulkin, & Bhattacharya, 2010). Despite male and female students exhibiting comparable levels of extrinsic motivation at the beginning of the
semester, male students had a decline in this level throughout the semester (D’Lima, Winsler, & Kitsantas, 2014). Positive peer relations were found to increase the likelihood that first year undergraduates study (Noyens, Donche, Coertjens, van Daal, & Van Petegem, 2018). In this sense, peer relations serve as extrinsic motivation to encourage students to make productive academically-related choices.

Amotivation.

College students that exhibit high levels of amotivation are less likely to view their instructors as approachable (Komarraju, Musulkin, & Bhattacharya, 2010). This can be very detrimental to those students who are struggling academically. Additionally, amotivation was found to be negatively related to resiliency, which suggests that amotivation behavior does not possess students with the capabilities to succeed in the face of academic adversity (Reynolds & Weigand, 2010). Furthermore, it was found that amotivation is closely related to a greater amount of stress experienced by college students (Baker, 2004). Amotivation was found to negatively impact one’s perception of the college atmosphere, which can significantly deter a student from engaging in their studies (Reynolds & Weigand, 2010).

Career Aspirations

Career aspirations are related to one’s goals pertaining to positions of power in their career field, as well furthering their education and knowledge about their field (Gregor, 2016). These aspirations serve to encourage educational and occupational persistence, which is indicative of the motivation and values one holds about their education. Research has found that there are gender differences with regards to these aspirations. For example, women were found to more likely to aspire to attend graduate or professional school (Sax & Arms, 2008; Mattern & Show, 2010). In fact, they described their undergraduate education as preparation for graduate or
professional education (Sax & Arms, 2008). However, throughout college, men experienced an increase interest in terminal bachelor’s degrees (Sax & Arms, 2008). Since female adolescents and young adults exhibited higher educational and occupational expectations, this has encouraged them to continue their education (Mello, 2008).

Additionally, women and men exhibited interests in different occupations. For example, Jacobs, Karen and McClelland (1991) found that many young men have an interest in occupations where they have the opportunity to obtain a managerial position. It was determined that masculine jobs were associated with money and power, while feminine jobs were associated with family values (Weisgram, Bigler, & Liben, 2010; Sax & Arms, 2008; Stone & McKee, 2000). It was found that believing in more traditional gender role is related to a decrease likelihood of holding aspirations toward entering a female-dominated profession (Hardie, 2015).

In a study of men, Lupton (2006) said that they do not like being in occupational positions were they are being managed by others. In a sense, there was a tone of domination associated with this, in which they interpreted as feminine (Lupton, 2006). However, it was more common for female college students to be motivated to pursue a career due to the service nature of the potential career (Stone & McKee, 2000; Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004).

Based on previous research, it is evident that hegemonic masculine ideals influence the educational experience of male students. The study will provide insight into how hegemonic masculinity influences the academic lives of male undergraduate students of all backgrounds, which is an under researched topic. By comparing the academic behavior, aspirations and performance of female and male students, it will determine the ways in which hegemonic masculinity influence males in higher education. Thus, the following hypotheses were tested in this study:
1. Hegemonic masculine ideals will be more prominent among White male college students.

2. There is a strong negative relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and academic motivation for male college students.

3. There is a strong negative relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and help seeking behavior for male college students.

4. Female college students will exhibit higher academic achievement than male college students.

5. There is a strong positive relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and leadership aspirations for male college students.

6. There is a moderate positive relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and achievement aspirations for male college students.

7. There is a strong negative relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and educational aspirations for male college students.

**Method**

**Participants**

The participants were enrolled in undergraduate courses in the Department of Human Development and Family Science at a large private university in the Northeast of the United States. There were total of 116 participants. The majority of participants were female, as there were 94 female participants composing of 81% of the total participants, whereas there were 20 male participants composing of 17.2% of the total participants. The mean age of participants was 20.34 years, with a standard deviation of 3.782. Additionally, 2.6% (n=3) of participants identified as American Indian/Native American, 5.2% (n=6) identified as Asian American/Pacific Islander, 19% (n=22) identified as Black/African American, 63.8% (n=74)
identified as White/Caucasian, 3.4% (n=4) identified as mixed race, and 4.3% (n=5) identified as other. With regards to being of Hispanic or Latino origin, 5.2% (n=6) of participants identified as such and 93.1% (n=108) did not identify as Hispanic or Latino. With regards to sexual orientation, 87.9% (n=102) of participants identified as heterosexual, 2.6% (n=3) identified as homosexual, and 6.9% (n=8) identified as bisexual.

With regards to family socioeconomic status, 7.8% (n=9) of participants identified as lower class, 13.8% (n=16) identified as lower middle class, 29.3% (n=34) identified as middle class, 37.1% (n=43) identified as upper middle class, and 9.5% (n=11) identified as upper class. Participants were asked to identify their mother’s highest level of education, 6% (n=7) did not finish high school, 12.9% (n=15) had a high school degree or GED, 29.3% (n=34) had some college or technical certification, 27.6% (n=32) had a bachelor’s degree, and 22.4% (n=26) had a postgraduate or professional degree (such as MA, MBA, PhD, MD, and JD). Additionally, participants were asked to identify their father’s highest level of education, 6% (n=7) did not finish high school, 18.1% (n=21), had a high school degree or GED, 19% (n=22) had some college or technical certification, 28.4% (n=33) had a bachelor’s degree, and 26.7% (n=31) had a postgraduate or professional degree (such as MA, MBA, PhD, MD, and JD).

