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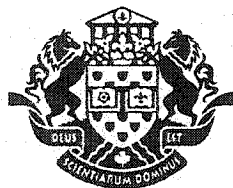
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**Further construct validation of the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS):
Advancing the case of modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women**

Melanie A. Morrison

**Thesis submitted to the School of Psychology in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**University of Ottawa
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This thesis is dedicated to my family. I cannot thank you enough for the love, support, and kindness you have shown me for as long I can remember. Thank you for always making me laugh, providing a refuge for me when I come home, and for being individuals whom I admire and aspire to be like. I know that my life has been blessed because of the relationships that I share with each of you: my mother, JoEllen, my older brother, Todd, and my younger brother, Murray.

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Abstract

This thesis consists of two studies designed to further validate the construct of modern homonegativity as measured by the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS). Similar to the concepts of modern racism and modern sexism, modern homonegativity rests upon three core assumptions: 1) gay men and lesbian women are making illegitimate (or unnecessary) demands for changes in the status quo; 2) discrimination against homosexual men and women is a thing of the past; and 3) gay men and lesbian women exaggerate the importance of their sexual preference and, in so doing, prevent themselves from assimilating into mainstream culture. The MHS was created to measure contemporary negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women (i.e., attitudes that are not based on traditional or moral objections to homosexuality). The scale contains two parallel forms: one for gay men (MHS-G) and one for lesbian women (MHS-L). Using Canadian participants ($N=374$), results of Study 1 indicate that the parallel versions of the MHS are reliable, unidimensional, factorially, and conceptually distinct from a measure of old-fashioned homonegativity as measured by the Attitudes Toward Lesbian and Gay Men Scale and a relatively new measure of homonegativity entitled Modern Homophobia. As well, modern homonegativity correlated in the hypothesized direction with the motivation to control prejudiced reactions. Finally, results of one-way ANOVAs indicated that individuals who reported having gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances and close friends evidenced significantly lower levels of modern homonegativity than did individuals who reported no contact experience. Study 2 was designed to examine the psychometric properties of the MHS from a cross-cultural vantage. Specifically, the psychometric properties of the MHS were investigated using a sample of American participants ($N=608$). Results of this study confirmed the unidimensionality of the MHS-G, and its conceptual distinctiveness from other measures of

homonegativity (the ATLG and “Modern” Homophobia scales). Also, modern homonegativity correlated in the hypothesized direction with political conservatism, religious self-schema, neosexism, and concern about acting prejudiced. Similar to Study 1, results of one-way ANOVAs confirmed that individuals who reported having both gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances and close friends evidenced lower levels of modern homonegativity when compared with individuals who reported not having gay or lesbian acquaintances or close friends. Finally, the metric invariance of the MHS-G and MHS-L factor loadings were tested. With the exception of four items on the MHS-G, the metric invariance of the parallel versions of the MHS was confirmed. In summary, the studies outlined in this thesis strengthen the argument that a new form of homonegativity exists. Further, the MHS possesses superior psychometric properties and will prove useful when used to measure negative attitudes toward homosexual men and women in college and university settings. As an adjunct to the implications of the research, future directions are outlined.

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Introduction

Myriad definitions of prejudice exist, and it should be noted that there is no single correct way to define this concept. However, researchers generally concur that “prejudice: 1) occurs between groups; 2) involves an evaluation either positive or negative of a group; 3) is a biased perception of a group; and 4) is based on the real or imagined characteristics of the group” (Nelson, 2002, p. 11). A definition that incorporates these core elements is as follows: prejudice is a biased evaluation of an individual based on the real or imagined characteristics of the group to which he or she purportedly belongs (Nelson, 2002).

Although a majority of research on prejudice has focused specifically on race and sex, examination of prejudice based on other social categories such as sexual orientation has gained momentum. In fact, an increase in research exploring attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women has been documented over the last 30 years (Walters & Hayes, 1998). For example, Simon (1995) reports that only 8% of studies examining homosexuality between 1967 and 1974 were devoted to the study of attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Between 1979 and 1983, however, this proportion had increased to 19%. Further, research on *homophobia* (i.e., an irrational fear or dread of being in close quarters with homosexuals), a term popularised by Weinberg (1972), has burgeoned. Herek (2000) reports that the term now appears in most dictionaries, and social and behavioural science databases yield over 1500 citations containing this keyword.

It is important at this juncture to articulate the problems associated with the term homophobia, particularly when the intent of the researcher is to investigate attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. According to Herek (2000), the “phobia” suffix of this word implies that anti-homosexual attitudes are best understood within an illness framework similar to other

phobias such as agoraphobia and arachnophobia. Moreover, for the term homophobia to be used in its rightful sense, a homophobic individual must experience significant distress as a result of this phobia, and must recognize that his or her fear is excessive and unreasonable (DSM-III, 1980, p. 230, as cited in Fyfe, 1983, p. 550). Unlike other phobias, however, individuals who are homophobic seldom accept responsibility for their fear (Shields & Harriman, 1984). To these individuals, gay men and/or lesbian women are to blame for their anti-homosexual attitudes. Neisen (1990) concludes that the term homophobia is a misnomer because “only a small percentage of persons could be considered to have a clinically defined phobic reaction to homosexuals” (p. 22).

An additional limitation of the “phobia” suffix is it implies that homophobia, being akin to other phobic manifestations, is dysfunctional. However, several researchers purport that homophobia serves a definite purpose in Western society; namely, the preservation of traditional sex roles (e.g., Devlin & Cowan, 1985; MacDonald, 1974; Nungesser, 1983). Homophobia contributes to the reification of masculinity and femininity by clearly delineating the parameters of gender appropriateness. According to Herek (1986), homophobia negatively defines masculinity and, to a lesser extent, femininity. That is, a “real” man, or more specifically, a “real” heterosexual man is everything a gay man purportedly is not. For example, on a masculinity factor, Karr (1978) found that gay men were rated as being more delicate, passive, womanly, smaller, softer, and yielding than were heterosexual men. This finding is consistent with more recent investigations into the stereotypes attributed to gay men (Madon, 1997). As women are accorded more latitude in terms of gender representations, the role homophobia plays in the negative definition of femininity is less pronounced. However, to a certain extent, a “real” heterosexual woman is the antithesis of a stereotypic “butch” lesbian.

Homophobia also legitimises the derogation of individuals who dare to operate outside the socially prescribed parametres of acceptable maleness and femaleness. The end result is that individuals' fear of being labelled homosexual serves to keep them within the confines of hegemonic masculinity and femininity (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). Finally, dialectics on the usage of homophobia in both scientific and clinical contexts suggest that this term serves to perpetuate the myth that there is something intrinsically wrong with gay men and lesbian women because they are capable of generating a phobic reaction in heterosexuals (Neisen, 1990).

Due to the inappropriate usage of the term homophobia to denote anti-gay attitudes and behaviours that clearly are not phobic, some social scientists have embraced the term *homonegativity* (Hudson & Ricketts, 1980; Wells & Franken, 1987; Hill, 2000). Herek (1984) maintains that the term homonegativity focuses primarily, though not exclusively, on negative attitudes. Since the purpose underlying the present investigation is to examine negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women, the term homonegativity will be used throughout this dissertation. Homonegative behaviours such as the production of anti-homosexual graffiti and the occurrence of verbal/physical assault also will be discussed, where appropriate.

* * *

Homosexuality, particularly in terms of the rights of homosexual men and women, is one of the most divisive social issues in contemporary society (Thomas & Levin, 1999). Numerous social groups endorse diametric attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women on the basis of political orientation, religious conviction, determinations of what constitutes appropriate sexual behaviour, and conflicting definitions of family and sex roles (Howard-Hassmann, 2001; Walters & Hayes, 1998). Despite the contentious nature of gay and lesbian issues, research suggests that attitudes toward homosexual men and women have become decidedly more favourable over the

past two decades (Altemeyer, 2002; Loftus, 2001). This phenomenon of attitudinal favourability appears to be especially pronounced among those affiliated with post-secondary institutions.

Homonegative Attitudes on College and University Campuses

Research suggests that many of today's college and university students reject blatantly pejorative attitudes about gay men and lesbian women. Studies examining the prevalence of homonegativity on college and university campuses reveal that only a small proportion of participants endorse overtly prejudicial scale items. For example, Altemeyer (2002) compared mean item responses from two of his Canadian student samples, one collected in 1984 and the other collected in 1998. Results indicated that mean item responses on the *Attitudes Toward Homosexuals Scale* (ATHS; Altemeyer, 1988) changed considerably during this fourteen-year period. For instance, in the first sample (1984), mean item responses on 7 of the 12 items on the ATHS were *above* the scale mid-point. In this study, individual item scores could range from 1 to 9 (mid-point=5), with higher scores indicating greater homonegativity. This finding suggests that, in 1984, participants possessed relatively unfavourable attitudes toward homosexuals. However, for the second sample (1998), mean item responses on all 12 items were *below* the scale mid-point.

Altemeyer (2002) also reports that average scale scores dropped from 59.3 (1984) to 37.2 (1998). Here, total scale scores could range from 9 to 108 (mid-point=58.5), with higher scores indicating greater homonegativity. These findings *suggest* that attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women have become less negative over time. However, it should be noted that, as this research is cross-sectional, the apparent decrement in homonegativity may stem from cohort effects.

In another study examining homonegative attitudes, Schellenberg, Hirt, and Sears (1999) distributed a short-form version of the *Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale* (ATLG; Herek, 1988) to Canadian undergraduate participants in a variety of faculties (e.g., business, science, social sciences, and arts). This scale consists of a subscale measuring attitudes toward lesbian women (ATL) and a subscale measuring attitudes toward gay men (ATG). For both subscales, scores can range from 5 to 45 (mid-point=25), with higher scores denoting more homonegative attitudes. Results indicated that, for both male and female participants, mean subscale scores fell below the mid-point (e.g., males - $\underline{M}s$ =14.9 and 22.6 on the ATL and ATG, respectively; females - $\underline{M}s$ =14.5 and 15.7 on the ATL and ATG, respectively). These findings are congruent with those reported by Altemeyer (2002) and suggest that, on average, university participants do not hold negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Other researchers using the ATLG with college/university students' similarly report that average scores are below the scale mid-point, signifying low levels of homonegativity (e.g., Louderback & Whitley, 1997; Simon, 1995; Simoni, 1996; Simoni & Walters, 2001; Waldo & Kemp, 1997).

In addition, Nelson and Krieger (1997) distributed a modified version of the *Attitudes Toward Homosexuality Scale* (MacDonald & Games, 1974) to introductory psychology students in an American southeastern university. In this study, scores on the modified version could range from 18 to 126 (mid-point=72), with *higher* scores representing *less* homonegativity. Results indicated that mean scale scores for male and female participants' on the pre-test measure (prior to implementation of a classroom intervention designed to reduce homonegative attitudes) were *at or above* the mid-point ($\underline{M}$ =72.54 overall; $\underline{M}s$ =71.65 and 79.15 for males and females, respectively).

Finally, LaMar and Kite (1998) distributed a questionnaire containing 174 items adapted from previously used measures of homonegativity. One of the factors explored in this study was condemnation/tolerance of gay men and lesbian women. In this study, a 5-point Likert-type response format was used (e.g., 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree, with higher scores denoting more condemnation/less tolerance). These authors found that mean item responses on the condemnation/tolerance factor did not surpass the mid-point (i.e., 3): males' mean item scores were 2.6 (attitudes toward gay men) and 2.4 (attitudes toward lesbians); females' mean item scores were 2.1 (for both attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women).

In summary, these findings suggest that, on college and university campuses, an attitudinal shift toward greater acceptance of homosexual men and women has taken place. This pattern of results is best exemplified when researchers make comparisons between samples over time (e.g., Altemeyer, 2002). The favourability of attitudes (or at least the absence of unfavourable attitudes) toward gay men and lesbian women on college and university campuses also becomes evident when examining participants' mean item endorsement rates and mean scale scores. The fact that respondents evidence fairly low levels of homonegativity across a variety of scales, and in various academic settings, underscores the validity of this trend. At this juncture, it is important to determine whether this phenomenon is endemic to college and university settings or whether it also exists outside the realm of post-secondary institutions.

Public Opinion Poll Data

Canadian Gallup polls conducted during the 1990s indicate that attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women have become more accepting.¹ For example, the proportion of individuals who supported the idea of homosexuals as elementary school teachers increased from 52.9% in 1992 to 67.8% in 2000. Similar increases in level of support were noted for the following

employment domains: 1) clergy (47.9% in 1992; 64% in 2000); 2) members of parliament (69.4% in 1992; 86.5% in 2000); 3) doctors (60.6% in 1992; 82.8% in 2000); 4) sales people (81.8% in 1992; 93.8% in 2000); 5) armed forces (70.1% in 1992; 83.2% in 2000); and 6) prison officers (57.3% in 1992; 76.1% in 2000). These findings indicate that Canadians have become quite accepting of gay men and lesbian women over the last decade, particularly with respect to their assimilation into certain employment spheres.

Research in the United States suggests a similar increase in acceptance. Indeed, Yang (1997) reports that attitudes toward homosexuals were relatively stable up until the early 1990s after which a liberalized trend emerged. For example, between 1973 and 1991, approximately 70% of Americans perceived sexual relations between two adults of the same sex to “always be wrong.” In 1996, however, this proportion dropped to 56% (Yang, 1997). In a review of American Gallup polls, the proportion of individuals who found it acceptable for homosexuals to occupy positions such as that of a salesperson increased from 68% in 1977 to 82% in 1992. As well, the proportion indicating that it was acceptable for gay men and lesbian women to be doctors rose from 44% in 1977 to 53% in 1992.

The General Social Survey (GSS) also suggests that a change in Americans’ attitudes toward homosexual men and women has occurred.² Similar to Canadian and American Gallup polls, this liberalized trend is most noticeable in the approval of employment opportunities for homosexuals and related civil liberties (Yang, 1997). Specifically, to address these issues, the GSS poses three questions: 1) What about a man who admits that he is a homosexual? Suppose this admitted homosexual wanted to make a speech in public. Should he be allowed to speak or not?; 2) Should such a person be allowed to teach in a college or university?; and 3) If some people in your community suggested that a book he wrote in favour of homosexuality should be

taken out of your public library would you favour removing this book?³ Trend analyses reveal that support for an admitted homosexual to be allowed to teach in a college or university rose from 47% in 1973 to 75% in 1996. Loftus (2001) also reports that support of all three civil liberties for homosexuals increased between 1973 and 1998. For example, only 39% of respondents indicated that they would approve of granting all three civil liberties to homosexuals in 1973; however, the proportion rose to 65% in 1998.

This review of national opinion polls conducted in both Canada and the United States reveals the degree to which attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women have shifted over the last quarter century. It appears that this attitudinal shift is in the direction of greater support for homosexuals, primarily in the areas of employment opportunity and self-expression.

Can One Conclude that Homonegativity is Waning?

Data from college and university samples, as well as from national opinion polls, suggest that homonegativity is declining. There seems to be a general upward trajectory toward greater acceptance of gay men and lesbian women among students attending post-secondary institutions and among representative samples of the general population. On the basis of these findings, one might conclude that homonegativity is no longer as significant a social problem as in previous decades. This dissertation argues that such a conclusion is erroneous. Despite attitudinal evidence to the contrary, research documenting other indicators of homonegativity in academic and community settings suggests that this form of prejudice remains a significant social problem.

Prevalence of Homonegative Behaviour on College and University Campuses

D'Augelli and Rose (1990) state that homonegative behaviour on college and university campuses is manifested in hostile remarks and violence directed toward students who are identified, correctly or incorrectly, as lesbian or gay. Indeed, Herek (1989) reports that pervasive

verbal and physical victimization has been documented on every campus in which a study has been conducted. For example, D'Augelli and Rose (1990) found that approximately 75% of the gay and lesbian university students surveyed reported being verbally insulted, and almost 25% reported being threatened with physical violence. In addition, these authors report that more than half of the sample indicated they were afraid occasionally for their personal safety, and more than one-third stated they had changed their daily routines to avoid harassment. These findings are not an isolated occurrence.

Norris (1992) conducted a study examining the prevalence of anti-homosexual behaviour in conjunction with attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Results indicate that there was widespread *attitudinal* support for gay men, lesbian women, and bisexual individuals. For example, only 4.6% of Caucasian respondents strongly agreed/agreed with the statement, "I would refuse to live with a lesbian, gay, or bisexual person." However, Norris found that a majority of participants reported seeing homonegative graffiti in the washrooms on campus (e.g., "lesbians be dead" [sic] and "kill all faggots") and overhearing derogatory remarks (e.g., "all she needs is a good fuck" in reference to a lesbian woman and "they should all be shot" in reference to gay men). It is no surprise then that approximately 68% of white homosexual and bisexual participants felt it necessary to hide their sexual orientation, and approximately 40% reported being verbally harassed on campus because they were perceived to be non-heterosexual. Using a similar research design, Balanko (1998) examined homonegative attitudes and behaviours among students attending a mid-sized university in western Canada. Results indicated attitudinal favourability for gay men and lesbian women (all scores were below the mid-point on the ATLG), yet nearly 50% of gay and lesbian students reported viewing anti-gay graffiti on campus and hearing demeaning remarks about homosexuals from their fellow students. Further, 79% of

lesbian, gay, and bisexual respondents reported hiding their sexual orientation from their undergraduate peers, and 68% felt it likely that a gay, lesbian, or bisexual person would be attacked on campus.

Researchers also have examined gay and lesbian students' perceptions of college/university climate (i.e., measurable aspects of campus life such as interactions with instructors and classroom experiences). For example, Waldo (1998) investigated the degree to which undergraduate students *in general* felt accepted (e.g., "I feel like I 'fit in' or am accepted at this university") and respected (e.g., "I have been treated fairly on this campus"). In this study, scores could range from 1 to 7 with higher scores representing greater feelings of acceptance and respect (i.e., a more positive assessment of campus climate). Results indicated that gay, lesbian, and bisexual (GLB) students perceived the general campus climate to be significantly less accepting and respectful than did heterosexuals. Respondents also were asked to indicate the extent to which the campus environment was accepting *specifically* of GLB students (e.g., "Openly gay, lesbian, and bisexual students are accepted on this campus"). Once again, results showed that GLB students perceived the university to be significantly less accepting than did heterosexual students.

Finally, Pilkington and Cantor (1996) investigated heterosexual biases, neglect of lesbian and gay issues, and homonegative behaviour within graduate clinical training programs. Surveys were completed by graduate student members of the American Psychological Association's Division for the Psychological Study of Gay, Lesbian, and Bisexual Issues. Results confirmed the presence of all three forms of prejudice and offered insight into the manner in which each of these is manifested. For example, the following instructor statement was perceived by a respondent to be heterosexually biased:

“In a family therapy class, the instructor would only consider heterosexual parents and heterosexual offspring. Any time that a gay/lesbian issue was brought up, the instructor became defensive and stated that ‘alternative lifestyles’ were not a part of his class and that there were no gay parents who were happy.” (p. 607)

Respondents also provided additional information about their perceptions of sexual orientation discrimination in practica/internships, teaching assistantships, and interactions with faculty and administration. For example:

“TAs were constantly being encouraged to do innovative lesson plans and projects for our discussion sessions. For the section on human sexuality, I decided to develop a training manual on gay issues in psychology to add to the uninformative paragraph presented in the undergraduate textbook. When I presented my project to the other TAs, our faculty supervisor... became angry and claimed that my presentation was inappropriate for the topic of human sexuality. The graduate TAs supported him and shouted me down. It was horrible.” (p. 608)

The following example details homonegativity occurring at the faculty/administrative level:

“For the past two decades, I have worked closely with the lesbian/bisexual community. Because of this volunteer work, a particularly homophobic division director assumed that I was lesbian. Based on that assumption, I was denied entry into the counselling program [even though] I was ranked in the top 10. Candidates who were not in the top 10 were offered positions in the graduate division. This information was disclosed to me in confidence by two junior faculty members who had attended the deliberations of the admissions committee.” (p. 608)

Anti-gay, -lesbian, and -bisexual behaviour are not restricted to college and university settings. Research, pertinent to this issue, conducted in the general population will be reviewed briefly.

Prevalence of Homonegative Behaviour in the General Population

Numerous researchers have explored the prevalence of homonegative behaviour using samples of gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals in various community settings. For instance, Herek, Gillis, Cogan, and Glunt (1997) distributed questionnaires to self-identifying gay, lesbian,

and bisexual individuals in Sacramento, California. Results indicated that approximately 50% of the sample believed they had been victims of at least one crime or attempted crime, due to their sexual orientation. These crimes ranged from attempted assaults (both sexual and nonsexual) to witnessing the violent murder of a loved one. Examining victimization and mental health in a sample of older participants (age>60) from the east and west coasts in the United States, as well as from central Canada, D'Augelli and Grossman (2001) found that: two thirds (63%) had experienced verbal abuse, 29% had been threatened with physical violence, 11% had objects thrown at them, 16% had been physically attacked, 12% had been threatened with weapons, 7% had been sexually assaulted and 29% had been threatened with the disclosure of their sexual orientation. In addition, 33% of the sample experienced three or more instances of verbal abuse and 29% had been threatened with physical assault.

It should be noted that, unlike negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women, homonegative behaviour has not declined appreciably over the past 25 years. For example, Berrill's (1990) review of studies on anti-gay violence and victimization published between 1977 and 1987 documents levels of homonegative behaviour comparable to those reported by D'Augelli and Grossman (2001).

Homonegativity also is apparent in the civil inequalities that exist between homosexual and heterosexual individuals. For example, in both Canada and the United States, the right to marry has not been granted to gay men and lesbian women. Further, protection from discrimination (e.g., introduction of anti-discrimination laws) and hate crimes (e.g., prohibition of hate crimes and hate propaganda), and the opportunity to serve openly in the military have yet to be granted throughout the United States. With respect to the latter point, Belkin (2001) argues that:

“as long as gay and lesbian people are not allowed to admit who they are, there is no way for them to complain about harassment. They cannot complain about harassment, of course, because doing so could get them kicked out of the military. And the fact that they are not allowed to complain about harassment provides a green light to anyone thinking of tormenting them or beating them.” (p. 105)

Consequently, it is not surprising that violent harassment of military personnel presumed to be gay or lesbian is widespread and, at the very least, tolerated by military officials (Sobel, Westcott, Benecke, & Osburn, 2000).

Such issues remain at the forefront of social, political, and public policy debate (Howard-Hassmann, 2001). Indeed, the apparent refusal to expeditiously resolve these matters (rather than simply debate them) places into question the extent to which homonegativity has declined in mainstream society.⁴

Paradox in the Literature

Studies examining attitudinal and non-attitudinal indicants of homonegativity attest to the presence of a paradox in the literature. Specifically, there exists a disjunction between the degree to which college and university students endorse blatantly homonegative scale items and the prevalence of homonegative behaviour in post-secondary institutions. The following question must be considered: Why do attitudinal measures suggest that post-secondary institutions are quite accepting of gay men and lesbian women, whereas other indicators such as students' fear of being openly gay or lesbian on campus, homonegative graffiti, and the prevalence of verbal and physical assault do not. What factors are responsible for this apparent discrepancy? As a starting point, researchers may want to scrutinize the scales used to measure homonegativity. To this end, extant measures will be examined for psychometric robustness and item content. It is anticipated that this examination will elucidate any problems inherent with the measurement of homonegativity on today's college and university campuses.

Problems Associated with the Measurement of Homonegativity

Numerous studies have been conducted in order to understand prejudiced attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women, and a plethora of scales have been developed to measure these attitudes (e.g., Agüero, Bloch, & Byrne, 1984; Hansen, 1982; Herek, 1988; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980; Larsen, Reed, & Hoffman, 1980; MacDonald & Games, 1974; MacDonald, Huggins, Young, & Swanson, 1973). Kite (1992) and Schwanberg (1993), however, point out that little research has addressed the quality of such scales. Although some source articles offer preliminary psychometric information (e.g., Hansen, 1982; MacDonald, 1976; Millham, San Miguel, & Kellogg, 1976), follow-up psychometric assessments are seldom conducted (Kite, 1992). Further, Schwanberg (1993) states that, at best, most "...instruments may be evaluated for reliability but not validity (p. 101).

A related criticism of scales developed in the 1970s and early 1980s is that the generic term "homosexual" serves as the attitudinal target (e.g., Dunbar, Brown, & Amoroso, 1973; Hansen, 1982; Henley & Pincus, 1978; Hood, 1973; Levitt & Klassen, 1974; Lumby, 1976; Smith, 1971; Weis & Dain, 1979). Failure to indicate the sex of the homosexual target prevents researchers from differentiating participants' attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women (Schwanberg, 1993). Further, Black and Stevenson (1984) conducted a study in which university students were asked to indicate which sex they thought of when responding to items containing the term "homosexual." Results indicated that over half of the male respondents and more than one quarter of the female respondents thought of gay men when the term "homosexual" was used.

In an attempt to rectify these problems, Herek (1988) developed the Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG). Herek (1988) conducted various psychometric

assessments of the scale and developed separate versions for lesbian women (i.e., the Attitudes Toward Lesbian Scale; ATL) and gay men (i.e., the Attitudes Toward Gay Men Scale; ATG). Research suggests that the ATLG is highly reliable (i.e., coefficient alphas for the combined version range from .89 to .91), unidimensional (i.e., items for both the gay and lesbian versions typically load on a general condemnation/ tolerance factor), and possesses good construct validity (i.e., total scale scores correlate, in the hypothesized direction, with endorsement of sexism and with interpersonal contact with gay/lesbian individuals).

The ATLG addresses problems inherent in the scales developed during the 1970s and early 1980s and possesses excellent psychometric properties (e.g., Herek, 1994; Waldo & Kemp, 1997). Thus, it is not surprising that the ATLG has become one of the most widely used measures of homonegativity.

Intriguingly, from the vantage point of this dissertation, a number of researchers using the ATLG have found that college and university students appear to reject the scale's items. For example, Louderback and Whitley (1997) distributed the ATLG to introductory psychology students in a midwestern university. For this study, *lower* scores on the ATLG represented *greater* homonegativity. Scale scores could range from 1 to 9, with a mid-point of 5. Results indicated that mean scale scores for the entire sample did not surpass the mid-point ($M_s=5.8$ on the ATL and 5.0 on the ATG). In another study, Simoni and Walters (2001) distributed questionnaires containing a short-form version of the ATLG to introductory psychology students. The authors used a 9-point response format in which total scores could range from 10 to 90, with higher scores indicating greater homonegativity. Results indicated that mean scale scores on the ATLG did not approach the mid-point (i.e., 50). Specifically, mean scale scores were 46.4 and

38.6 for males and females, respectively. Given the ATLG's superior psychometric properties, what explanations can be offered to account for respondents' low levels of homonegativity?

One possible explanation is that the ATLG is highly reactive. That is, participants may conceal their true level of homonegativity in an effort to present themselves in a positive way. Research suggests, however, that the ATLG is not linked to socially desirable response sets (Herek, 1988; Simon, 1995); thus, it appears unlikely that these findings obtained are an artifact of reactivity.

Another possible explanation is that researchers may have relied on convenience samples that were relatively homogeneous with respect to their attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Thus, sampling bias may serve as a possible explanation for participants' low levels of homonegativity. It should be noted, however, that studies using the ATLG have been conducted in a variety of geographic locations in North America (e.g., California, Saskatchewan, Illinois, and New York), and that respondents have been enrolled in a variety of faculties such as education, arts, business, and science. Thus, aside from the common element of being enrolled in a post-secondary institution, it appears that the samples used were relatively heterogeneous.

Finally, it is possible that scales such as the ATLG examine a specific type of homonegativity; one that many college and university students no longer endorse. This explanation appears promising because the content of items contained on the ATLG reflects what might be conceptualised as "old-fashioned" prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. For example, items 3 ("Female homosexuality is detrimental to society because it breaks down the natural divisions between the sexes"), 5 ("Female homosexuality is a sin"), 6 ("The growing number of lesbians indicates a decline in American morals"), 10 ("Lesbians are sick"), 12 ("I

think male homosexuals are disgusting”) and 14 (“Male homosexuality is a perversion”) seem to reflect traditional moral/religious objections to homosexuality.

Students may evidence low levels of homonegativity on “old-fashioned” measures, not because they possess favourable attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women, but simply because they consider the items contained in these measures to be anachronistic. If so, is there a “modern” counterpart to “old-fashioned” homonegativity? And, more importantly, is there a theoretical rationale to justify distinguishing between “old-fashioned” and “modern” forms of prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women?

Theoretical Framework of Modern Racism

The social psychological construct of modern racism was borne of a similar paradox to that found in the literature pertaining to gay men and lesbian women. For example, public opinion polls such as the General Social Survey suggest that traditional anti-black or old-fashioned prejudice, with its emphasis on white supremacy, black inferiority, and racial segregation, has declined in the United States since the 1950s (Firebaugh & Davis, 1988). In fact, Firebaugh and Davis (1988) maintain that the pattern of decline shows no signs of abating and appears to have accelerated slightly, even in the American South. However, other indicators of racial prejudice such as anti-black voting behaviour (Kinder & Sears, 1981), resistance to affirmative action (Jacobson, 1985; Dovidio & Gaertner, 1996), and race-related biases in a number of areas including employment (McConahay, 1983; Brief, Dietz, Cohen, Pugh, & Vaslow, 2000) and the judicial system (Pfeifer & Ogloff, 1991) suggest that racism remains a significant social problem in American society.

Contemporary theories of racism were developed as a result of the weak relationships found between measures of anti-black prejudice and racially relevant behaviours (e.g., voting

intentions). Specifically, the theory of *modern racism* (McConahay, 1986) accounts for the attitude/behaviour discrepancy by suggesting that racial prejudice has assumed a more covert form; one that is not assessed by “old-fashioned” measures of anti-black attitudes.

According to McConahay (1986), the theory of modern racism focuses on the ambivalence that some Whites have toward Blacks; an ambivalence that is rooted in the conflict between their anti-Black attitudes and their belief that racism is wrong. Modern racists: 1) deny the continued existence of Black discrimination; 2) reject the right of Blacks to lobby for changes in the status quo; 3) believe demands made by Blacks are unfair; and 4) assert that prestigious social institutions give Blacks unwarranted attention. With modern racism, the key issue is not whether Blacks *should* be equal but, rather, how should Black equality be implemented socially, legally, and politically?

McConahay (1986) developed the Modern Racism Scale in order to measure this new form of racial prejudice. This scale contains six items (e.g., “Blacks are getting too demanding in their push for equal rights”), with higher scores typically denoting greater levels of racism, and has been used extensively by researchers (Entman, 1990). Scores on the Modern Racism Scale have been found to correlate positively with political conservatism (Weigel & Howes, 1985), authoritarianism (Weigel & Howes, 1985), endorsement of conventional religious beliefs (McConahay & Hough, 1976), and prejudice toward stigmatised groups such as gay men, lesbian women, and the elderly (Weigel & Howes, 1985).

Many parallels have been drawn between the experiences of women and Blacks in North America due, in part, to their minority status. Smith and Stewart (1983) contend that there is considerable overlap in the content of racist and sexist stereotypes. For example, Blacks and women are both portrayed as “intellectually inferior, lacking in ambition and drive, emotional,

dependent, and childlike” (p. 2)]. Further, Reid (1988) asserts that “both groups have had to deal with the expectation and assumption that white men were better suited to...supervisory and managerial positions” (p. 204), and both have been excluded from prestigious community organizations and have restrictions placed on their admittance to post-secondary educational institutions.

Researchers argue that, in all likelihood, sexism has undergone a transformation similar to that found with racism. For example, in their discussion of affirmative action, Dovidio, Mann, and Gaertner (1989) state, “while our discussion focuses on racism, our discussion also concerns sexism. We believe that many of the critical elements of modern racism relate to sexism” (p. 86). As a result of this perceived interrelatedness, researchers began exploring sexism through the theoretical lens of modern racism.

Theoretical Frameworks of Modern Sexism and Neosexism

Swim, Aikin, Hall, and Hunter (1995) contend that, just as there is pressure to suppress blatantly racist sentiments so, too, is there pressure to suppress overtly negative attitudes toward women. However, in keeping with the modern framework, Swim et al. (1995) report that the apparent rejection of old-fashioned sexist attitudes does not represent a more global trend toward gender parity. For example, research indicates that: a) women working full- and part-time earn approximately 72% of men’s average salaries (Wilson, 1996); b) women remain disproportionately represented in low-paying occupations which provide minimal opportunities for career advancement (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1994); and women, irrespective of their employment status, spend more time than men performing child care and domestic activities (Biernat & Wortman, 1991; Douhitt, 1989).