Furthermore, 19% (n=22) of participants identified as a freshman, 26.7% (n=31) identified as a sophomore, 25.9% (n=30) identified as a junior, 25.0% (n=29) identified as a senior, and 1.7% (n=2) identified as a fifth-year student. Moreover, 10.3% (n=12) identified as an international student and 87.9% (n=102) did not identify as an international student. Of those that identified as an international student, 54% (n=6) of these students were from China. With regards to being a first generation college student, 23.3% (n=27) identified as such and 75% (n=87) did not identify as a first generation college student. The majority of participants
identified their major as Human Development and Family Science, 65.5% (n=79). Reflecting on this, the majority of participants wanted to enter a helping profession career working with the population of children and families, 57.8% (n=67). The mean GPA of participants was 3.22 with a standard deviation of .477. Freshmen were asked to indicate their high school GPA due to being in the midst of completing their first semester of college. The mean GPA of freshmen participants was 3.59 with a standard deviation of .419. Only those that identified as sophomore standing or higher were asked if they have ever been on the Dean’s List, in which 44.8% (n=52) identified that they have been on the Dean’s List. For those that indicated that they were freshman, were asked to indicate how many times they were on the Honor Roll. With regards to this, 56% (n=14) of freshmen participants indicated that they were on the Honor Roll at their high school at least once. With regards to employment status, 33.6% (n=39) of participants work part-time. However, 44% (n=51) of participants were unemployed and not seeking employment, whereas 19.8% (n=23) of participants were unemployed and seeking employment. Approximately 50% (n=58) of participants have had an internship, while only 16.4% (n=19) of participants currently have an internship.

**Procedure**

Upon IRB approval, professors from the Department of Human Development and Family Science were contacted for assistance with data collection. There were six professors that volunteered their classes to participate in this study, in which their students would have the opportunity to gain extra credit. This consisted of total of nine undergraduate courses in the Department of Human Development and Family Science. The students that were enrolled in these nine courses received an email detailing the survey, as well as individualized link to the survey, which was available on the online survey software Qualtrics. A total of 223 emails were
distributed with a response rate of 52%. Once students clicked this link, they were directed to the online consent form. By agreeing to the consent form, students proceeded to the survey. The students were given one week to complete the survey. Once the survey closed, participating professors were given a list of their students that either began or completed the survey.

**Instruments**

The Career Aspiration Scale-Revised (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015) is composed of 24 items across three subscales—achievement aspiration, leadership aspiration, and educational aspiration. These items are answered on a 5 point Likert type scale, 0=not at all true of me and 4= very true of me (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015). The achievement aspirations are defined as the degree to one an recognized for their contributions in their career field (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015). An example of an achievement aspiration is “I want to be among the very best in my field” (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015, p. 71). Leadership aspirations are defined as the degree one places on obtaining positions of power in their career field (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015). An example of a leadership aspiration is “I hope to become a leader in my career field” (Gregor & O’Brien, 2016, p. 71). Lastly, educational aspirations are defined as the degree one places on obtaining additional education and training in their career field (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015). An example of an educational aspiration is “I plan to reach the highest level of education in my field” (Gregor & O’Brien, 2016, p. 71). The Cronbach’s Alpha for the Career Aspiration Scale-Revised is .91.

The Academic-Help-Seeking Behaviors Inventory (Marrs, Brammer, & Sigler, 2012) consists of eight items related to proactive behaviors within the college setting. These items were answered on a 4 point Likert type scale. An example of an item is “sought help from support services” (Marrs, Sigler, & Brammer, 2012, p. 276). The Cronbach’s Alpha for the Academic Help-Seeking Behaviors Inventory is .78.
The Academic Motivation Scale-College Version (AMS-C28) contains 28 items across 7 subscales— intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation, extrinsic motivation identified regulation, extrinsic motivation introjected regulation, extrinsic motivation external regulation, and amotivation, in which respondents are asked to rate how much the statement corresponds to their reason for attending college. There are four items for each subscale. Each item is rated on a 7 point Likert scale, from 1=not at all to 7=exactly. An example of an intrinsic motivation to know item is “because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things”. An example of an intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment items includes “for the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies”. An example of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation is “for the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others”. With regards to extrinsic motivation items, the following are examples: for identified regulation “Because I think that a school education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen”, for introjected regulation “to prove to myself that I am capable of completing my school degree”, and for external regulation “because with only a high-school degree I would not find a high-paying job later on”. Lastly, an example of an amotivation item is “honestly, I don’t know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school”. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the Academic Motivation Scale-College Version is .90.

The Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (CMNI-46) is composed of 46 items across 9 subscales, which includes emotional control (“I never share my feelings”), winning (“in general, I will do anything to win”), playboy (“It would be enjoyable to date more than 1 person at a time”), violence (“sometimes violent action is necessary”), self-reliance (“I hate asking for help”), risk-taking (“I enjoy taking risks”), power over women (“in general, I control the women..."
in my life”), primacy of work (“my work is the most important part of my life”), and heterosexual self-presentation (“I would be furious if someone thought I was gay”). Participants are asked to rate each item on a 4 point Likert type scale, 1=strongly disagree to 4=strongly agree. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory ranges is .78. Bem Sex-Role Inventory Short-Form consists of 30 items, in which participants are asked to rate themselves on each item on a 7 point Likert-type scale (1=never or almost never true to 7=always or almost always true). It contains attributes that are more feminine in nature (such as loyal, compassionate, and understanding) and more masculine in nature (self reliant, athletic, and assertive). The Cronbach’s Alpha for the Bem Sex-Role Inventory Short-Form masculinity scale is .85. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the Bem Sex-Role Inventory Short-Form femininity scale is .88.

Demographics

Participants were asked to indicate the following demographic variables including age, race (including whether they are of Hispanic or Latino origin, gender, sexual orientation, country of origin. Additionally, participants were asked to respond to variables regarding their academic studies including their status as a first generation college student, status as an international student, academic standing, major(s), high school GPA if a participant indicated that they were a freshman, college GPA, Dean’s List, Honor Roll, employment status, internship status, and intended career. Furthermore, participants were asked to indicate family demographics such as mother’s highest level of education, father’s highest level of education, and familial socioeconomic status.
Results
Data analyses were conducted with the SPSS, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

Hegemonic Masculinity

Male Participants.

Black and White male participants consisted of 84% of participants that answered the conformity to masculine norms inventory. It is interesting to note that the sole Asian male participant exhibited the highest level of conformity to masculine norms (M=2.66, SD=N/A). An independent samples t test showed that Black male participants exhibited higher levels of masculinity (M=2.65, SD=.17) in comparison to White male participants (M=2.29, SD=.20), $t(14)=3.82$, $p < .01$.

Academic Help-Seeking Behavior

Male Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did engage in significantly higher levels of academic help-seeking behavior (M=3.00, SD=.45) than White male participants (M=2.19, SD=.76), $t(15)=2.63$, $p < .05$.

Female Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not engage in significantly higher levels of academic help-seeking behavior (M=2.54, SD=.61) in comparison to their White female counterparts (M=2.49, SD=.52), $t(76)=.29$, $p > .05$.

Black Participants.

An independent t-test demonstrated that Black male participants did not engage in significantly higher levels of academic help-seeking behavior (M=3.00, SD=.45) than Black female participants (M=2.54, SD=.61), $t(20)=1.89$, $p > .05$. 
White Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not engage in significantly higher levels of academic help-seeking behavior (M=2.49, SD=.52) than White male participants (M=2.19, SD=.76), \( t(71)=-1.50, p>.05 \).

Career Aspirations

Male Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White male participants did not have significantly higher levels of achievement aspirations (M=3.96, SD=.59) than Black male participants (M=3.86, SD=.70), \( t(14)=-.31, p>.05 \). An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did not significantly higher levels of leadership aspirations (M=3.87, SD=.67) than White male participants (M=3.39, SD=.99), \( t(14)=1.10, p>.05 \). An independent t-test found that White male participants did not have significantly higher educational aspirations (M=3.82, SD=.82) than Black male participants (M=3.64, SD=.72), \( t(14)=-.45, p>.05 \).

Female Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not have significantly higher levels of achievement aspirations (M=4.21, SD=.87) than White female participants (M=4.08, SD=.63), \( t(75)=.63, p>.05 \). An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not have significantly higher levels of leadership aspirations (M=4.15, SD=.92) than White female participants (M=3.83, SD=.83), \( t(76)=1.29, p>.05 \). An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not have significantly higher levels of educational aspirations (M=4.31, SD=.72) than White female participants (M=3.96, SD=.69), \( t(76)=1.70, p>.05 \).
Black Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not have significantly higher levels of achievement aspirations (M=4.21, SD=.87) than Black male participants (M=3.86, SD=.70), t(19)=−.92, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not have higher levels of leadership aspirations (M=4.15, SD=.92) than Black male participants (M=3.87, SD=.67), t(19)=−.72, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not have significantly higher levels of educational aspirations (M=4.31, SD=.72) than Black male participants (M=3.64, SD=.72), t(19)=−2.00, p > .05.

White Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not have significantly higher levels of achievement aspirations (M=4.08, SD=.63) than White male participants (M=3.96, SD=.59), t(70)=−.55, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not have significantly higher levels of leadership aspirations (M=3.83, SD=.83) than White male participants (M=3.39, SD=.99), t(71)=−1.47, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not have significantly higher levels of educational aspirations (M=3.96, SD=.69) than White male participants (M=3.82, SD=.82), t(71)=−.58, p > .05.

BEM Masculinity

Male Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did display significantly higher levels of masculinity (M=5.49, SD=.79) than White male participants (M=4.22, SD=.84), t(14)=3.08, p < .05.
Female Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did display significantly higher levels of masculinity (M=5.00, SD=.83) than White female participants (M=4.40, SD=.91), t(76)=2.26, p < .05.

Black Participants.

An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of masculinity (M=5.49, SD=.79) than Black female participants (M=5.00, SD=.83), t(19)=1.30, p > .05.

White Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not exhibit significantly higher levels of masculinity (M=4.40, SD=.91) than White male participants (M=4.22, SD=.84), t(71)=.56, p > .05.

BEM Femininity

Male Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White male participants did not display significantly higher levels of femininity (M=5.70, SD=.70) than Black male participants (M=5.16, SD=.95), t(14)=1.32, p > .05.

Female Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White female participants did display significantly higher levels of femininity (M=5.93, SD=.84) than Black female participants (M=5.33, SD=1.03), t(76)=-2.33, p < .05.
**Black Participants.**

An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of femininity (M=5.33, SD=1.03) than Black male participants (M=5.16, SD=.95), \( t(19)=-.37, p > .05 \).

**White Participants.**

An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not exhibit significantly higher levels of femininity (M=5.93, SD=.84) than White male participants (M=5.70, SD=.70), \( t(71)=-.79, p > .05 \).

**Academic Motivation**

**Male Participants.**

An independent t-test found that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to know (M=3.72, SD=.43) than White male participants (M=3.48, SD=1.20), \( t(15)=.53, p > .05 \). An independent t-test found that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment (M=3.75, SD=.58) than White male participants (M=3.11, SD=1.07), \( t(15)=1.50, p > .05 \). An independent t-test found that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (M=3.41, SD=.86) than White male participants (M=2.83, SD=1.07), \( t(15)=1.21, p > .05 \). An independent t-test found that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation identified (M=3.75, SD=.74) than White male participants (M=3.39, SD=1.15), \( t(15)=.76, p > .05 \). An independent t-test found that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation introjected (M=3.81, SD=.55) than White male participants.
An independent t-test found that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic external regulation (M=4.16, SD=.60) than White male participants (M=3.53, SD=1.00), t(15)=1.54, p > .05.

An independent t-test found that Black male participants did display significantly higher levels of amotivation (M=2.88, SD=1.36) than White male participants (M=1.67, SD=.76), t(15)=2.29, p > .04.

Female Participants.

An independent t-test found that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of amotivation (M=1.71, SD=1.04) than White female participants (M=1.31, SD=.73), t(75)=1.75, p > .05. An independent t-test found that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to know (M=3.85, SD=.89) than White female participants (M=3.80, SD=.71), t(76)=.22, p > .05.