In accordance with earlier theorizing on modern racism, Swim et al. (1995) postulate that a new form of sexism exists. They labelled this construct *modern sexism* and report that it reflects the extent to which individuals: 1) disavow women's present day discrimination; 2) reject their demands for political and economic parity; and 3) disapprove of policies designed to promote gender equality. Swim et al. (1995) developed the 8-item Modern Sexism Scale (MSS) to measure these three components. To determine the conceptual distinctiveness of the MSS, Swim et al. (1995) factor analysed this scale and a measure of old-fashioned sexism. Results indicated that the modern and old-fashioned items fit a two-factor model. In addition, gender-biased voting behaviour and over-estimation of the proportion of women who occupy male-dominated jobs, rather subtle manifestations of sexism, were predicted by scores on the MSS, but not by scores on the old-fashioned measure. Finally, Swim et al. (1995) found that scores on the MSS correlated, in the hypothesized direction, with endorsement of the Protestant Work Ethic (Katz & Hass, 1988) and Humanitarian-Egalitarian values (Katz & Hass, 1988).

Another measure of contemporary sexism was constructed around the same time. Tougas, Brown, Beaton, and Joly (1995) developed and validated a measure of *neosexism* which reflects the "conflict between egalitarian values and residual negative feelings toward women" (p. 843). The Neosexism Scale (NS) contains 11 items and focuses primarily, though not exclusively, on support for public policies designed to enhance the status of women. Tougas et al. (1995) distributed the scale to men in both university and community settings. Results indicated that neosexism predicted attitudinal support for affirmative action policies for women.

Comparisons have been made in the literature between the Modern Sexism and Neosexism scales. In their investigation of the two measures, Campbell, Schellenberg, and Senn (1997) found that these instruments adequately predicted attitudinal support for the feminist

movement. However, the Neosexism scale possessed better internal consistency and appears to better represent the tenets underlying the theoretical framework of modern racism. For instance, the Neosexism Scale measures issues related to women in the labour force as well as denial of their continued discrimination whereas the Modern Sexism Scale only measures the latter. Thus, Campbell et al. (1997) recommend using the Neosexism Scale when one requires “a sensitive measure of modern prejudice based on gender” (p. 98).

Overall, research on modern racism and modern sexism suggests that distinctions exist between old-fashioned forms of prejudice and their contemporary counterparts. However, in order to apply this modern framework to the domain of attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women, one must demonstrate a linkage between racism, sexism, and homonegativity.

Linkage Between Racism, Sexism, and Homonegativity

Research suggests that racism and sexism are correlated with attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. For instance, Henley and Pincus (1978) distributed questionnaires containing measures of racism, sexism, and homonegativity to a small sample of undergraduate students. Results indicated that homonegativity correlated positively with racism ($r_s = .44$ and $.51$ for males and females, respectively) and sexism ($r_s = .53$ and $.69$ for males and females, respectively). In another study, Bierly (1985) distributed scales measuring racist, sexist, and homonegative attitudes to university students enrolled in general education courses. Significant positive correlations were found between racism and homonegativity ($r = .44$) as well as sexism and homonegativity ($r = .55$). Finally, Ficarotto (1990) found that, among a sample of undergraduate students attending introductory psychology courses, scores on measures of racism and sexism were independent and equal predictors of homonegative attitudes.

The available research suggests that racism, sexism, and homonegativity are interrelated. Thus, one appears justified in positing that the modern framework used in the study of racism and sexism also may be applied to homonegativity.

Construct of Modern Homonegativity

Morrison and Morrison (in press) believe that the theoretical explanations inherent in modern racism and modern sexism may be used to account for the “paradoxical” findings documented by a number of researchers examining homonegativity (e.g., Balanko, 1998; Norris, 1992). They contend that homonegativity has not abated at post-secondary institutions but, rather, similar to racism and sexism, has undergone a transformation from “old-fashioned” to “modern.” Specifically, these authors propose that students’ prejudice against gay men and lesbian women has moved away from traditional objections to, and misconceptions about, homosexuality to more abstract concerns. These concerns include: 1) gay men and lesbian women are making illegitimate (or unnecessary) demands for changes in the status quo (e.g., spousal benefits); 2) discrimination against homosexual men and women is a thing of the past; and 3) gay men and lesbian women exaggerate the importance of their sexual preference and, in so doing, prevent themselves from assimilating into mainstream culture. Morrison and Morrison (in press) conducted a series of studies in order to develop and validate a measure of “modern” prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women, entitled the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS). Previous research detailing the construction and validation of this scale will be reviewed briefly.

Previous Research on Modern Homonegativity

A preliminary version of the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS) was developed by Morrison and Morrison (in press) in consultation with several gay and lesbian graduate students.

Using modern racism (e.g., McConahay, 1986) and modern sexism (e.g., Swim et al., 1995) as theoretical frameworks, the authors asked these students to generate items that would represent the prejudicial attitudes that “liberal” individuals may hold towards lesbian women and gay men. The authors emphasized that they were not interested in traditional objections to homosexuality (e.g., “Gay men should not be allowed to work with children” and “Female homosexuality is a sin”) but, rather, the students’ goal was to articulate contemporary manifestations of homonegativity. To ensure that these items possessed content validity, a member of a local gay and lesbian organization was asked to review them. Based on this individual’s feedback, several items were revised. Overall, this process yielded 50 items; however, that number was considered prohibitive and, consequently, an item reduction procedure that would reduce the size of the MHS was employed. Also, a preliminary investigation of the scale’s construct validity was undertaken.

Specifically, in accordance with criteria outlined by Benson and Vincent (1980), MHS items were eliminated if they had: 1) a single response category with an endorsement rate higher than 50%; 2) three or more response categories with endorsement rates less than 10% each; and/or 3) a middle response category (e.g., “don’t know”) with an endorsement rate higher than 30%. This procedure resulted in the elimination of 25 items.

A principal components analysis (PCA) followed by oblique rotation was conducted on the remaining 25 items. PCA was selected because the researchers’ goal was item reduction (Fabrigar, Wegner, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Inspection of the scree plot indicated that a one-component solution should be retained. As per the recommendation of Comrey and Lee (1992 as cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), only loadings of .30 or higher were considered to contribute significantly to this component. The final version consisted of thirteen items.

Cronbach's alpha for the 13-item version of the MHS was .93. Also, scores on the MHS correlated positively with self-reported political conservatism for males, $r=.46$, $p<.001$, and females, $r=.53$, $p<.001$. Also, as expected, self-reported religious behaviour correlated positively with MHS scores for males, $r=.23$, $p<.005$, and females, $r=.28$, $p<.001$ as did religious self-schema, $r=.20$, $p<.05$ (males) and $r=.28$, $p<.001$ (females).

Morrison and Morrison (in press) conducted a second study to further investigate the construct validity of the 13-item version of the MHS. Of particular concern was the scale's conceptual distinctiveness from a measure of old-fashioned homonegativity and its relationships with other constructs such as modern sexism. To this end, exploratory factor analyses were conducted. In addition, research suggests that modern forms of prejudice such as modern racism and modern sexism are interrelated (Swim et al., 1995). Extrapolating from such findings, it was posited that scores on the MHS should correlate positively with scores on a measure of modern sexism. Further, if scales designed to measure modern prejudice are distinct from old-fashioned measures, a stronger correlation should exist between modern measures of prejudice than between modern and old-fashioned measures of prejudice (Campbell et al. 1997; Swim & Cohen, 1997). Consequently, it was hypothesized that: 1) modern homonegativity and modern sexism would correlate more strongly than modern homonegativity and old-fashioned sexism; and 2) modern homonegativity and modern sexism would correlate more strongly than old-fashioned homonegativity and modern sexism. A subsidiary purpose of this study was to investigate whether responses on the MHS are influenced by social desirability bias.

Morrison and Morrison (in press) used a variety of measures to test the aforementioned hypotheses; namely, the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (ATWS; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973), Homonegativity Scale (HS; Morrison, Parriag, & Morrison, 1999), Marlowe-Crowne

Social Desirability Scale (Form C; Reynolds, 1982), Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS; Morrison & Morrison, in press), and the Neosexism Scale (NS; Tougas et al., 1995).

The dimensionality of the MHS-G and MHS-L using maximum likelihood (ML) factor analyses followed by oblique rotation (i.e., direct oblimin with a delta set at zero) was determined. One-factor solutions, which accounted for 45% and 47% of the total variance, were obtained for the MHS-G and MHS-L, respectively.

Items from the MHS-G and HS-G (male participants) and MHS-L and HS-L (female participants) also were factor analysed using ML extraction with oblique rotation. The analysis for males produced a two-factor solution with a chi-square/degrees of freedom ratio of less than two. Factor 1 accounted for 42.1% of the total variance. All of the MHS-G items loaded on this factor. Factor 2 accounted for 9.7% of the total variance. All of the HS-G items loaded on Factor 2. The analysis for females produced a three-factor solution with a chi-square/degrees of freedom ratio of less than two. Factor 1 accounted for 38.6% of the total variance, Factor 2 accounted for 9.1% of the total variance, and Factor 3 accounted for 6% of the total variance. All of the MHS-L items loaded on the first factor with one exception. The item, "The media devote far too much attention to the topic of homosexuality," had comparable loadings on both factors 1 and 2, and was subsequently dropped. Two items from the HS-L loaded on Factor 2, and the remaining four items loaded on factor 3.

In accordance with Morrison and Morrison's (in press) hypotheses, the correlations between modern homonegativity and neosexism ($r_s = .59$ and $.57$, $p_s < .01$ for males and females, respectively) were stronger than the correlations between modern homonegativity and old-fashioned sexism ($r_s = .41$ and $.32$, $p_s < .01$ for males and females, respectively). Fisher's r to z transformation revealed that the difference between these correlations was significant for both

males ($z=2.92$, $p<.01$) and females ($z=3.96$, $p<.01$). Similarly, the correlations between modern homonegativity and neosexism ($r=.59$ and $.57$, $ps<.01$ for males and females, respectively) were stronger than the correlations between old-fashioned homonegativity and neosexism ($r=.39$ and $.45$, $ps<.01$ for males and females, respectively). Again, Fisher's r to z transformation revealed that the difference between these correlations was significant for males ($z=3.21$, $p<.01$) and females ($z=2.04$, $p<.05$). Finally, scores on the MHS-G and MHS-L did not correlate significantly with social desirability bias ($r=-.03$ and $.03$, respectively).

On the basis of these results, Morrison and Morrison (in press) purport that both versions of the MHS possess high levels of reliability, are unidimensional, and conceptually distinct from their old-fashioned counterparts. As well, scores on the MHS-G and MHS-L correlated positively with neosexism and did not correlate with social desirability bias. Finally, Fisher's r to z transformation revealed that correlations between modern forms of prejudice were stronger than correlations between modern and old-fashioned forms of prejudice.

A major limitation of Morrison and Morrison's (in press) preceding study was that it did not investigate students' attitudes toward homosexuals of the opposite-sex. This limitation was addressed in a third study by randomly distributing copies of the MHS-G and MHS-L to male and female participants. It should be mentioned that an additional purpose of Morrison and Morrison's (in press) study was to compare and contrast participants' responses on the MHS with responses on the Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG), a commonly used measure of old-fashioned homonegativity.

Since Morrison and Morrison (in press) found that one of the "modern" items on the MHS-L had comparable loadings on two factors, this item was deleted from both versions of the MHS, which resulted in a 12-item scale (range from 12 to 60), with higher scores denoting

greater homonegativity. Further, Morrison and Morrison (in press) contended that measures of old-fashioned homonegativity such as the ATLG contain items that college and university students may perceive as being out of date. If so, it was hypothesized that respondents would be more likely to strongly disagree/disagree with items on the ATLG than with items on the MHS.

Mean item responses for each scale were computed and paired t-tests were used to determine if participants' level of homonegativity varied as a function of whether the measure used was modern or old-fashioned. Males' average response to items on the MHS-G ($M=3.2$, $SD=.7$) was significantly greater than their average response to items on the ATG ($M=2.9$, $SD=1.1$), $t(32)=2.96$, $p<.01$, $d=1.05$.⁵ Approximately 58% of male respondents scored above the scale mid-point on the MHS-G in comparison to 36% on the ATG. Females' average response to items on the MHS-G ($M=2.9$, $SD=.8$) was significantly greater than their average response to items on the ATG ($M=2.3$, $SD=.9$), $t(79)=8.49$, $p<.0001$, $d=1.91$ (i.e., 34% of females scored above the scale mid-point on the MHS-G in comparison to 23% on the ATG).

Males' average response to items on the MHS-L ($M=3.3$, $SD=.8$) was significantly greater than their average response to items on the ATL ($M=2.5$, $SD=1.1$), $t(30)=4.91$, $p<.0001$, $d=1.79$. The proportions scoring above the mid-point on the MHS-L and the ATL were 68% and 19%, respectively. For females, the average item score on the MHS-L was 3.0 ($SD=.7$) which, again, was significantly greater than the average response to items on the ATL ($M=2.4$, $SD=1.0$), $t(85)=6.79$, $p<.0001$, $d=1.47$. The proportion scoring above the mid-point on the MHS-L was 42%; on the ATL, it was 20%.

On the basis of these results, Morrison and Morrison (in press) suggested that the MHS may be more appropriate for use with college and university students than old-fashioned measures such as the ATLG. The mean scores on the ATL and ATG were well below the scale

mid-point, and suggest that floor effects may be of concern. Also, mean item responses on the ATL and ATG were significantly lower than mean item responses on the MHS-G and MHS-L. The magnitude of the disparity between participants' responses to the MHS and the ATLG becomes apparent when examining the proportion of individuals scoring above or below the scale mid-point. For example, 74.2% of male participants and 77% of female participants scored *below* the mid-point on the ATL; thus, it may be concluded that participants' attitudes toward lesbians are quite favourable. However, a more complicated picture emerged when responses to the MHS-L were examined. The proportions scoring below the scale mid-point were 32.3% and 52.9% for males and females, respectively. Thus, participants' level of modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS-L, appeared to be substantially greater than their level of old-fashioned homonegativity, as measured by the ATL.

Morrison and Morrison (in press) also examined a behavioural expression of modern homonegativity using an attributional ambiguity technique (Snyder, Kleck, Strenta, & Mentzer, 1979). The ambiguity technique provides a covert means of detecting behavioural manifestations of prejudice, and has been used in previous investigations of modern racism (Batson, Flink, Schoenrade, Fultz, & Pych, 1986). Two assumptions underlie the use of attributional ambiguity: 1) individuals who endorse modern forms of prejudice need to justify their attitudes and behaviours on nonprejudicial grounds; and 2) such individuals will not act in a prejudicial manner unless a means of justification is available. The attributional ambiguity technique uses a "covert" experimental condition that enables participants to conceal prejudicial and discriminatory tendencies. The other experimental condition (i.e., the "overt" condition) does not provide participants with the means to justify prejudice and discrimination.

The following hypothesis was tested. Specifically, it was hypothesized that, in the covert condition, high-scorers on the MHS would be less likely than low-scorers to sit with a confederate wearing a t-shirt with a visible pro-gay or pro-lesbian slogan. The numbers of males and females assigned to the overt condition were 12 and 12, respectively; the numbers assigned to the covert condition were 13 and 12. Participants were run individually by an experimenter who was blind to their MHS scores. Thirty-six participants passed a manipulation check in which they identified correctly the gay or lesbian slogan from a list of slogans. Data from these 36 participants were used in the following analyses. Due to the small sample size, data for males and females were analysed together.

Chi-square analyses were conducted to assess the proportion of individuals selecting “Theatre A” or “Theatre B” in the overt and covert conditions. As predicted, in the covert condition, high-scorers on the MHS were less likely than low-scorers to sit beside a “gay” or “lesbian” confederate (11% versus 56%, $2(1) = 4.0, p < .05$). However, in the overt condition, the proportion of high- and low-scoring participants who sat beside a “gay” or “lesbian” confederate did not differ significantly (56% versus 78%, $2(1) = 1.0, ns$).