An independent t-test found that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment (M=3.61, SD=.99) than White female participants (M=3.42, SD=.76), t(75)=.77, p > .05. An independent t-test found that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (M=2.91, SD=1.03) than White female participants (M=2.61, SD=.92), t(76)=1.07, p > .05. An independent t-test found that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation identified (M=4.36, SD=.60) than White female participants (M=4.26, SD=.67), t(76)=.52, p > .05.

An independent t-test found that White female participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation introjected (M=3.74, SD=.77) than Black female participants (M=3.71, SD=1.00), t(76)=.15, p > .05. An independent t-test found that
Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation external regulation (M=4.25, SD=.66) than White female participants (M=3.98, SD=.73), t(76)=1.25, p > .05.

**Black Participants.**

An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to know (M=3.85, SD=.89) than Black male participants (M=3.72, SD=.43), t(20)=-.38, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment (M=3.75, SD=.58) than Black female participants (M=3.61, SD=.99), t(20)=.37, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (M=3.21, SD=.86) than Black female participants (M=2.92, SD=1.03), t(20)=1.15, p > .05. An independent showed that Black female participants did display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation identified (M=4.36, SD=.60) than Black male participants (M=3.75, SD=.74), t(20)=-2.09, p = .05. An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation introjected (M=3.81, SD=.55) than Black female participants (M=3.71, SD=1.00), t(20)=.27, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation external regulation (M=4.25, SD=.66) than Black male participants (M=4.16, SD=.60), t(20)=15.96, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that Black male participants did display significantly higher levels of amotivation (M=2.88, SD=1.36) than Black female participants (M=1.71, SD=1.04), t(20)=2.25, p < .05.
White Participants.

An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to know (M=3.80, SD=.71) than White male peers (M=3.48, SD=1.20), t(71)=-1.14, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment (M=3.42, SD=.76) than White male participants (M=3.11, SD=1.07), t(70)=-1.09, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White male participants did not display significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (M=2.83, SD=1.07) than White female participants (M=2.61, SD=.92), t(71)=.66, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not display higher levels of extrinsic motivation introjected (M=3.74, SD=.77) than White male participants (M=3.33, SD=1.15), t(71)=-1.41, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation identified (M=4.26, SD=.67) than White male participants (M=3.39, SD=1.15), t(71)=-3.31, p < .05. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not display significantly higher levels of extrinsic motivation external regulation (M=3.98, SD=.73) than White male participants (M=3.53, SD=1.00), t(71)=-1.67, p > .05. An independent t-test showed that White male participants did not display significantly higher levels of amotivation (M=1.67, SD=.76) than White female participants (M=1.31, SD=.73), t(70)=1.38, p > .05.
Academic Achievement

Male Participants.

There was only one male that identified as Black or White and indicated he was a freshman. An independent t-test showed that White male participants did not exhibit a significantly higher GPA ($M=3.03$, $SD=.39$) than Black male participants ($M=2.58$, $SD=.37$), $t(15)=-2.10$, $p > .05$.

Female Participants.

The majority of female participants identified as sophomores or higher academic standing, thus this analysis focused on current GPAs. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did not have a significantly higher GPA ($M=3.39$, $SD=.42$) than Black female participants ($M=3.12$, $SD=.32$), $t(62)=-1.99$, $p > .05$.

Black Participants.

There were no Black males that identified as a freshman, thus this analysis focused on current GPA. An independent t-test showed that Black female participants did have a significantly higher GPA ($M=3.12$, $SD=.32$) than Black male participants ($M=2.58$, $SD=.37$), $t(16)=-3.29$, $p < .05$.

White Participants.

Since there was only one male participant that indicated that he was freshman and was then asked to state his high school GPA, the analysis will focus on the GPA of students that have an academic standing of sophomore of above. An independent t-test showed that White female participants did have a significantly higher GPAs ($M=3.39$, $SD=.42$) than White male participants ($M=3.03$, $SD=.49$), $t(61)=-2.35$, $p < .05$. 
Table 1, found in the Appendix, demonstrates a correlation matrix of gender, race, gender role ideology, academic behavior, and academic performance.

Correlations between Gender, Race, Gender Role Ideology, Academic Behavior and Academic Performance

Hegemonic Masculinity.

As demonstrated in Table 1, there was a significant strong positive relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and identifying as Black, $r = .71$, $p < .01$. This relationship was stronger for Black male participants than White male participants thus Black participants exhibited higher levels. There was a significant moderate positive relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and amotivation, $r = .68$, $p < .01$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and extrinsic motivation external regulation, $r = -.11$, $p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and extrinsic motivation introjected, $r = -.30$, $p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and extrinsic motivation identified, $r = -.29$, $p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation, $r = -.18$, $p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment, $r = -.12$, $p > .05$. There was a non-significant moderate negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and intrinsic motivation to know, $r = -.40$, $p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and BEM femininity, $r = -.25$, $p > .05$. There was a significant moderate positive relationship between hegemonic masculine
ideals and BEM masculinity, \( r = .60, p < .01 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and academic help-seeking behaviors, \( r = .28, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and achievement aspirations, \( r = -.17, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and leadership aspirations, \( r = -.05, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and educational aspirations, \( r = -.24, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and college GPA, \( r = -.34, p > .05 \).

**BEM Masculinity.**

As demonstrated in Table 1, there was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and race, \( r = .35, p < .01 \). This relationship was stronger for Black participants in comparison to White participants, thus Black participants exhibited higher levels. There was a significant weak negative relationship between BEM masculinity and gender, \( r = -.21, p < .05 \). The relationship was stronger for male participants in comparison to female participants, thus male participants exhibited higher levels. There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and amotivation, \( r = .25, p < .01 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and extrinsic motivation external regulation, \( r = .33, p < .01 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and extrinsic motivation introjected, \( r = .29, p < .01 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and extrinsic motivation identified, \( r = .23, p < .01 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and intrinsic motivation introjected, \( r = .21, p < .05 \).
to experience stimulation, $r=.38, p < .01$. There was a significant moderate positive relationship between BEM masculinity and intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment, $r=.44, p < .01$. There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and intrinsic motivation to know, $r=.26, p < .01$. There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and BEM femininity, $r=.14, p > .05$. There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and academic help-seeking behaviors, $r=.36, p < .01$. There was a significant moderate positive relationship between BEM masculinity and achievement aspirations, $r=.40, p < .01$. There was a non-significant moderate positive relationship between BEM masculinity and leadership aspirations, $r=.49, p > .05$. There was a significant moderate relationship between BEM masculinity and educational aspirations, $r=.46, p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM masculinity and high school GPA, $r=.25, p > .05$. There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between BEM masculinity and college GPA, $r=-.07, p > .05$.

**BEM Femininity.**

As demonstrated in Table 1, there was a significant weak negative relationship between BEM femininity and race, $r=-.26, p < .01$. This relationship was stronger for White participants in comparison to Black participants thus White participants exhibited higher levels. There was a non-significant positive relationship between BEM femininity and gender, $r=.10, p > .05$. This relationship was stronger for female participants in comparison to male participants, thus female participants exhibited higher levels. There was a significant weak negative relationship between BEM femininity and amotivation, $r=-.20, p < .05$. There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM
femininity and extrinsic motivation external regulation, \( r=.10, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and extrinsic motivation introjected, \( r=.10, p > .05 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and extrinsic motivation identified, \( r=.30, p < .01 \). There was a non-significant weak negative relationship between BEM femininity and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation, \( r= -.02, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and intrinsic motivation toward accomplishment, \( r= .16, p > .05 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and intrinsic motivation to know, \( r=.27, p < .01 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and academic help-seeking behaviors, \( r=.02, p > .05 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and achievement aspirations, \( r=.20, p < .05 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and leadership aspirations, \( r=.10, p > .05 \). There was a significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and educational aspirations, \( r=.35, p < .01 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and high school GPA, \( r=.18, p > .05 \). There was a non-significant weak positive relationship between BEM femininity and college GPA, \( r=.19, p > .05 \).

**Discussion**

This study attempted to shed light on how gender role ideology, masculinity and femininity, influences the academic behavior and academic achievement of a racially diverse group of college students. The majority of research on the topic of hegemonic masculinity focuses on the behaviors and ideologies of White males. Thus, this study sought to understand
how hegemonic masculinity influences the behaviors and ideologies of college men of color. As our nation’s college student population continues to diversify, it is important for faculty, counselors, and university administrators to be informed about how they can foster academic success.

The first hypothesis, hegemonic masculine ideals will be more prevalent among White male college students, was not supported by the results. In fact, the results demonstrated that hegemonic masculine ideals were more prevalent among Black male college students. Also, Black male college students exhibited higher levels of masculinity on the BEM Sex Role Inventory. Similar results were found in a study conducted by Levant et al. (2007). As previously mentioned, hegemonic masculinity developed within the context of White heterosexuality (Henfield, 2012). While there are overlapping similarities between the hypermasculine behaviors and ideologies of White and Black men, Black men identify more strongly with these gender role behaviors and ideologies (Pompper, 2010). White and Peretz (2010) state that Black men may be under a greater pressure to conform to hegemonic masculine ideals due to the intersectional nature of their position in society, including race, gender, socioeconomic status, etc. More specifically, Levant and Richmond (2007) assert the gender and racial role strain experienced by Black men elevates their conformity to hegemonic masculinity. More specifically, Lazur and Majors (1995) assert that men of color, such as Black men, find themselves in a double bind, with regards as to whether to exert masculinity of their racial group or of the dominant culture (as cited in Levant et al., 2007). Lazur and Majors (1995) explain that whether a Black man chooses to exert the masculinity of their racial group or of the dominant culture can warrant disapproval from either side (as cited in Levant et al., 2007). This double bind is likely particular salient for Black males that attend predominately White educational institutions (Dancy, 2011).
It is evident that this double bind does not allow Black men to express themselves for who they are, as they must be worried about social acceptance.

The second hypothesis focused on the negative relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and academic motivation of male college students. There was only significant result, which demonstrated that there was a strong negative relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and amotivation. Little research has focused on the relationship between amotivation and identification with hegemonic masculine ideals. However, more research has focused on the relationship between academic motivation and identification with hegemonic masculine ideals. Whereas amotivation was found to negatively influence a student’s perception of the college atmosphere, academic motivation was found to increase one’s likelihood of staying in college (Reynolds & Weigand, 2010; Isacco & Morse, 2015). It has been found that masculinity is less associated with academic motivation in comparison to femininity (Bugler, McGeown, & St Clair-Thompson, 2008). Academic motivation encourages one to persist throughout their college career, but identification with hypermasculine ideals counteracts this narrative.

The third hypothesis focused on the proposed negative relationship between identification with hegemonic masculine ideals and help seeking behavior for male college students. In actuality, the results of this study found a non-significant positive relationship between these two variables. As it will be discussed later on, the majority of male participants in this study are student athletes. Student-athletes have access to additional academic resources, supports, and counselors than students that are not athletes.

Interestingly, even though Black male participants engaged in academic help-seeking behaviors more than White males, White females, and Black females, they had the lowest GPA
of these participant groups. This suggests that the academic help-seeking behaviors they have been utilizing have been ineffective. We can look at this from several angles. In a qualitative study of Black male college athletes conducted by Benson (2000), participants perceived athletics as more important than academics, which they attributed from a variety of individuals, including coaches, academic advisors and peers alike. Along with this, Black male students athletes believed that a professional sports career is the avenue to economic success to a great extent than their White male peers (Beamon & Bell, 2002). Since participation in sports is viewed as the pathway to economic success, then these students will have a decreased emphasis on academics, as academics are not viewed as crucial to becoming economically successful. Additionally, the athletes themselves adopted the attitude of just doing enough, which is likely due to NCAA eligibility requirements (Benson, 2000). Despite Black male college students holding favorable perceptions about academic support and concentrating their efforts into studying, this did not result in increased academic achievement (Davis, 1994). While athletic department may impose certain requirements regarding additional academic support and services, this may not parallel with Black male student athletes perceptions of their futures.