On the basis of Morrison and Morrison’s (in press) initial research using the MHS, the authors concluded that the scale was unidimensional, reliable, factorially distinct from a measure of old-fashioned homonegativity and correlated in the hypothesized direction with a variety of measures of theoretical interest. Finally, behavioural differences were found between participants scoring high and low on the MHS. Specifically, the experimental study revealed that participants obtaining high scores on the MHS were less likely to sit beside individuals wearing t-shirts with pro-gay or pro-lesbian slogans when they could justify their seating choice on non-prejudicial grounds.

Overview of the Current Research

The purpose of the studies conducted in this dissertation is to build upon prior research and confirm that modern homonegativity represents a new psychological construct. To this end, Study 1 will confirm that the structure of the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS; Morrison & Morrison, in press) is, indeed, unidimensional. This study also will determine the extent to which modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS, is *conceptually* distinct from the most commonly used indicator of old-fashioned homonegativity, the Attitudes Toward Lesbian and Gay Men Scale (ATLG; Herek, 1988). In addition, Raja and Stokes' (1998) recently developed measure entitled the Modern Homophobia Scale (Homophobia)⁶ used modern prejudice as a framework for item construction and the authors contend that this scale examines contemporary manifestations of homonegativity. Thus, an ancillary purpose of Study 1 is to compare the psychometric properties of the MHS with Raja and Stokes' (1998) measure.

Study 2 will extend the research outlined in Study 1 by assessing, cross-culturally, the unidimensionality, conceptual distinctiveness, and invariance of the MHS factor loadings using a sample of American participants. In addition, the relationships between modern homonegativity and other forms of modern prejudice such as neosexism, as well as individual difference variables such as the motivation to control prejudiced reactions will be assessed in an American context.

Study 1

Although three distinct tenets underlay modern racism (McConahay, 1986) and modern sexism (Swim et al., 1995), both constructs are conceptualized as being unidimensional. In a similar fashion, modern homonegativity is viewed as a unidimensional construct, even though it

contains three underlying principles. Preliminary evidence attesting to the unidimensionality of the MHS is provided by Morrison and Morrison (in press).

According to Guilford (1954), ensuring the unidimensionality of measures is important because any test “that measures more than one common factor...yields scores that are psychologically ambiguous and difficult to interpret (p. 110). Moreover, McNemar (1946) states:

“Measurement implies that one characteristic at a time is being quantified. The scores on an attitude scale are most meaningful when it is known that only one continuum is involved. Only then can it be claimed that two individuals with the same score or rank can be quantitatively and, within limits, qualitatively similar in their attitudes towards a given issue” (p. 268).

Previous research also suggests that the MHS is factorially distinct from a measure of old-fashioned homonegativity [i.e., Homonegativity Scale (HS); Morrison et al., 1999]. Specifically, scale items for both versions of the MHS-G and MHS-L loaded on factors separate from the gay and lesbian versions of the HS.

It should be noted that maximum likelihood (ML) factor analysis was used to test the unidimensionality of the MHS and its conceptual distinctiveness from old-fashioned homonegativity. Factor analysis is one of the most widely used statistical procedures for examining the linkages between observed and latent variables (Byrne, 1994). This statistical technique provides researchers with two distinct approaches for assessing these linkages: 1) exploratory factor analysis (EFA); and 2) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). According to Byrne (1994), EFA is used initially when researchers are uncertain of the connection between observed and latent variables. Consequently, the analysis “proceeds in an exploratory mode to determine how, and to what extent, the observed variables are linked to their underlying factors” (Byrne, 1998, p. 5). In keeping with Byrne’s (1998) recommendation, initial examinations of the

unidimensionality and factorial distinctiveness of the MHS were conducted using EFA (e.g., maximum likelihood factor analysis).

CFA, on the other hand, is performed typically when there is some theoretical knowledge and/or empirical research already available about the construct under investigation (Byrne, 1998). According to Briggs and Cheek (1986), CFA represents “a significant advance over exploratory methods in that it allows [researchers] to test more directly hypotheses concerning specific parameters derived from previous research or conceptual work” (p. 109).

CFA involves *a priori* theoretical constraints that are used to specify a model against which results from a sample of data can be tested for goodness of fit. CFA enables researchers to determine the adequacy of the hypothesized model with the observed measures using a variety of fit statistics. This model then clarifies the hypothetical relationship between manifest (i.e., observed) and latent (i.e., unobserved) variables.

To date, only EFA has been conducted on the MHS. Since continued construct validation and replication efforts are necessary to establish the viability of a new construct (Cook & Campbell, 1979), research attempting to replicate the dimensionality and factorial distinctiveness of the MHS should be conducted. Further, given that some knowledge of the construct of modern homonegativity has been acquired, it is appropriate at this juncture to use CFA to verify the dimensionality of the MHS and its factorial distinction from old-fashioned homonegativity.

It should be noted that previous research examining the factorial distinction between modern and old-fashioned forms of homonegativity used the Homonegativity Scale (HS; Morrison et al., 1999). Unfortunately, this measure of old-fashioned homonegativity has not been used that frequently and, consequently, there is a relatively small amount of evidence attesting to its psychometric soundness. To provide stronger support for the conceptual

distinctiveness of the MHS, it is imperative that this scale be contrasted with a more widely used measure of old-fashioned homonegativity. Specifically, Herek's (1988) Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG) will be included. The ATLG possesses excellent psychometric properties (see Herek, 1994 for a review) and is considered the "gold standard" for assessing old-fashioned homonegativity.

New Measure of Modern Prejudice Toward Gay Men and Lesbian Women

A relatively new measure of modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women was developed by Raja and Stokes (1998). In recognition of some of the problems associated with existing measures of homonegativity, these authors developed two versions of their scale (Homophobia-G for gay men and Homophobia-L for lesbian women). The content and number of items contained in each version, however, are dissimilar.

To guide the development of their scale, Raja and Stokes (1998) used the theoretical frameworks of modern racism and sexism. Specifically, the scale was designed to update the item content of extant measures of homonegativity in recognition of the fact that individuals may no longer endorse blatantly homonegative statements. The rationale and intent underlying the Homophobia scale appear similar to those used to justify the development of the MHS. However, the way in which Raja and Stokes (1998) conceptualize *modern* prejudice appears to be somewhat unorthodox.

Before presenting their conceptualization of modern homophobia, the authors give examples of racism and sexism to assist in the formulation of this construct. With respect to racism, Raja and Stokes (1998) provide the following examples: "some people would prefer that an African American not live next door to them" (an example of prejudice on a personal level); "some companies won't hire African Americans;" and "some sterilization methods intended to

curb population growth have been targeted toward African Americans” (examples of institutional prejudice) (p. 117). Examples of sexism also are provided. Raja and Stokes (1998) indicate that societal sexism is exemplified in laws and policies that systematically discriminate against women such as those designed to bar women from serving in the military. Organizational sexism is depicted as “workplace discrimination and the ‘old boys’ networks that keep women from obtaining positions in upper management” (p. 117). Individual sexism is defined as “personal adherence to traditional gender roles” (p. 117). For example, an individual may feel that “a woman could never be a carpenter or that a man could never be a seamstress” (p. 117). On the basis of these examples, Raja and Stokes (1998) conclude that, “homophobia, too, can be conceptualized along dimensions similar to those that have been proposed for racism and sexism” (p. 117). Consequently, these authors purport that “modern” homophobia comprises a combination of personal discomfort with, and institutional discrimination against, gay men and lesbian women.

The dimension of personal discomfort is defined globally as “the urge to avoid personal contact with gay men and lesbians, due to a feeling of discomfort when gay men and lesbians are present and/or the belief that gay men and lesbians are sick and perverted” (p. 117). Inspection of the “modern” items representing personal discomfort suggests that many of them contain old-fashioned content. For example, items such as “Female homosexuality is a psychological disease;” “I won’t associate with a gay man for fear of catching AIDS;” “I would remove my child from class if I found out the teacher was gay;” and “Physicians and psychologists should strive to find a cure for male homosexuality” do not appear to possess a “modern” sensibility, as outlined by McConahay (1986) and Swim et al. (1995). Rather, these items reflect misconceptions about homosexuality. Indeed, similar items are found in scales designed to

measure old-fashioned homonegativity. Given that the authors' objective was to develop a measure of modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women, using items such as those listed above would appear to be incompatible with this goal.

The institutional homophobia dimension of Raja and Stokes' (1998) scale is defined globally as "the organizational or systemic practices that exclude gay men and lesbians" (p. 118). Institutional items were generated to represent the extent to which gay men and lesbian women should be accorded rights in the following domains: 1) health care; 2) housing; 3) the military; 4) parenting; 5) politics; 6) religion; 7) school curricula; and 8) employment. Some items clearly denote modern content (e.g., "I am tired of hearing about lesbians' problems" and "Gay men want too many rights"); however, other items are indicative of old-fashioned homonegativity (e.g., "Hospitals shouldn't hire gay male doctors").

Factor Analysis and Validity of the Homophobia Scale

The items on the Homophobia-G (gay) and Homophobia-L (lesbian) scales were factor analysed using "principal factors extraction" with oblique rotation. Contrary to the authors' expectation that the Homophobia Scale contains two factors (i.e., discomfort and institutional homophobia), three factors were obtained for both versions: *personal discomfort*, *institutional homophobia*, and *belief that homosexuality is deviant and/or changeable*. According to Raja and Stokes (1998), the three factors obtained for the gay men version accounted for 44.9% of the variance in Homophobia-G scores, and the three factors obtained for the lesbian women version accounted for 47.3% of the variance in Homophobia-L scores.

Raja and Stokes (1998) hypothesized that, modern homophobia, as measured by the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L Scales, would correlate positively with negative attitudes toward women's roles and rights (Attitudes Toward Women Scale; as cited in Raja & Stokes,

1998) and with “old-fashioned” prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women (Index of Homophobia; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980). As hypothesized, scores on both the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L correlated positively with scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale ($r_s = .61$ and $.48$, $p_s < .001$, respectively). As well, scores on both the Homophobia-G and L correlated positively with scores on the Index of Homophobia ($r_s = .87$ and $.80$, $p_s < .001$, respectively). Theoretically, significant correlations between the Homophobia Scale and the Index of Homophobia would be expected because they both measure negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. However, the magnitude of the correlations obtained causes one to question the true distinctiveness of the Homophobia Scale. In addition, Raja and Stokes’s (1998) contention that their scale measures “modern” negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women would have been bolstered if they had demonstrated that correlations between the Homophobia Scale and a measure of *modern* sexism were stronger than those between the Homophobia Scale and a measure of *old-fashioned* sexism.

Finally, to further test the Homophobia Scale’s construct validity, Raja and Stokes (1998) distributed vignettes to students enrolled in introductory psychology courses. The vignettes depicted two stories: 1) an introductory sociology teacher who would be discussing either his/her own romantic experiences with a man/woman in relation to course content on marriage and relationships; and 2) a friend who was expressing to the respondent anxiety about taking his/her boyfriend/girlfriend home to meet his/her parents. Sexual orientation was manipulated in each vignette such that a lesbian woman, gay man, heterosexual woman, or heterosexual man would be the target. After reading either a homosexual or heterosexual version of one of the vignettes, participants completed an adjective checklist containing affective terms such as “angry,” “curious,” “frightened,” or “empathic.” Respondents also indicated the degree to which

they were feeling each emotion by rating the adjectives on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “not at all” (1) to “very much” (5).

Results indicated that higher scores on the Homophobia Scale were significantly correlated with negative affective reactions to the gay and lesbian targets in the vignettes. Similar findings were not obtained when the target in the vignette was heterosexual.

There is no additional published research examining the psychometric properties of Raja and Stoke's (1998) scale. Given its questionable conceptualization of modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women, and the limited validation work that has been conducted to date, further assessments of the Homophobia Scale are warranted.

Additional Construct Validation of the Modern Homonegativity Scale

Previous research suggests that several variables correlate positively with negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. These correlates include: endorsement of traditional family and gender role ideologies (Herek, 1984; Herek, 1988; Simon, 1995), religiosity (Herek, 1994), political conservatism (Herek, 1994), and authoritarianism (Altemeyer, 1996; Whitley, 1999). Thus, heterosexuals are more likely to be homonegative if they embrace traditional gender roles, are highly religious and/or belong to a fundamentalist religious organization, are politically conservative, and high in authoritarianism.

Interpersonal Contact. According to several researchers (Herek, 1994; Herek & Capitanio, 1996; Herek & Glunt, 1993), one of the strongest predictors of heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women is level of contact with members of the homosexual population. Research suggests that individuals who lack contact experience evidence greater homonegativity than those who do not (Herek, 1988). Further, the more acquaintances and/or close friends an individual has who are gay and/or lesbian, the more positive the individual's

attitudes (Basow & Johnson, 2000; Herek & Capitanio, 1996; Herek & Glunt, 1993). This finding is consistent with Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis. Specifically, the updated version of this hypothesis predicts that prejudice toward members of a minority group can be reduced when equal status contact between majority and minority members occurs.

To date, the relationship between interpersonal contact and modern homonegativity has not been explored. The present study will address this issue by having participants indicate whether they have same-sex and opposite-sex gay/lesbian acquaintances (2 questions) as well as same-sex and opposite-sex gay/lesbian close friends (2 questions). If the participant responds affirmatively to these questions, the participant then will be asked to identify the number of acquaintances/close friends he or she has. These questions were adapted from those used by Agnew, Thompson, Smith, Gramzow, and Currey (1993) in their investigation of proximal and distal predictors of homonegativity.

Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions. Another variable that has garnered attention vis-à-vis modern prejudice is the motivation to control prejudiced reactions. Dunton and Fazio (1997) developed the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPRS) to measure individuals' desire to control their prejudicial attitudes. The scale consists of two dimensions: 1) Concern about Appearing Prejudiced; and 2) Restraint to Avoid Dispute. The Concern Subscale examines individuals' anxiety about observing prejudice in themselves and/or seeming prejudiced in front of others. The Restraint Subscale assesses individuals' willingness to suppress prejudicial attitudes so as to avoid conflict with others.

Dunton and Fazio (1997) suggest that scores on the MCPRS should moderate the relationship between obtrusive (e.g., self-report) and unobtrusive (e.g., priming) measures of prejudice. For example, among individuals low in the motivation to control prejudiced reactions,

scores on obtrusive and unobtrusive measures should be relatively congruent. However, as the motivation to control prejudiced reactions increases, scores should become discordant. That is, individuals motivated to control their prejudiced reactions do so on obtrusive measures by monitoring their answers. Reactions to unobtrusive measures are more difficult to monitor because such measures seldom involve conscious awareness. It should be noted that the motivation to control prejudiced reactions is not analogous to social desirability bias (i.e., the extent to which individuals' endorse socially approved behaviours that have a low incidence of occurrence such as always telling the truth).⁷ Instead, Dunton and Fazio (1997) contend that this type of motivation is an individual difference variable akin to the need for social approval and religiosity.

Dunton and Fazio (1997) examined the extent to which the Concern and Restraint Subscales of the MCPRS predicted scores on McConahay's (1986) Modern Racism Scale. The authors hypothesized that, as one's motivation to control prejudiced reactions increases, scores on the Modern Racism Scale should decrease. Results indicated that scores on the Concern Subscale of the MCPRS significantly predicted scores on the Modern Racism Scale. As expected, the greater one's concern about acting prejudiced, the lower one's level of modern racism. Scores on the Restraint Subscale, however, did not emerge as a significant predictor of modern racism.

According to Dunton and Fazio (1997), the MCPRS enables researchers to examine what might possibly become an important individual difference variable when examining modern prejudice. However, at this time, it seems that one's concern about appearing prejudiced may be of greater importance than one's willingness to exercise restraint so as to avoid conflict.

Purpose

The first purpose of Study 1 is to test whether the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS; Morrison & Morrison, in press) possesses a unidimensional factor structure. The second objective is to test whether the MHS is conceptually distinct from the old-fashioned Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG; Herek, 1988). Due to the conceptualization underlying Raja and Stokes (1998) Modern Homophobia Scale (this scale is referred to as Homophobia), this measure also will be included in a separate test for conceptual distinction from the MHS. Embedded in this purpose, is whether the Homophobia subscales (i.e., institutional homophobia, personal discomfort in the presence of gay men or lesbian women, and deviance/changeability of homosexuality) overlap or remain distinct from a model containing MHS items. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) will be used for these objectives.