The fourth hypothesis examined how the proposed notion that female college students will exhibit higher academic achievement than male college students. This hypothesis was supported by the results as White female college students had a higher mean GPA than their White male counterparts. This result has been supported by a study of White college-going adolescents (Riegle-Crumb, 2010). Additionally, Black female college students had a higher mean GPA than their Black male counterparts. Similar results were found with regards to Black college students, in which female students outperformed their male peers (Cokley & Moore, 2007). Additionally, Black male students scored higher in devaluing academic success (Cokley
Moreover, female college students were found to dedicate more time to studying and working on school work than their male peers (Sax & Arms, 2008). These are proactive behaviors one engages in to improve their academic performance. However, male college students were found to oversleep and miss class more, which are behaviors that detract from one’s academic performance (Sax & Arms, 2007).

Lastly, the fifth hypothesis focused on the relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and career aspirations. It was found that there is a non-significant weak negative relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and achievement aspirations. Similar results were also found for the relationship between hegemonic masculine ideals and leadership aspirations, as well as hegemonic masculine ideals and educational aspirations. A large proportion of male participants are needed to explore these relationships.

With regards to leadership aspirations, it has been found that female college students are less likely to see themselves in leadership or positions of power (Lips, 2000). Gregor, O’Brien, and Sauber (2017) discovered that men who placed highly valued their career, also highly valued the importance of being a leader in their career field, a heightened interest for recognition for their work, and an increased interest in continuing their education. High school female seniors emphasized the importance of obtaining a college education in comparison to their male counterparts (Kleinfeld, 2009). Along with this, these female students were more interested in careers that required a college education, whereas male students emphasized the importance of having a job with a high salary (Kleinfeld, 2009). Additionally, while in college, male students had an increased interest in obtaining bachelor’s degrees, while female college students had an increased interest in obtaining master’s degrees (Sax & Arms, 2008). Weaver-Hightower (2010) iterates that despite the gains women have made in degree attainment, women have not had the
same success in obtaining positions of power in our society. Perhaps young men realize that they still occupy many of the social positions of power they feel no need to put in significant effort in their academics as they feel that they are guaranteed power in our society.

**Limitations**

A significant limitation in this study was the sample, in particular the demographics of the participants. The majority of participants were White female undergraduate students. However, this is reflective of the population of students that are enrolled in courses offered by the Department of Human Development and Family Science (HDFS). Additionally, of the male students that are enrolled in these courses, the majority are student-athletes. It has been found that college male athletes exhibited high scores towards hypermasculinity, as well as unfavorable attitudes towards women, which are some of the core attributes associated with hegemonic masculinity (Gage, 2008). It is possible that the masculine behaviors and ideologies of the male participants in this study are not indicative of the behaviors and ideologies of males in the general population.

Additionally, GPA was the only construct used to measure academic achievement. In a study focusing on academic help-seeking behaviors and gender role ideology, Marrs, Sigler and Brammer (2012) utilized college GPA as well as the number of credits completed and standardized test scores from college entrance exams to indicate academic achievement. It is important to recognize that a student’s GPA can fluctuate from semester to semester depending on the classes they are enrolled; however, the cumulative number of academic credits students have taken demonstrates a student’s academic persistence. Also, participation in an honor society and Honors college are demonstrative of academic achievement as these are selective programs that require a high GPA for admittance.
Furthermore, this study utilized correlation research. Correlation does not imply causation, as there are a multitude of external variables that influence the relationship between two variables. For example, it has been found that men that participate in Greek life have an inclination to conformity to hegemonic masculine norms. Thus, this participation would influence the relationship between conformity to masculine norms and academic behavior.

Lastly, this study did not include any measures surrounding the strength of one’s racial identity. For example, Cokley and Moore (2007) found that for Black female college students, strong racial identity was related to an increase in GPA. However, for Black male college students, strong racial identity was related to a decrease in GPA. The incorporation of a racial identity measure would demonstrate how students’ collegiate experiences are intersected by their various identities.

**Strengths**

One of the strengths of this study is the utilization of a variety of measures to gauge students’ attitudes toward higher education. Encompassing several measures provides a more complete picture about how college is conceptualized differently by diverse college students. For example, the Career-Aspirations Scale has mostly been applied to the aspirations of women. Thus, this study contributes to the knowledge of career aspirations of men. Most importantly, these measures elaborate on how academic persistence within higher education is influenced by a multitude of factors, which serves to inform university administrators, career advisors, and faculty on the various ways in which they can support their students during their college careers.

Furthermore, this study used two different masculinity measures, Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory and Bem Sex Role Inventory, in which it was found that Black males exhibited higher levels of masculinity on both measures. Results from this study build
upon the notion that these measures can be used with racially diverse samples. Lastly, this survey provided knowledge about how academic behavior and achievement differs across race and gender. This illuminates the importance of developing culturally competent interventions, which furthers conversations surrounding the intersectionality of race, ethnicity and gender and how this operates in higher education. Academic interventions must reflect and incorporate the diversity found within the college student population.

**Future Directions**

While colleges have invested in various efforts to improve the academic performance of their college students, these efforts have particularly benefitted female college students. Unfortunately, these efforts have not been as effective for male college students, in particular, Black male college students. The results of this study indicate that despite Black males engaging in high rates of academic help-seeking behaviors, they had low GPAs. In order to establish more effective academic supports for Black male college students, we need to ask these students themselves. Conducting a qualitative research study would be beneficial to learn about the needs of Black male college students.

More research needs to be done exploring the relationship between academic motivation and hegemonic masculine ideals. For example, this study found that there is fairly strong relationship between amotivation and hegemonic masculinity. Contrarily, perhaps we need to conceptualize hegemonic masculinity differently, such as from a strengths-based perspective. While many studies have explored the consequences associated with male students identifying with hegemonic masculine ideals, there needs to be more research on how this ideology can be advantageous in the lives of young men.
Overall, this study highlights that academic resources and supports needs to account for the diversity of college students. In order to address the needs of today’s college students, we should ask the students themselves about how they can be supported in the academically rigorous environment of college. In order for college to be an enriching experience for its students, they must feel affirmed and encouraged to persist.
References


Weisgram, E. S., Bigler, R. S., & Liben, L. S. (2010). Gender, values and occupational interests among children, adolescents, and adults. *Child Development, 81*(3), 778-796. DOI:


Appendix A: Informed Consent

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND FAMILY SCIENCE

426 WHITE HALL, SYRACUSE, NY 13244. PH 315-443-2757

Factors Related to Academic Behavior and Academic Performance

My name is Noelle Rowe, and I am an undergraduate at Syracuse University. I am working directly with Matthew Mulvaney, an Associate Professor in the Department of Human Development and Family Science, for my Honors Capstone project. I am inviting you to participate in a research study. Any undergraduate student at Syracuse University is eligible to participate in this study. Involvement in the study is voluntary, so you may choose to participate or not. Please feel free to ask questions about the research if you have any. I will be happy to explain anything in detail if you wish.

I am interested in learning more about the factors relating to academic behavior and academic performance. You will be asked to complete a survey that asks about sensitive topics such as sexual behavior and violence, as well as academic help-seeking, gender roles, academic motivation, and career-related aspirations. The survey should take under 20 minutes of your time. Please complete the survey in one sitting. All information will be kept confidential. This study will be completed solely on Qualtrics, which is an online survey software. Based on class enrollment information, Qualtrics will provide you with a survey link to your email. In a panel separate from your survey responses, your participation is indicated. Your names and emails will not be connected to your survey responses. Your names and emails will only be used to award extra credit.

For courses that are offering extra credit to survey participants, the type and amount of extra credit is dependent upon the course and professor. You will only be able to receive extra credit for one CFS class. On the survey, you will be asked to indicate whether you are enrolled in one or more than one participating CFS class. If you are enrolled in only one participating CFS class, you will receive extra credit for that class. If you are enrolled in multiple participating CFS classes, you will be asked to email me, nkrowe@syr.edu, to inform me about which participating CFS class you would like to receive extra credit in. If you do not email me, I will randomly assign extra credit to one of the participating CFS classes you are enrolled in.

It is important to note that there is always a risk of compromising privacy, confidentiality, and/or anonymity when surveys are distributed and completed online. Thus, your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology being used. It is important for you to understand that no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by third parties.
The benefit of this research is that you will be helping us to understand the academic achievement of diverse college students. By taking part in this research, you will benefit from learning about the strategies that lead to success in the college realm, as well as understanding how research is carried out. The risks to you of participating in this study are psychological in nature as you are asked to evaluate your own beliefs, values, and behaviors about gender, education, sexual behavior and violence. If you feel any discomfort, please feel free to seek help at the Syracuse University Counseling Center. Their contact information is as followed: Syracuse University Counseling Center, 200 Walnut Place, Syracuse, New York 13244-5040, Phone: 315-443-4715. If you do not want to take part, you have the right to refuse to take part, without penalty. If you decide to take part and later no longer wish to continue, you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without penalty.

If you have any questions, concerns, complaints about the research, contact Noelle Rowe at nkrowe@syr.edu or Dr. Matthew Mulvaney at mmulvane@syr.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you have questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, if you cannot reach the investigator, contact the Syracuse University Institutional Review Board at 315-443-3013.

If you have concerns about participating in the study, you can contact Dr. Matthew Mulvaney about an alternative experience.

All of my questions have been answered, I am 18 years of age or older, and I wish to participate in this research study. Please print a copy of this consent form for your records.

By clicking here, I agree to participate in this research study.
Appendix B: Questionnaire

Demographics

Indicate your age:

Select the category that best describes your race:
   A. American Indian/Native American
   B. Asian American/Pacific Islander
   C. Black/African American
   D. White/Caucasian
   E. Mixed Race
   F. Other

Indicate whether you are of Hispanic or Latino origin:
   A. Yes
   B. No

What is your gender?
   A. Male
   B. Female
   C. Transgender
   D. Other (please describe)
   E. I prefer not to answer

What is your sexual orientation?
   A. Heterosexual
   B. Homosexual
   C. Bisexual
   D. Other (please describe)

Are you a first generation college student?
   A. Yes
   B. No

Are you an international student?
   A. Yes
   B. No

If you indicated yes, what is your country of origin?

Identify your mother’s highest level of education from among the following options:
   A. Did not finish high school
   B. High school degree or GED
   C. Some college or technical certification
   D. Bachelor’s degree
   E. Postgraduate or professional degree (ex: MA, MBA, PhD, MD, JD)

Identify your father’s highest level of education from among the following options:
   A. Did not finish high school
   B. High school degree or GED
   C. Some college or technical certification
   D. Bachelor’s degree
   E. Postgraduate or professional degree (ex: MA, MBA, PhD, MD, JD)

Select the choice that best describes your family’s socioeconomic status
   A. Lower class
   B. Lower middle class
C. Middle class
D. Upper middle class
E. Upper class
What is your academic standing?
A. Freshman
B. Sophomore
C. Junior
D. Senior
E. 5th year student
Indicate your major(s):
If you are a freshman, indicate your high school GPA:
Indicate your current GPA:
Have you been on the Dean’s List in college?
A. Yes
B. No
If you indicated yes, how many semesters have you been on the Dean’s List?
If you are a freshman, how many times were you on the Honor Roll in high school?
What is your current employment status?
A. Unemployed and not seeking employment
B. Unemployed and seeking employment
C. Part-time
D. Full-time
Do you currently have an internship?
A. Yes
B. No
Have you ever had an internship?
A. Yes
B. No
State your intended career:
### Appendix C: Academic Motivation Scale-College Version