An additional test of the conceptual distinction of these measures will be conducted. Specifically, partial correlation coefficients will be computed and used to determine the variance shared between the MHS and the old-fashioned ATLG and “modern” Homophobia scales. Finally, the relationships between modern homonegativity and interpersonal contact, as well as the motivation to control prejudiced reactions, will be investigated. The following hypotheses were formulated for Study 1:

- H1:** Morrison and Morrison (in press) conceptualize modern homonegativity as a unidimensional construct. Thus, a one-factor model for the MHS-G (gay men version) and MHS-L (lesbian women version) will best fit the sample data.
- H2_a:** Morrison and Morrison (in press) view modern homonegativity as being conceptually distinct from old-fashioned homonegativity, as measured by the ATLG. Thus, it is hypothesized that a two factor model

will best fit the data. Specifically, the MHS will have nonzero loadings on the factor it was designed to measure, and zero loadings on the ATLG factor. In addition, it is hypothesized that the error/uniquenesses associated with each of these measures will be uncorrelated.

H2_b: As mentioned previously, the Homophobia Scale consists of three factors, whereas the MHS appears to be unidimensional. Given these scales' differential conceptualization of modern prejudice, it is hypothesized that a four-factor model will best fit the data. Specifically, the MHS will have nonzero loadings on the factor it was designed to measure, and zero loadings on the three Homophobia factors. In addition, it is hypothesized that error/uniquenesses associated with each of these measures will be uncorrelated.

H2_c: To strengthen the argument that the MHS measures a unique form of prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women, it is hypothesized that partial correlation analyses will reveal that the MHS and ATLG share considerably less variance than the ATLG and Homophobia scales. Again, given the different conceptualizations of modern prejudice evident in the MHS and Homophobia Scale, it is hypothesized that these measures will share minimal variance.

H3: Individuals' motivation to control their prejudiced reactions will correlate negatively with their level of modern homonegativity.

H4: Individuals who report having contact with gay men and lesbian women (irrespective of whether that contact is with acquaintances or close friends) will evidence lower levels of modern homonegativity than those who report having no

contact. Also, individuals who report higher numbers of gay/lesbian acquaintances and close friends will evidence lower levels of modern homonegativity.

Method

Participants

Participants were 409 introductory psychology undergraduates from the University of Ottawa, enrolled in a variety of academic disciplines (e.g., biology, commerce, computer science, fine arts, psychology, and sociology). Of the 409 completed questionnaires, 35 were omitted from the analyses due to missing data ($n=25$) or participants' self-identifying as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or as being unsure of their sexual orientation ($n=10$).⁸ After these data were removed, 374 questionnaires remained. Of the 374 participants, 188 (51 males; 137 females) completed the gay men version of the questionnaire and 186 (47 males; 139 females) completed the lesbian women version.

Participants who completed the gay male version ranged in age from 17 to 48 years ($M=20.5$, $SD=3.3$). A majority indicated they were in first year (62%, $n=114$), 26.1% ($n=48$) in second, 8.7% ($n=16$) in third, 2.7% ($n=5$) in fourth, and .01% ($n=1$) in fifth. Four participants omitted this item. The political orientations of these participants were: very conservative (2.1%, $n=4$); conservative (5.9%, $n=11$); somewhat conservative (16.6%, $n=31$); somewhat liberal (21.9%, $n=41$); liberal (33.7%, $n=63$); and very liberal (10.7%, $n=20$). Seventeen participants (9%) indicated that they did not know their political orientation, and one individual omitted the question. Participants' classification of their religious self-schema was: very religious (6.9%, $n=13$); somewhat religious (28.7%, $n=54$); slightly religious (33.5%, $n=63$); not at all religious (28.7%, $n=54$); or don't know (2.1%, $n=4$).

Participants who completed the lesbian version of the questionnaire ranged in age from 17 to 46 ($M=20.1$, $SD=3.3$). Similar to participants completing the gay version, a majority were in first year (71.6%, $n=131$), with 16.9% ($n=31$) in second, 7.1% ($n=13$) in third, 3.8% ($n=7$) in fourth, and 0.01% ($n=1$) in fifth. Three respondents omitted this item. The political orientations of participants were: very conservative (0.01%, $n=1$); conservative (6.5%, $n=12$); somewhat conservative (17.3%, $n=32$); somewhat liberal (20.5%, $n=38$); liberal (36.2%, $n=67$); and very liberal (11.4%, $n=21$). Fourteen (7.6%) respondents indicated they did not know their political orientation and one individual omitted the question. Participants' religious self-schemas were: very religious (9.2%; $n=17$); somewhat religious (36.4%, $n=67$); slightly religious (31.5%, $n=58$); or not at all religious (22.8%, $n=42$). Two participants indicated that they did not know how to classify their religious self-schema.

Measures

Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG; Herek, 1988). This scale was designed to measure negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women along a general condemnation/tolerance factor. The ATLG contains 20 items and, in the present study, uses a 5-point Likert-type response format (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Scores can range from 20 to 100, with higher scores representing greater "old-fashioned" homonegativity. The ATLG can be partitioned into two subscales in order to examine separately attitudes toward lesbian women (the 10-item ATL) and attitudes toward gay men (the 10-item ATG). When partitioned, scores on the ATL and ATG range from 10 to 50, with a mid-point of 30. All items from the ATG and ATL appear in Appendix A.

Interpersonal Contact. The contact measure contained four items: "I have an acquaintance of the *same sex* whom I know is gay/lesbian;" "I have a close friend of the *same*

sex whom I know is gay/lesbian;” “I have an acquaintance of the *opposite sex* whom I know is gay/lesbian;” and “I have a close friend of the *opposite sex* whom I know is gay/lesbian.” These items were answered using a dichotomous (yes/no) response format. Participants who answered “yes” to a given contact item were then instructed to specify the number of gay men/lesbian women they knew. Agnew et al. (1993) provide evidence attesting to the validity of these items.

Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS; Morrison & Morrison, in press). The MHS measures heterosexuals’ modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. It contains two parallel versions that enable researchers to assess separately attitudes toward gay men (MHS-G) and lesbian women (MHS-L). These parallel versions contain 12 items and, in the present study, use a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Scores on the MHS-G and MHS-L can range from 12 to 60, with higher scores denoting greater levels of modern homonegativity. Previous research attests to the scale’s reliability and validity (Morrison & Morrison, in press). All items from the MHS-G and MHS-L are listed in Appendix B.

Modern Homophobia Scale (Homophobia; Raja & Stokes, 1998). The Homophobia Scale contains three subscales measuring, respectively, heterosexuals’ personal discomfort with gay men and lesbian women, the extent to which homosexuality is perceived as being deviant and changeable, and support for institutionalized discrimination against gay men and lesbian women. This scale is comprised of two versions. In the present study, the version pertaining to gay men is entitled Homophobia-G (where all three subscales are devoted to measuring attitudes toward gay men) and the version pertaining to lesbian women is entitled Homophobia-L (where all three subscales are devoted to measuring attitudes toward lesbian women). The gay and lesbian versions contain 22 and 24 items, respectively. In the present study, each scale uses a 5-point Likert-type response format (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly

agree), with higher scores denoting greater levels of modern homophobia. Scale scores for the gay and lesbian versions can range from 22-110 and 24-120, respectively. Raja and Stokes (1998) provide evidence attesting to the scale's reliability and validity. All items from the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L are provided in Appendix C.

Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPRS; Dunton & Fazio, 1997). The MCPRS was developed to measure an individual's desire to control his or her prejudicial reactions. This 17-item scale consists of two dimensions: Concern about Appearing Prejudiced (9 items) and Restraint to Avoid Dispute (8 items). In the present study, a 5-point Likert-type scale was used (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Scores on the Concern and Restraint Subscales can range from 9 to 45 and 8 to 40, respectively, with higher scores representing greater levels of concern and restraint. Dunton and Fazio (1997) provide evidence attesting to the validity of this scale. All items from the MCPRS are provided in Appendix D.

Procedure

Ethical approval to distribute questionnaires to students in introductory psychology courses during regularly scheduled class time was granted from the University of Ottawa Ethics Review Board. Informed consent was obtained from all participants. Both the informed consent and recruitment procedure outlined clearly the voluntary nature of participating in the study, as well as participants' right to confidentiality and anonymity. The recruitment text, information sheet, informed consent sheet, and complete versions of the questionnaire are contained in Appendix E.

Participants completed either the gay men or lesbian women version of the questionnaire. All participants received approximately 25 minutes to complete the questionnaire, and no incentives such as class credit were provided.

Results

As participants completed either the gay men or lesbian women version of the questionnaire, results are reported separately for each version.

Preliminary Analyses

Several analyses were conducted to ensure that the data were operating in accordance with the basic assumptions for univariate and multivariate analyses. A random selection of bivariate scatterplots was examined to determine whether the assumption of linearity was upheld for the gay men and lesbian women versions of the questionnaire. The plots showed no evidence of nonlinearity or heteroscedasticity.

With respect to nonnormality, skewness and kurtosis values for all measures in both the gay men and lesbian women versions were inspected. For the gay men version, the values ranged from -.17 to .79 for skewness and -.33 to .26 for kurtosis. These values were found to be within the standard acceptable range (i.e., $<|2|$); thus, the data were considered to approximate a normal distribution. For the lesbian women version, the values ranged from -.46 to 1.44 for skewness and -.66 to 2.41 for kurtosis. The kurtosis value for the Deviance/Changeability Subscale of the Homophobia-L was elevated (2.41) and, therefore, an estimation procedure that accounts for deviations in normality (e.g., robust statistics) will be used (Byrne, 1995; Hu & Bentler, 1999). A discussion of this estimation procedure will be included in the Data Analysis section found below. Kurtosis and skewness values for all remaining measures were within the standard acceptable range.

Casewise residual values were inspected to detect the presence of univariate outliers, with Mahalanobis distance being used to detect the presence of multivariate outliers for both versions of the questionnaire. For the gay men version, several cases were identified as being univariate

outliers (z values > 3.29), and these were inspected for possible case deletion. Two cases consistently exceeded 3.29 and, subsequently, were deleted. With respect to multivariate outliers, six cases were identified as having exceeded acceptable Mahalanobis distance values.⁹ All six cases were eliminated on the basis of this criterion. Taken together, eight individual cases were removed from the gay men version of the questionnaire, leaving a final sample of 180 respondents.

For the lesbian women version of the questionnaire, several cases were identified as being univariate outliers, and were inspected for possible case deletion. One case consistently exceeded the cut-off of 3.29 and was deleted. Three individual cases were identified as being multivariate outliers and were removed. This data screening procedure resulted in the deletion of four cases in total, leaving a final sample of 182 respondents.

It should be noted that multicollinearity was not problematic in either the gay or lesbian version of the questionnaire. Specifically, no correlations between scale items contained in either version were in excess of .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and alpha coefficients for all measures used in the gay men and lesbian women versions of the questionnaire are reported in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 here

Table 1 indicates that, on all homonegativity measures, participants did not score above the mid-point. According to Whitley (1988), individuals hold more negative attitudes toward homosexuals of the same-sex. As a majority of participants were female, the low mean scale scores may be a consequence of women evaluating gay men. The MHS-G, overall Homophobia-

G, and ATG possessed high levels of internal consistency (alphas $\geq .89$). The three subscales of the Homophobia-G Scale also had high reliability estimates (alphas $\geq .83$). These alpha coefficients are consistent with those reported in previous research.

The overall internal consistency of the MCPRS was adequate, as was the reliability for its Concern about Acting Prejudiced Subscale. However, the alpha coefficient for the Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale was very low. It should be noted that Dunton and Fazio (1997) do not provide information about the reliability of the Concern and Restraint Subscales. Therefore, it is unclear whether the low level of internal consistency reported herein is anomalous.

Similar to the gay men version of the questionnaire, participants' mean scale scores on all measures assessing homonegativity toward lesbian women did not exceed the mid-point (see Table 2). Since a majority of participants were female, however, mean scale scores for the MHS-L and Homophobia-L were slightly higher than those reported for the MHS-G and Homophobia-G. This finding may have been a result of a majority of the sample evaluating same-sex homosexuals (i.e., heterosexual women evaluating lesbian women). Interestingly, no discernible increase for mean ATL scale scores was noted; thus, it appears that the samples were uniform in their rejection of old-fashioned homonegativity items, irrespective of whether the targets were gay men or lesbian women.

Reliability estimates for the MHS-L, overall Homophobia-L, and ATL measures were high (all alphas $\geq .90$). The Homophobia-L subscales also possessed high levels of reliability (alphas $\geq .87$). The reliability estimates obtained for the homonegativity measures are consistent with those found in previous research.

The alpha coefficient for the MCPRS was adequate. With respect to its two subscales, the reliability for Concern about Appearing Prejudiced was adequate; however, the alpha

coefficient for Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale was exceedingly low. In fact, this result suggests that the items comprising the Restraint Subscale may not be related conceptually. Due to its poor reliability and the limited evidence attesting to its validity, the Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale will be dropped from further analyses.

Data Analysis for Hypotheses 1 and 2_{abc}

Separate confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) of the MHS-G and MHS-L items were conducted to test for unidimensionality, as per Hypothesis 1. Separate CFAs also were conducted on the MHS-G and MHS-L items to test for their conceptual distinction from old-fashioned homonegativity (as measured by the ATG and ATL), and “modern” homophobia (as measured by the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L), as per Hypothesis 2. All CFA analyses were conducted using EQS/Windows software (Bentler, 2000).

The estimation procedure for all CFAs was Robust, given that the sample sizes for the MHS-G ($N=180$) and MHS-L ($N=182$) did not exceed 250 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Also, robust statistics rectify issues of nonnormality (Byrne, 1994). The matrix type used for all analyses was covariance. Further, several indices were used to determine comparative fit between the hypothesized models and the sample data. These indices were: Satorra-Bentler chi-square likelihood ratio, robust comparative fit index, root mean square error of approximation, and standardized root mean squared residual. Brief descriptions of these fit indices are provided below.

Satorra-Bentler Chi-square Likelihood Ratio (Bentler, 1990). Statisticians endorse using the Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (S-B χ^2) in favour of the regular χ^2 when data are exhibiting nonnormal distribution tendencies (Byrne, 1995) and when sample sizes are less than 250 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The S-B χ^2 provides a measure of fit between the sample covariance matrix and fitted

covariance matrix. With respect to the S-B χ^2 likelihood ratio, small S-B χ^2 values in relation to degrees of freedom are indicative of good fit, and large S-B χ^2 values in relation to degrees of freedom represent poor fit.

Robust Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990). The Robust Comparative Fit Index (signified as *CFI) is a practical measure of relative fit based on the S-B χ^2 . Specifically, the *CFI value indicates the extent to which the hypothesized model's S-B χ^2 fits the data compared to that of the null model (i.e., a model used to explain the covariation among observed measures from sampling error alone). Further, the *CFI is considered a premier indicator of fit because it takes the sample size of the hypothesized model as well as various distributions into consideration. Values for the *CFI can range from 0 to 1.00, with those approximating .9 denoting acceptable fit to the data, and those above .92 representing good fit (Byrne, 1998).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The RMSEA indicates how well the model's covariance matrix fits compared to that of the population's covariance matrix. It is a measure of absolute model fit that accounts for both the size of residuals and model complexity. According to Thompson, Coover, Richards, Johnson, and Cattarin (1995), RMSEA values less than or equal to .10 represent acceptable levels of fit, with values less than or equal to .08 and .05 denoting reasonably close fit and close fit, respectively.

Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR; Sörbom & Jöreskog, 1982). The SRMR index denotes the square root of the average squared amount by which the sample variances and covariances differ from their estimates (i.e., estimates obtained under the assumption that the hypothesized model is correct). In a fashion similar to the chi-square,

smaller values are desired. SRMR values can range from 0 to 1, where values less than or equal to .08 denote acceptable fit. Values less than or equal to .05 represent good fit.

Hypothesis 1: Are the MHS-G and MHS-L Unidimensional?

CFA results supported a unidimensional model for the MHS-G, $S-B \chi^2 (54, N=180)=97.04, p<.001, *CFI=.95, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.05$. Given the excellent fit between the hypothesized model and the data, no parameter estimates were included in this model. CFA results also supported a unidimensional model for the MHS-L, $S-B \chi^2 (53, N=182)=61.61, p<.05, *CFI=.98, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.04$. Again, given the excellent fit of the data to the hypothesized model, no parameter estimates were deemed necessary. Final models for both the MHS-G and MHS-L support a unidimensional model structure and, thus, confirm Hypothesis 1.

Tests of Conceptual Distinction (Hypotheses 2_{abc})

Two tests of conceptual distinction were employed. The first entailed conducting CFAs of the homonegativity scale items contained in the gay and lesbian versions of the questionnaire. Specifically, a CFA was conducted using the MHS-G and ATG scale items to determine whether these instruments measure separate forms of homonegativity; namely, modern and old-fashioned, respectively (Hypothesis 2_a). A CFA also was conducted on the MHS-G and Homophobia-G Scale items to determine whether these instruments measure separate forms of homonegativity; namely, modern and a composite of personal discomfort, deviance/changeability, and institutional homophobia, respectively (Hypothesis 2_b). The same CFAs were conducted for the lesbian version.

The second test involved computing partial correlations of the MHS, ATLG, and Homophobia Scale, wherein their shared variances would be controlled (Hypothesis 2_c). Specifically, in order to determine the exact nature of the relationship between the MHS-G and

ATG, the Homophobia-G Scale was treated as a covariate. This partial correlation was then compared to the one obtained between the Homophobia-G and ATG scales, with the MHS-G treated as a covariate. Also, the relationship between the MHS-G and Homophobia-G was examined, controlling for the shared variance of the ATG. These same analyses were performed on the lesbian version of the questionnaire.

In addition, as per Dunton and Fazio's (1997) recommendation that the motivation to control prejudiced reactions be considered when examining relationships among measures of prejudice, scores on the Concern Subscale of the MCPRS were treated as a covariate for all partial correlation analyses. Finally, on the basis of independent samples t-tests indicating that men scored significantly higher than did women on the homonegativity measures, gender also will be treated as a covariate. Results of the CFAs and partial correlations are presented below.

Pre-testing of CFA Models

Given that unidimensional models for the MHS-G and MHS-L were confirmed for Hypothesis 1, these models will be used in the testing of Hypothesis 2_a. However, since the unidimensionality of the ATG and ATL have yet to be confirmed using CFA, separate CFAs for these scales were conducted. The need to confirm the three-factor structure of the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L, prior to testing for conceptual distinction, also was undertaken. If the hypothesized models for the ATG/ATL and Homophobia Scale adequately fit the data, they can be used when testing for conceptual distinction.

Numerous studies (e.g., Herek, 1988; Herek, 1994), using exploratory factor analysis (EFA), attest to the unidimensionality of the ATG and ATL; thus, unidimensional models for both scales were tested using CFA. Results indicated that both the ATG and ATL fit a unidimensional structure: ATG, $S-B \chi^2 (35, N=180)=55.84, p<.001, *CFI=.95, RMSEA=.08,$

SRMR=.04; ATL, S-B χ^2 (35, $N=182$)=52.95, $p<.01$, *CFI=.95, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.05.

Since the fit of both models was exceedingly good, no parameter estimates were deemed necessary.

The three-factor structures of the gay men and lesbian women versions of the Homophobia Scale, originally reported by Raja and Stokes (1998), also were tested. In Raja and Stokes' (1998) original study, EFAs were conducted on the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L scale items. Their factor analytic output yielded three factors for each version: *personal discomfort* with gay men or lesbian women, *deviance/changeability* of homosexuality, and *institutional homophobia* against gay men or lesbian women.

Results of the current analysis indicated acceptable fit for the three-factor models: Homophobia-G, S-B χ^2 (206, $N=180$)=311.46, $p<.001$, *CFI=.92, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.06; Homophobia-L, S-B χ^2 (249, $N=182$)=356.84, $p<.001$, *CFI=.93, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.05. Since the fit of both models was satisfactory, no parameter estimates were deemed necessary.

Hypothesis 2_a: Conceptual Distinctiveness of the MHS and ATLG

A CFA of the MHS-G and ATG was conducted to determine whether each measure would have non-zero loadings on the factor it was supposed to represent, and zero loadings on the factor it was not supposed to represent. A CFA of the MHS-L and ATL was conducted for the same purpose.

Results indicated that the MHS-G and ATG fit a two-factor model: S-B χ^2 (208, $N=180$)=343.52, $p<.001$, *CFI=.91, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.06. Results of the CFA for the lesbian version yielded excellent fit for a two factor model: S-B χ^2 (208, $N=182$)=249.30, $p<.001$, *CFI=.97, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.06. In an effort to ensure parsimony, no parameter estimates were employed.

These results suggest that modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS, and old-fashioned homonegativity, as measured by the ATLG, are conceptually distinct.

Hypothesis 2_b: Conceptual Distinctiveness of the MHS and “Modern” Homophobia Scale

The Homophobia Scale (Raja & Stokes, 1998) was purportedly developed using the theoretical frameworks of modern racism and modern sexism. However, item content of the gay and lesbian versions of the scale does not appear to adequately reflect these theoretical frameworks. Thus, CFAs were conducted to determine whether the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L measure a form of homonegativity that is conceptually distinct from modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS. For the gay men version, it was hypothesized that the MHS-G would have non-zero loadings on the factor it was supposed to measure and zero loadings on the three factors representing Homophobia-G. The Homophobia-G, in turn, would have non-zero loadings on the three factors reflecting its scale items and zero loadings on the factor representing MHS-G items. The same relationships were hypothesized for the lesbian women version; namely, the MHS-L would have non-zero loadings on the factor it was supposed to represent and zero loadings on the three factors denoting Homophobia-L. In turn, Homophobia-L would have non-zero loadings on its three factors and zero loadings on the MHS-L factor. Therefore, each CFA tested a four-factor structure.

Results for the MHS-G and Homophobia-G indicated model fit that was acceptable: S-B χ^2 (521, N=180)=757.98, $p<.001$, *CFI=.90, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.07, however, the CFI only approached a level of acceptable fit when rounded upwards. Thus, the Lagrange-Multiplier Test was examined for possible improvements to the model. According to Byrne (1994), when estimating parameters, it is imperative that the estimations make sense from a theoretical vantage. When determining the feasibility of parameter changes, it was evident that four

correlated error covariances between items within each scale were theoretically sound. Thus, their estimation was included in a subsequent test of the model. Specifically, on the MHS-G, the error covariance between items 10 (“Gay men should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society, and simply get on with their lives”) and 8 (“If gay men want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture”) was estimated. The remaining three error covariances pertained to the Homophobia-G scale. Specifically, error covariance between items 14 (“I would not mind working with a gay man”) and 13 (“I wouldn’t mind going to a party that included gay men”), items 16 (“I would be sure to invite the same-sex partner of my gay male friend to my party”) and 15 (“I welcome new friends who are gay”), and items 20 (“I would remove my child from class if I found out the teacher was gay”) and 17 (“I won’t associate with a gay man for fear of catching AIDS”) were estimated. Inspection of the items contributing to the estimated error covariances reveals that each set of items seems to reflect similar beliefs about gay men. Consequently, from a theoretical perspective, it appears reasonable to allow these error covariances to correlate. The revised model, allowing for correlated error covariances, improved overall model fit: S-B χ^2 (514, $N=180$)=657.25, $p<.001$, *CFI=.94, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.06.

Results for the MHS-L and Homophobia-L indicated a similar degree of acceptability with respect to the initial four-factor model tested: S-B χ^2 (588, $N=182$)=829.67, $p<.001$, *CFI=.91, RMSEA=.06, SRMR=.06. However, as the CFI was rounded upwards, the Lagrange Multiplier Test was examined for possible improvements to the model. Specifically, two parameters were estimated on theoretical grounds. The first indicated that the Homophobia-L item 23 (“I am tired of hearing about lesbians’ problems”) should cross-load on the factor containing MHS-L items. The second indicated that, on the MHS-L, error covariance between

items 10 (“Lesbians should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society, and simply get on with their lives”) and 8 (“If lesbians want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture”) should be allowed to correlate. The revised model improved overall fit: S-B χ^2 (586, $N=182$)=776.65, $p<.001$, *CFI=.93, RMSEA=.06, SRMR=.06.

Overall, the findings suggest that the MHS, a measure carefully constructed using the theoretical frameworks of modern racism and sexism, is distinct from the Homophobia Scale. With the exception of one cross-loading item (e.g., “I am tired of hearing about lesbians’ problems”), all Homophobia Scale items loaded on factors separate from the factor containing MHS items. The finding that all three Homophobia subscales are distinct from the MHS raises the issue of whether the Homophobia Scale items represent accurately the theoretical underpinnings of modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women.

Hypothesis 2c: Partial Correlations Among Measures of Homonegativity

To determine the degree of shared variance among the MHS-G, ATG, and Homophobia-G Scale, partial correlations were conducted. A strong bivariate correlation was obtained between the MHS-G and ATG ($r=.72$, $p<.01$). However, after controlling for the influence of the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale (of the MCPRS) and Homophobia-G Scale, the partial correlation between the MHS-G and ATG was no longer significant ($r=.13$, $p=ns$). A strong bivariate correlation also was observed between Homophobia-G and ATG ($r=.90$, $p<.01$). After removing the influence of the Concern Subscale and MHS-G, the partial correlation between Homophobia-G and ATG remained highly significant ($r=.77$, $p<.001$). These findings suggest that the degree of conceptual similarity between the Homophobia-G and ATG scales is considerably greater (approximately 59% shared variance) than the similarity between the MHS-

G and ATG (approximately 1.7% shared variance). The partial correlation between the MHS-G and Homophobia-G (controlling for the Concern Subscale and ATG) was $r=.38$, $p<.001$. Thus, these two “modern” scales share a relatively small amount of variance (approximately 14%).

In addition, partial correlation analyses were conducted to explore the relationships between the homonegativity scales, controlling for the influence of gender and concern about appearing prejudiced on their shared variance. Results of the correlation analyses yielded a weak, nonsignificant relationship between the MHS-G and ATG ($r=.14$, $p=.07$; 2.0% shared variance). However, the Homophobia-G and ATG relationship remained strong when gender and the concern subscale were treated as covariates ($r=.78$, $p=.000$; 60.8% shared variance). Similar to the previous partial correlation analyses, the relationship between the MHS-G and Homophobia-G remained relatively weak ($r=.35$, $p=.000$; 12.2% shared variance).

Similar results were obtained for the MHS-L, ATL, and Homophobia-L. The MHS-L and ATL correlated significantly ($r=.63$, $p<.01$); however, the partial correlation between these scales (controlling for the influence of the Concern Subscale and Homophobia-L) was nonsignificant ($r=.01$, $p=ns$). The bivariate correlation between Homophobia-L and ATL was very strong ($r=.87$, $p<.01$). Further, the partial correlation remained substantial ($r=.78$, $p<.001$), even after controlling for the influence of the Concern Subscale and MHS-L. Once again, these findings suggest that the MHS-L and ATL are more conceptually distinct (approximately 1% shared variance) than the Homophobia-L and ATL (approximately 61% shared variance). The partial correlation between the MHS-L and Homophobia-L (controlling for the Concern Subscale and ATL) was $r=.46$, $p<.01$ (approximately 21% shared variance).

Further, partial correlation analyses, wherein gender and the Control Subscale were treated as covariates, were conducted to explore the relationships between the lesbian

homonegativity scales. Results of the analyses indicated a weak, nonsignificant relationship between the MHS-L and ATL ($r = .02$, $p = .81$; 0% shared variance). However, the extent to which the Homophobia-L and ATL were related remained strong even when gender and the concern subscale were controlled ($r = .77$, $p = .000$; 59.3% shared variance). Similar to the previous partial correlations for the gay men versions, the relationship between the MHS-L and Homophobia-L remained relatively weak ($r = .44$, $p = .000$; 19.4% shared variance) after gender and concern about appearing prejudiced were controlled.

Altogether, results indicate that both the MHS-G and MHS-L are distinct from the old-fashioned ATG and ATL in their measurement of prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. As is evidenced by the partial correlations, there is minimal overlap between these two measures. The Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L, however, appear to share a large amount of variance with the ATG and ATL. Thus, the distinctiveness of the gay and lesbian versions of the “modern” Homophobia Scale from the old-fashioned ATG and ATL may be questioned.

Hypothesis 3: Does Participants’ Level of Modern Homonegativity Correlate Negatively with their Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions?

As evidenced in Tables 3 and 4, scores on both versions of the MHS correlated negatively with scores on the Concern Subscale of the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPRS). Thus, as individuals’ concern about appearing prejudiced increases, their scores on the MHS decrease. For completeness, intercorrelations among all measures used in the gay and lesbian versions of the questionnaire also appear in Tables 3 and 4, respectively.

Insert Tables 3 and 4 here

Hypothesis 4: Do Modern Homonegativity Scores Vary as a Function of Interpersonal Contact with Gay Men and Lesbian Women?

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to determine whether participants' MHS scores differed as a function of interpersonal contact with gay men and/or lesbian women. Separate ANOVAs for acquaintanceships with gay men and/or lesbian women, and close friendships with gay men and/or lesbian women were conducted. Prior to conducting the one-way ANOVAs, male and female participants were divided into four categories: 1) participants who knew neither gay men nor lesbian women; 2) participants who knew gay men only (but not lesbian women); 3) participants who knew lesbian women only (but not gay men); and 4) participants who knew both gay men and lesbian women.

For the gay men version of the questionnaire, the one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for acquaintanceship, $F(3,173) = 7.15, p < .001$. Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test demonstrated that participants who did not have gay or lesbian acquaintances evidenced significantly higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=35.6$) than participants who reported: a) knowing lesbian women as acquaintances but not gay men ($M=27.4, p < .05$); and b) knowing both gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances ($M=29.5, p < .05$). No other comparisons were significant. These findings suggest that individuals who are likely to know lesbian women only, and those who know gay men in conjunction with lesbian women, possess significantly less modern homonegativity than do individuals reporting no contact experience.

A significant main effect also was observed for close friendship, $F(3,170) = 4.83, p < .05$. Tukey's HSD revealed that participants who did not have gay or lesbian acquaintances evidenced significantly higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=32.4$) than participants who reported having close friendships with gay men and lesbian women ($M=25.8, p < .05$). No other

comparisons were significant. This finding suggests that individuals who do not have close friendships with gay men or lesbian women evidence more modern homonegativity than individuals reporting close friendships with both same- and opposite-sex homosexuals.

For the lesbian women version of the questionnaire, the one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for interpersonal contact at the level of acquaintanceships, $F(3,175) = 4.17, p < .01$. Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD demonstrated that participants who did not have gay or lesbian acquaintances evidenced significantly higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=35.5$) than participants who reported knowing both gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances ($M=30.9, p < .05$). A similar main effect was found for close friendships, $F(3,177) = 5.37, p < .001$. Post-hoc analyses demonstrated that participants who did not have gay men or lesbian women as close friends evidenced significantly higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=34.4$) than participants who reported having both gay men and lesbian women as close friends ($M=25.5, p < .05$). These findings indicate that, similar to the gay male version of the questionnaire, individuals who report having both gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances/close friends evidence lower scores on the MHS than do individuals who report having no interpersonal contact experiences.

Finally, in order to determine whether individuals' scores on the MHS decrease as their number of gay and/or lesbian acquaintances/close friends increase, correlations were conducted. For the gay version, MHS-G scores correlated negatively with number of same- and opposite-sex homosexual acquaintances ($r_s = -.19$ and $-.24$, respectively, $p_s < .05$). Thus, individuals who have more gay/lesbian acquaintanceships evidence lower levels of modern homonegativity. A significant negative correlation also was found between MHS-G scores and number of opposite-sex close friends who are homosexual ($r = -.21, p < .01$). The correlation between MHS-G scores

and number of same-sex close friends, however, was not significant. It should be noted that very few participants reported having homosexual friends of the same sex. Thus, the nonsignificance of this correlation may be attributed to restriction of range.