**Instructions:** Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to the reasons why you go to college.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Does not correspond at all</th>
<th>Corresponds a little</th>
<th>Corresponds moderately</th>
<th>Corresponds a lot</th>
<th>Corresponds exactly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Because with only a high-school degree, I would not find a high-paying job later on.
- Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.
- Because I think that a college education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.
- For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others.
- Honestly, I don’t know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school.
- For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies.
- To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my college degree.
- In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.
- For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before.
- Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like.
- For the pleasure that I experience when I read interesting authors.
- I once had good reasons for going to college; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.
- For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments.
- Because of the fact that when I succeed in college I feel important.
- Because I want to have “the good life” later on.
- For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.
- Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.
- For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written.
- I can’t see why I go to college and frankly, I couldn’t care less.
- For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.
- To show myself that I am an intelligent person.
- In order to have a better salary later on.
- Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.
- Because I believe that a few additional years of education will improve my competence as a worker.
- For the “high” feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.
- I don’t know; I can’t understand what I am doing in school.
- Because college allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.
- Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.
Appendix D: Academic Help-Seeking Behaviors Inventory

**Instructions:** Using the scale below, indicate how often you have engaged in the following help-seeking behaviors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gone to professors for assistance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asked other students for help.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought help from friends.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought help with my general study skills this semester.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought help from support services.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gone to the University Writing Center on campus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought tutoring on campus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gone to career services.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix E: Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory-46

**Instructions**: Using the scale below, indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

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

- In general, I will do anything to win.
- If I could, I would frequently change sexual partners.
- I hate asking for help.
- I believe that violence is never justified.
- Being thought of as gay is not a bad thing.
- In general, I do not like risky situations.
- Winning is not my first priority.
- I enjoy taking risks.
- I am disgusted by any kind of violence.
- I ask for help when I need it.
- My work is the most important part of my life.
- I would only have sex if I was in a committed relationship.
- I bring up my feelings when talking to others.
- I would be furious if someone thought I was gay.
- I don’t mind losing.
- I take risks.
- It would not bother me at all if someone thought I was gay.
- I never share my feelings.
- Sometimes violent action is necessary.
- In general, I control the women in my life.
- I would feel good if I had many sexual partners.
- It is important for me to win.
- I don’t like giving all my attention to work.
- It would be awful if people thought I was gay.
- I like to talk about my feelings.
- I never ask for help.
- More often than not, losing does not bother me.
- I frequently put myself in risky situations.
- Women should be subservient to men.
- I am willing to get into a physical fight if necessary
- I feel good when work is my first priority.
- I tend to keep my feelings to myself.
- Winning is not important to me.
- Violence is almost never justified.
- I am happiest when I’m risking danger.
- It would be enjoyable to date more than one person at a time.
- I would feel uncomfortable if someone thought I was gay.
- I am not ashamed to ask for help.
- Work comes first.
- I tend to share my feelings.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No matter what the situation I would never act violently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Things tend to be better when men are in charge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It bothers me when I have to ask for help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love it when men are in charge of women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hate it when people ask me talk about my feelings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to avoid being perceived as gay.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix F: Bem Sex-Role Inventory Short-Form

**Instructions:** Please rate yourself on each item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never or Almost Never True</th>
<th>Usually True</th>
<th>Sometimes True</th>
<th>Occasionally True</th>
<th>Often True</th>
<th>Usually True</th>
<th>Always or Almost Always True</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Defend my own beliefs

Affectionate

Conscientious

Independent

Sympathetic

Moody

Assertive

Sensitive to the needs of others

Reliable

Strong personality

Understanding

Jealous

Forceful

Compassionate

Truthful

Have leadership abilities

Eager to soothe hurt feelings

Secretive

Willing to take risks

Warm

Adaptable

Dominant

Tender

Conceited

Willing to take a stand

Love children

Tactful

Aggressive

Gentle

Conventional
### Appendix G: Career-Aspiration Scale Revised

**Instructions:** Using the scale below, indicate how each statement is true of you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not At All True of Me</th>
<th>Slightly True of Me</th>
<th>Moderately True of Me</th>
<th>Quite A Bit True of Me</th>
<th>Very True of Me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I hope to become a leader in my career field.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not plan to devote energy to getting promoted to a leadership position in the organization or business in which I am working.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be among the very best in my field.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming a leader in my job is not at all important to me.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I am established in my career, I would like to manage other employees.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to reach the highest level of education in my field.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to have responsibility for the future direction of my organization or business.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I aspire to have my contributions at work recognized by my employer.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to pursue additional training in my occupational area of interest.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will always be knowledgeable about recent advances in my field.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attaining leadership status in my career is not that important to me.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being outstanding at what I do at work is very important to me.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know I will work to remain current regarding knowledge in my field.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope to move up to a leadership position in my organization or business.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will attend conferences annually to advance my knowledge.</td>
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<td>I know that I will be recognized for my accomplishments in my field.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Even if not required, I would take continuing education courses to become more knowledgeable.</td>
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<td>Achieving in my career is not at all important to me.</td>
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<td>I plan to obtain many promotions in my organization or business.</td>
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<td>Being one of the best in my field is not important to me.</td>
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Table 1: Correlation Matrix of Gender, Race, Gender Role Ideology, Academic Behavior and Academic Performance

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Note: Only male participants were asked to respond to Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory. Additionally, only participants that identified as freshmen were asked to rate their high school GPA. None of the Black or White male participants identified as freshmen.

Race was coded in 0/White and 1/Black. Gender was coded in 0/Male and 1/Female.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.