For the lesbian version of the questionnaire, significant negative correlations were obtained between scores on the MHS-L and number of opposite-sex homosexual acquaintances ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$). The correlation between scores on the MHS-L and same-sex homosexual acquaintances approached significance ($r = -.17$, $p = .07$). A significant negative correlation was demonstrated between MHS-L scores and close, same-sex homosexual friends ($r = -.30$, $p < .05$); however, the correlation between scores on the MHS-L and close, opposite-sex, homosexual friends was not significant. These findings suggest that, if heterosexual women have lesbian women as close friends, and heterosexual men have gay men as close friends, their levels of modern homonegativity decrease. If, however, heterosexual women have only gay men as close friends, and heterosexual men have only lesbian women as close friends, their levels of modern homonegativity do not decrease.

Overall, the analyses for Hypothesis 4 provide preliminary evidence that individuals' MHS scores vary as a function of interpersonal contact with gay men and lesbian women. Specifically, it appears that individuals who have contact with gay men *and* lesbian women rather than one or the other evidence lower MHS scores. As well, the findings suggest that individuals' MHS scores decrease when greater numbers of same-sex and opposite-sex acquaintances are reported. Further, having close, *opposite-sex* homosexual friendships, in the absence of close, *same-sex* homosexual friendships, does not diminish heterosexual individuals' levels of modern homonegativity.

Discussion

In a broad sense, the purpose of the present study was to examine the construct validity of the MHS. With the intent of extending previous research, analyses were undertaken to confirm the unidimensionality of the two parallel versions of the scale (MHS-G and MHS-L) and to explore the conceptual distinctiveness of these measures from the old-fashioned ATG and ATL, and the relatively new “modern” Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L. Partial correlations (controlling for gender and concern about appearing prejudiced) also were performed to determine the exact nature of the relationships between these homonegativity measures. Additional analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between the MHS and individual difference variables; namely, interpersonal contact and the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale (as measured by the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale).

All hypotheses were confirmed. First, unidimensional models of both the MHS-G and MHS-L scale items provided excellent fit to the data. On the basis of these findings, it can now be said with a high degree of certainty that the MHS is best represented by a unifactorial model. In addition, the proposed conceptual distinction between modern homonegativity and old-fashioned homonegativity, as well as “modern” homophobia was confirmed. The excellent fit of the separate two-factor CFA models, one using MHS-G and ATG scale items and one using MHS-L and ATL scale items, reveals that the MHS and ATLG measure two, distinct forms of homonegativity. This distinction is a vital strand of evidence in support of the MHS’ construct validity and bolsters the argument that a new form of homonegativity exists. Further, the partial correlation analyses conducted in this study reinforce the findings obtained using CFA. The partial correlations between the MHS and ATLG suggest that these scales share minimal variance. Assuming these instruments measure modern and old-fashioned prejudice,

respectively, these findings suggest that there is little overlap between the two forms of homonegativity.

As well, it was found that the Homophobia Scale which was designed to measure modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women, in fact, measures a construct distinct from modern homonegativity, as assessed by the MHS. Specifically, CFA revealed that the Homophobia Scale items loaded on factors separate from MHS items. Moreover, partial correlations indicated that the Homophobia Scale shares less variance with the MHS than it does with the ATLG, a measure of old-fashioned homonegativity. In sum, these results suggest that Raja and Stokes' (1998) Modern Homophobia Scale possesses few items that could be considered representative of "modern" prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women.

The relationships that exist between the MHS and interpersonal contact, and the Concern Subscale of the MCPRS also were investigated. Specifically, the present study sought to determine whether interpersonal contact provides a buffer against modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. The most consistent finding vis-à-vis the one-way ANOVAs was that heterosexual individuals who reported having gay men *and* lesbian women either as acquaintances or close friends evidenced lower levels of modern homonegativity than did participants who reported having neither forms of contact experience. Also, overall, it appears that the greater number of contact experiences with gay men and lesbian women individuals report, the lower the modern homonegativity scale scores. However, a rather surprising finding, vis-à-vis the correlation analyses, was that heterosexual men and women who had close friendships with opposite-sex homosexuals only did not possess lower levels of modern homonegativity. That is, heterosexual women who reported having gay men as close friends (and not lesbian women), and heterosexual men who reported having lesbian women as close

friends (and not gay men) did not evidence a significant decrement in modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. Put another way, having a gay man as a close friend did not serve to reduce a heterosexual woman's negative evaluation of lesbian women.

On the whole, it appears that interpersonal contact experiences with gay men and lesbian women may be related to lower modern homonegativity scale scores. However, the findings in the present study suggest that not all interpersonal contact is created equal. Only specific categorizations of participants' contact experiences appeared to minimize their levels of modern homonegativity; namely, having interpersonal relationships with *both* gay men and lesbian women.

Finally, Dunton and Fazio (1997) recommend including the MCPRS when investigating modern forms of prejudice. This recommendation was adhered to in the present study and, as hypothesized, participants who were most "concerned" about appearing prejudiced evidenced lower scores on the MHS than did those who reported minimal concern.

It should be noted that the correlation between these variables was not exceptionally strong (e.g., $r_s = -.18$, $p < .05$ and $-.26$, $p < .01$, for the gay men and lesbian versions, respectively). What may account for this finding is a phenomenon previously encountered by McConahay et al. (1981). In their study, participants were asked to complete a measure containing modern and old-fashioned racism items. Results indicate that participants perceived old-fashioned items as being reflective of racism; yet, significantly less consensus was obtained as to whether modern items implicated racism or not. This finding suggests that, if individuals do not view modern racism items as being inherently racist, then individuals' concern about concealing their prejudice may diminish. Although no formal test of this hypothesis was undertaken in the present study, it may be possible that the MHS is operating at a level that does not necessarily

trigger participants' concern about appearing prejudiced, particularly when old-fashioned items serve as a basis for contrast. Thus, the nature of the relationship between old-fashioned homonegativity and the Concern Subscale should be mentioned. In terms of the fairly low correlations yielded for the old-fashioned homonegativity and the Concern Subscale ($r_s = -.19$ and $-.17$, $p < .05$, for the ATG and ATL, respectively), it is possible that restriction of range may have undermined the relationship between these variables. Specifically, low levels of ATG/ATL scale item endorsement might have contributed to the modest correlations.

Overall, although confirmation of the hypothesized relationship between MHS scores and the Concern Subscale was obtained, the MCPRS as a whole is not without its flaws. In short, additional research should be undertaken to validate the Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale. For example, the lack of internal consistency among the items comprising the Restraint dimension precluded its use in the present study. It seems that, at this time, the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale appears most promising; however, ongoing research into the psychometric properties of both subscales should be conducted.

Study 2

Study 1 provides strong evidence that a new form of prejudice against gay men and lesbian women, entitled modern homonegativity, exists. However, it should be noted that extant research on this construct has been conducted within Canada. Study 2 seeks to extend the research outlined in Study 1 by assessing *cross-culturally* the construct validity of modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS. Using a sample of American participants, the current study will examine the following questions: 1) is the MHS unidimensional?; 2) is the MHS conceptually distinct from old-fashioned homonegativity as well as a relatively new construct entitled Modern Homophobia?; 3) what relationships exist between the MHS and other forms of

modern prejudice (e.g., neosexism) and individual difference variables such as interpersonal contact?; and 4) does the MHS possess metric invariance when compared cross-culturally? Prior to embarking on these research questions, the significance of comparing Canadian and American participants' attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women will be highlighted briefly.

Cross-Cultural Significance

Research examining cross-cultural differences in attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women is scant (Lippincott, Wlazelek, & Schumacher, 2000). In a presidential address to the Society for Cross-Cultural Research, Bolton (1994) stated "not much significant work has been done by cross-culturalists on the specific topic of ...sexual intolerance" (p. 180).

At the present time, the author is unaware of any studies that have made direct comparisons between Canadians and Americans' attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Study 2 will attempt to address this omission. In addition, this study will explore the psychometric properties of the MHS outside of a Canadian context. Although Study 1, as well as previous research conducted by Morrison and Morrison (in press), suggest that the MHS is reliable and valid, it would be imprudent to assume that these properties remain absolute when tested cross-culturally.

Given the interrelatedness of Canada and the United States, one might question whether making comparisons between these nations constitutes authentic cross-cultural research. To address this issue, some of the sociopolitical differences that exist between these cultures vis-à-vis attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women will be articulated.

Elements of Distinction Between Canada and the United States

Research indicates that Canadians' and Americans' attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women are undergoing a shift toward greater liberalization. However, despite this trend,

qualitative differences exist between the two countries; differences that are evident on a societal level in general, and in the governmental and legal systems in particular. Adam (1999) states “much of the difference has come about since the mid 1970s, as Canada has effected incremental change toward affirming equal rights [for gay men and lesbian women], while a series of obstacles has checkmated change in the United States” (p.16).

Differences at the Societal Level. Adam (1999) suggests that five factors may account for the differences that have emerged between Canada and the United States in terms of granting full citizenship to non-heterosexuals. First, relatively fewer Canadians (6%) identify themselves as evangelical Protestants than do Americans (22%). Adam (1995) maintains that evangelicals appear to be one of the most indefatigable opponents of equality for homosexual men and women in American political coalitions. While these factions have stalled progress toward according gay men and lesbian women equal rights in American society, their counterparts in Canada (e.g., Renaissance International and REAL Women) have met with limited “success.” A second point of departure between the two countries is found when examining the proportion of individuals who are members of unions. For example, in Canada, 29.7% of workers are unionised; however, only 15.5% are unionised in the United States (Statistics Canada, 1993; United States Bureau of the Census, 1995). According to Adam (1999), unions have been integral sites for human rights initiatives such as protection for individuals on the basis of sexual orientation. Third, Canada has a history of social democratic tradition in the form of the New Democratic Party. The existence of this party and its success at the provincial level underscores acceptance of humanistic principals. A fourth distinction between Canada and the United States is that the former lacks the militaristic traditions of the latter. Adam (1999) states these traditions serve to “bind the national identity with homophobic panic” (p. 17). Finally, and most

importantly, Canada differs from the United States in that it does not have a history of traditional white, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant cultural hegemony; a history that has prevailed in the United States since the 1920s. The lack of Protestant overtones in Canada has been due, in part, to the continued existence of both English and French cultures. Specifically, the “deadlock” between the English and French has prevented development of a singular national identity, one that results typically when one faction gains ascendance over another (Adam, 1999). Consequently, Canada is officially considered to be multicultural (i.e., a state or country that claims to represent difference rather than insist on national conformity; Adam, 1999). The United States, however, does not perceive itself as multicultural but rather as a melting pot. It is relatively safe to venture that the aforementioned social (and cultural) differences between Canada and the United States have, either directly or indirectly, influenced the governmental and legal stances taken toward gay men and lesbian women. Some of these differences will be discussed briefly.

Differences at the Legal and Governmental Levels. Canada has made considerably greater provisions for gay men and lesbian women than has the United States. For example, in 1992, the ban prohibiting gay men and lesbian women from serving in the military was lifted (EGALE, 2002). In contrast, the United States’ government has not amended its policy that prevents gay men and lesbian women from serving openly in the military and, subsequently, laws promoting the protection of gay men and lesbian women have not been implemented (Belkin, 2000).

In 1996, sexual orientation was officially added to the Canadian Human Rights Code to protect against discrimination based on sexual orientation in a variety of spheres such as employment and housing (EGALE, 2002). Today, all Canadian jurisdictions, with the exception of the North West Territories and present day Nunavut, have prohibited discrimination on the

basis of sexual orientation (EGALE, 2002). In contrast, only 11 states and the District of Columbia have adopted legislation prohibiting discrimination based on sexual orientation in private employment (e.g., contract work); only 18 states and the District of Columbia have done so with respect to discrimination in public employment (i.e., governmental work); and only nine states and the District of Columbia protect against discrimination in public accommodations such as individually owned businesses and stores (Cahill, 2000).

Finally, in 1995, the Canadian federal government amended the Criminal Code to provide increased penalties for crimes motivated by hatred on certain grounds, including sexual orientation. As a result, perpetrators of hate crimes such as lesbian and gay “bashings” now receive harsher penalties when convicted. In the United States, however, only 23 American states (fewer than 50%) have established hate crime laws that include sexual orientation. Although the federal Hate Crimes Statistics Act requires the United States Justice Department to collect and report on information about hate violence related to sexual orientation, recording and reporting of information by all local police agencies is not required. According to Cahill (2000), information pertaining to hate violence motivated by sexual orientation and gender identity on a national scale is relatively scarce.

This review indicates that there are structural, governmental, and legal differences between Canada and the United States with respect to their treatment of gay men and lesbian women. These differences, in turn, may have implications for individuals’ modern homonegative attitudes, as measured by the MHS. Thus, an investigation of the psychometric properties of the MHS using a sample of American participants is warranted. As well, a test of invariance of the MHS using Canadian and American samples will serve to elucidate similarities and differences between the two countries with respect to their interpretation of the MHS.

It should be noted that tests of invariance enable researchers to establish whether components of the measurement model, or the structural model, or both, are invariant (i.e., equivalent) across particular groups (Byrne, 1995). One specific aspect of measurement models that can undergo testing for invariance is factor loadings of scale items. This aspect will be investigated in the present study. Prior to testing for invariance, however, baseline models of the scale in question are required. Since unidimensional, baseline models of the MHS-G and MHS-L were obtained in Study 1 (Canadian sample), unidimensional, baseline models of the MHS-G and MHS-L will be tested in Study 2. Once baseline models for the MHS-G and MHS-L are established, these in conjunction with the models from Study 1, will be used to test for factor loading invariance.

Study 2 also will determine the conceptual distinctiveness of the MHS. Specifically, as done in Study 1, the factorial relationship between this scale and an old-fashioned measure of homonegativity (ATLG) as well as a recently developed measure of Modern Homophobia (Homophobia Scale) will be investigated. Finally, additional variables that are associated with modern homonegativity in Canadian samples will be tested with American participants. These variables are: political conservatism, religious self-schema, old-fashioned and neosexist attitudes, interpersonal contact, and concern about appearing prejudiced. The following hypotheses were formulated for Study 2:

- H1:** Morrison and Morrison (in press) conceptualize modern homonegativity as a unidimensional construct. Thus, one-factor models for the MHS-G (gay men version) and MHS-L (lesbian women version) will best fit the sample data.
- H2_a:** Morrison and Morrison (in press) view modern homonegativity as being conceptually distinct from old-fashioned homonegativity, as

measured by the ATLG. Thus, it is hypothesized that a two factor model will best fit the data. Specifically, the MHS will have nonzero loadings on the factor it was designed to measure, and zero loadings on the ATLG factor. In addition, the error/uniquenesses associated with each of these measures will be uncorrelated.

- H2_b:** As evidenced in Study 1, the Homophobia Scale consists of three factors, whereas the MHS appears to be unidimensional. Given these scales' differential conceptualization of modern prejudice, it is hypothesized that a four-factor model will best fit the data. Specifically, the MHS will have nonzero loadings on the factor it was designed to measure, and zero loadings on the three Homophobia factors. In addition, it is hypothesized that the error/uniquenesses associated with each of these measures will be uncorrelated.
- H2_c:** To strengthen the argument that the MHS measures a unique form of prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women, it is hypothesized that partial correlation analyses will reveal that the MHS and ATLG share considerably less variance than the ATLG and Homophobia scales. Again, given the different conceptualization of modern prejudice evident in the MHS and Homophobia Scales, it is hypothesized that these measures will share minimal variance.
- H3:** Determining the equivalence in factor loadings constitutes one test of invariance. Thus, it is hypothesized that the factor loadings of items on the MHS will be invariant across Canadian and American measurement models.
- H4:** Previous research (Morrison and Morrison, in press), using Canadian

participants, found that political conservatism and religious self-schema correlated positively with modern homonegativity (i.e., as conservatism and religious self-schema increased, so did modern prejudice against gay men and lesbian women). Similar relationships are anticipated with American participants. Specifically, it is hypothesized that political conservatism and religious self-schema will correlate positively with modern homonegativity as measured by the MHS.

- H5:** Previous research (Morrison & Morrison, in press), using Canadian participants, found that neosexism correlated positively with modern homonegativity (i.e., as neosexism increased, so did modern prejudice against gay men and lesbian women). A similar relationship is anticipated with American participants. Specifically, it is hypothesized that neosexism will correlate positively with modern homonegativity as measured by the MHS.
- H6:** Using Canadian participants in Study 1, results indicated that concern about appearing prejudiced correlated negatively with modern homonegativity (i.e., as concern about appearing prejudiced increased, so did modern prejudice against gay men and lesbian women). A similar relationship is anticipated with American participants. That is, it is hypothesized that individuals' concern about appearing prejudiced will correlate negatively with modern homonegativity as measured by the MHS.
- H7:** Individuals who report having contact with gay men and lesbian women (irrespective of whether that contact is with acquaintances or close friends) will evidence lower levels of modern homonegativity than those who report having no

contact. Also, individuals who report higher numbers of gay/lesbian acquaintances and/or close friends will evidence lower levels of modern homonegativity.

Method

Participants

Participants were 624 introductory psychology undergraduates from Purdue University, located in West Lafayette, Indiana. Although enrolled in a variety of academic disciplines (e.g., biology, commerce, computer science, fine arts, psychology, and sociology), a majority of participants were engineering students. Of the 624 completed questionnaires, 16 were omitted from the analyses due to participants' self-identifying as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or as being unsure of their sexual orientation. After these data were removed, 608 questionnaires remained. Of the 608 participants, 297 (187 males; 110 females) completed the gay men version of the questionnaire and 311 (197 males; 114 females) completed the lesbian women version.

Participants who completed the gay male version ranged in age from 17 to 45 years ($M=19.7$, $SD=2.21$). Most students indicated that they were in first year (46.3%, $n=137$), with 28% ($n=83$) in second, 16.6% ($n=49$) in third, 7% ($n=21$) in fourth, 1.7% ($n=5$) in fifth, and .3% ($n=1$) in eighth. One participant omitted this item. The political orientations of these participants were: very conservative (1.7%, $n=5$); conservative (13.5%, $n=40$); somewhat conservative (27.3%, $n=81$); somewhat liberal (23.2%, $n=69$); liberal (21.5%, $n=64$); and very liberal (7.7%, $n=23$). Fifteen participants (5.1%) indicated that they did not know their political orientation; however, no participants omitted this item. Participants' classification of their religious self-schema was: very religious (11.1%, $n=33$); somewhat religious (47.8%, $n=142$); slightly religious (27.3%, $n=81$); not at all religious (12.8%, $n=38$); or don't know (1%, $n=3$).

Participants who completed the lesbian version of the questionnaire ranged in age from 17 to 46 ($M=19.6$, $SD=2.2$). Unlike participants completing the gay version, a majority were in first year (53.7%, $n=166$), with 26.9% ($n=83$) in second, 14.6% ($n=45$) in third, 3.9% ($n=12$) in fourth, and 0.01% ($n=3$) in fifth. Two respondents omitted this item. The political orientations of participants were: very conservative (1.6%, $n=5$); conservative (15.8%, $n=49$); somewhat conservative (24.4%, $n=76$); somewhat liberal (22.8%, $n=71$); liberal (20.3%, $n=63$); and very liberal (9%, $n=28$). Nineteen (6.1%) respondents indicated they did not know their political orientation; however, no participants omitted this item. Participants' religious self-schemas were: very religious (13.2%, $n=41$); somewhat religious (42.4%, $n=132$); slightly religious (28.6%, $n=89$); and not at all religious (15.4%, $n=48$). One participant indicated that he or she did not know how to classify his or her religious self-schema.

Measures

The questionnaire that was distributed in Study 1 was modified slightly to ensure applicability to participants in the United States. For example, the item "Discrimination against women in the labour force is no longer a problem in Canada" was changed to "Discrimination against women in the labour force is no longer a problem in the United States."

Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG; Herek, 1988). A description of this scale is provided in Study 1, and all items for the MHS-G and MHS-L are provided in Appendix A.

Attitudes Toward Women Scale (ATWS). The ATWS (short form; Spence et al., 1973) measures traditional, or old-fashioned, sexist attitudes toward women's roles and rights. It contains 15 items and, in the present study, uses a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Scores can range from 15 to 75, with higher scores reflecting greater levels of

sexism. Research suggests that the ATWS possesses adequate psychometric properties (Spence & Hahn, 1997; Swim & Cohen, 1997). All ATWS scale items are provided in Appendix F.

Interpersonal Contact (adapted from Agnew et al., 1993). A description of these items is provided in Study 1.

Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS; Morrison & Morrison, in press). A description of this scale is provided in Study 1, and all MHS-G and MHS-L items are provided in Appendix B.

Modern Homophobia Scale (Homophobia; Raja & Stokes, 1998). A description of this scale is provided in Study 1, and all items are listed in Appendix C.

Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (Dunton & Fazio, 1997). A description of this scale is provided in Study 1, and all items are provided in Appendix D. Due to the poor level of reliability obtained previously for the Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale, only the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale will be used in the present study.

Neosexism Scale (NS). The NS (Tougas et al., 1995) measures modern sexist attitudes toward women. It contains 11 items, and uses a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Scores can range from 11 to 55, with higher scores denoting greater levels of modern sexism. Research indicates that the NS is reliable and valid (Campbell et al., 1997). All NS items are listed in Appendix G.

Political Conservatism. Participants were asked to indicate their political orientation using the following options: very conservative, conservative, somewhat conservative, somewhat liberal, liberal, very liberal, or don't know. Scores can range from 1 to 7, with higher scores reflecting greater conservatism. Single item measures of political conservatism have been found to be reliable and valid (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorielli, 1983; Wagstaff & Quirk, 1983).

Religious Self-schema. This variable was measured with a single item in which participants indicated whether they considered themselves to be: very religious, somewhat religious, slightly religious, not at all religious, or don't know. Scores can range from 1 to 5, with higher scores denoting greater levels of religiosity. Research suggests that single item measures of religious self-schema are reliable and valid (Gorsuch & McFarland, 1972).

Procedure

Ethical approval to distribute the questionnaires to students was obtained from Purdue University's Ethics Review Board. Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to completion of the questionnaire. The informed consent sheet outlined clearly the voluntary nature of participating in the study, as well as participants' right to confidentiality and anonymity. It should be noted that formatting changes were made to the informed consent sheet in accordance with Purdue University's Ethics Review Board. Also, additional documents such as sign-up sheets for students were devised.

Unlike Study 1, participants were part of a subject pool. As a result, students indicated their interest in participating by signing up for the study on the subject pool bulletin board. Students were then informed about the location of testing and time of arrival, with a maximum of 20 students scheduled to participate in any given session. Students completed either the gay men or lesbian women version of the questionnaire, and were instructed that they had approximately one hour to complete the questionnaire. As participants were part of the introductory psychology subject pool, each respondent received course credit for his or her participation in the study.

Results

Since participants completed either the gay men or lesbian women version of the questionnaire, results are reported separately for each version.

Preliminary Analyses

Similar to Study 1, several tests were conducted to identify violations in underlying assumptions for univariate and multivariate analyses. First, a random selection of bivariate scatterplots was examined to determine whether the assumption of linearity was upheld for the gay men and lesbian women versions of the questionnaire. The plots indicated neither the presence of nonlinearity nor heteroscedasticity. With respect to nonnormality, skewness and kurtosis values for all measures in both the gay men and lesbian women versions were inspected.

For the gay men version, the values ranged from -.47 to .49 for skewness and -.73 to 1.89 for kurtosis. These values were found to be within the standard acceptable range (i.e., $<|2|$); thus, the data were considered to approximate a normal distribution. For the lesbian women version, the values ranged from -.33 to .60 for skewness and -.35 to .55 for kurtosis. All skewness and kurtosis values suggested no departures from a normal distribution.

Casewise residual values were inspected to detect the presence of univariate outliers, with Mahalanobis distance being used to detect the presence of multivariate outliers. For the gay men version, a few cases were identified as being univariate outliers (z values > 3.29), and these were inspected for possible case deletion. No cases were deemed truly aberrant. With respect to multivariate outliers, five cases were identified as having exceeded acceptable Mahalanobis distance values. All five cases were eliminated on the basis of this criterion, leaving a final sample of 292 respondents.

For the lesbian women version of the questionnaire, several cases were identified as being univariate outliers, and were inspected for possible case deletion. No cases were deemed truly aberrant. Five individual cases were identified as being multivariate outliers and were removed. This data screening procedure left a final sample of 306 respondents.

It should be noted that multicollinearity was not problematic for either version of the questionnaire. Specifically, no correlations between scale items exceeded .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and alpha coefficients for all measures used in the gay men and lesbian women versions of the questionnaire are reported in Tables 5 and 6, respectively.

Insert Tables 5 and 6 here

In comparison to other homonegativity measures, only the MHS-G mean score was above the scale mid-point (see Table 5). With respect to the sexism measures, mean scores were below the scale mid-point for both old-fashioned (ATWS) and neosexism (NS). However, mean scores surpassed the mid-point for the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale of the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale. The internal consistency was high for the MHS-G, overall Homophobia-G, and ATG (alphas $\geq .92$). The Homophobia-G subscales also possessed high degrees of reliability (alphas $\geq .86$). Adequate alpha coefficients, ranging from .77 to .78, were obtained for both measures of sexism and the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale.

As indicated in Table 6, only the MHS-L mean scale score was above its respective scale mid-point compared to all other homonegativity measures. With respect to the sexism measures, mean scale scores were below the mid-point for both old-fashioned (ATWS) and neosexism (NS), as were the scores for the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale. Alpha coefficients for all homonegativity measures were high (alphas $\geq .89$), as were the reliability estimates for the Homophobia-L Subscales (alphas $\geq .84$). The sexism measures and Concern

about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale possessed adequate levels of reliability (i.e., alphas coefficients ranged from .76 to .80).

Data Analysis for Hypotheses 1 and 2_{abc}

Separate confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) of the MHS-G and MHS-L items were conducted to test for unidimensionality, as per Hypothesis 1. Separate CFAs also were conducted on the MHS-G and MHS-L items to test for their conceptual distinction from old-fashioned homonegativity (as measured by the ATG and ATL), and “modern” homophobia (as measured by the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L), as per Hypothesis 2. CFAs also were conducted on the MHS-G and MHS-L items to test for equivalency of their factor loadings as per Hypothesis 3.

Since the assumption of normality was not problematic and the size of the samples exceeded 250, Robust estimation was not used. Instead Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation is reported in the present study and, consequently, two slight modifications to the goodness-of-fit indices should be noted. First, to determine the chi-square likelihood ratio, the χ^2 customarily produced by ML estimation will be used in place of the Satorra-Bentler χ^2 . Second, instead of the robust CFI (indicated as *CFI in Study 1), the CFI customarily produced by ML estimation will be used. The root mean square error of approximation and standardized root mean squared residual also will be used. It should be noted that descriptions of all fit statistics are provided in Study 1.

Hypothesis 1: Are the MHS-G and MHS-L Unidimensional?

CFA results supported a unidimensional model for the MHS-G, χ^2 (54, $N=292$)=141.53, $p<.001$, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.04. Given the excellent fit between the hypothesized model and the data, no parameter estimates were tested. CFA results also supported a

unidimensional model for the MHS-L, χ^2 (54, $N=306$)=135.28, $p<.001$, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.04. Final models for both the MHS-G and MHS-L support a unidimensional model structure and, thus, confirm Hypothesis 1.

Tests of Conceptual Distinctiveness (Hypotheses 2_{abc})

The two tests of conceptual distinction also were used in the present study. The first entailed conducting CFAs of the homonegativity scale items contained in the gay and lesbian versions of the questionnaire. Specifically, a CFA was conducted using the MHS-G and ATG scale items to determine whether these instruments measure separate forms of homonegativity; namely, modern and old-fashioned, respectively (Hypothesis 2_a). A CFA also was conducted on the MHS-G and Homophobia-G items to determine whether these instruments measure separate forms of homonegativity; namely, modern prejudice and a composite of personal discomfort, deviance/changeability, and institutional homophobia, respectively (Hypothesis 2_b). The same CFAs were conducted for the lesbian version.

The second test involved computing partial correlations of the MHS, ATLG, and Homophobia Scale, wherein their shared variances would be controlled (Hypothesis 2_c). Specifically, in order to determine the exact nature of the relationship between the MHS-G and ATG, Homophobia-G was treated as a covariate. This partial correlation was then compared to the one obtained between the Homophobia-G and ATG scales, with the MHS-G treated as a covariate. Also, the relationship between the MHS-G and Homophobia-G was examined, controlling for the shared variance of the ATG. These same analyses were performed on the lesbian version of the questionnaire.

As per Dunton and Fazio's (1997) recommendation, scores on the Concern Subscale of the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale were treated as a covariate for all partial correlation analyses. Results of the CFAs and partial correlations are presented below.

Pre-testing of CFA Models

Given that unidimensional models for the MHS-G and MHS-L were confirmed for Hypothesis 1, these models can be used in Hypothesis 2_a. However, since CFA has yet to confirm the unidimensionality of the ATG and ATL when used with American respondents, separate CFAs for these scales were conducted. Similarly, the three-factor structure of the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L scales required testing.

Results indicated that both the ATG and ATL fit a unidimensional structure: ATG, χ^2 (35, $N=292$)=95.56, $p<.001$, CFI=.97, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.03; ATL, χ^2 (35, $N=306$)=110.37, $p<.001$, CFI=.94, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.04. Since the fit of both models was extremely good, no parameter estimates were included.

The three-factor structures of the gay men and lesbian women versions of the Homophobia Scale, originally reported by Raja and Stokes (1998), also were tested. Results indicated acceptable fit for the three-factor models: Homophobia-G, χ^2 (206, $N=292$)=548.96, $p<.001$, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.05; Homophobia-L, χ^2 (249, $N=306$)=567.00, $p<.001$, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.07, SRMR=.05.

Hypothesis 2a: Conceptual Distinctiveness of the MHS and ATLG

A CFA of the MHS-G and ATG was conducted to determine whether each measure would have non-zero loadings on the factor it was supposed to represent, and zero loadings on the factor it was not supposed to represent. A CFA of the MHS-L and ATL was conducted for the same purpose.

Results indicated that the MHS-G and ATG provided excellent fit for a two factor model: χ^2 (208, $N=292$)=429.6, $p<.001$, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.06, SRMR=.04. Very good fit also was obtained for the lesbian version: χ^2 (206, $N=306$)=449.2, $p<.001$, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.06; SRMR=.05. In an effort to ensure parsimony, no parameter estimates were employed.

These results suggest that modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS and old-fashioned homonegativity, as measured by the ATLG, are conceptually distinct.

Hypothesis 2_b: Conceptual Distinctiveness of the MHS and “Modern” Homophobia Scale

Since the item content of the gay and lesbian versions of the Homophobia Scale (Raja & Stokes, 1998) does not appear to reflect the theoretical frameworks of modern racism and modern sexism, CFAs were conducted to determine whether the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L Scales measure a form of homonegativity that is conceptually distinct from modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS. For the gay men version, it was hypothesized that the MHS-G would have non-zero loadings on the factor representing its scale items and zero loadings on the three factors representing Homophobia-G items. The same relationships were investigated with the lesbian women versions; specifically, the MHS-L would have non-zero loadings on the factor representing its scale items and zero loadings on the three factors representing Homophobia-L items. Thus, both CFAs tested a four-factor structure.

Results for both the MHS-G and Homophobia-G Scale as well as the MHS-L and Homophobia-L Scale indicated good fit for the separate four-factor models: MHS-G and Homophobia-G, χ^2 (518, $N=292$)=1034.1, $p<.001$, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.06, SRMR=.05; MHS-L and Homophobia-L, χ^2 (582, $N=306$)=1075.2, $p<.001$, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.05.

Similar to the evidence provided in Study 1, these results attest to the MHS' conceptual distinctiveness from the Homophobia Scale. Given that the MHS was developed using the

theoretical frameworks of modern racism and modern sexism, the issue of whether the Homophobia Scale truly measures modern prejudice against gay men and lesbian women must be raised.

Hypothesis 2c: Partial Correlations Among Measures of Homonegativity

To determine the degree of shared variance among the MHS-G, ATG, and Homophobia-G Scale, partial correlations were conducted. A strong bivariate correlation was obtained between the MHS-G and the ATG ($r=.83$, $p<.01$). However, after controlling for the influence of the Concern About Appearing Prejudiced Subscale (of the MCPRS) and Homophobia-G Scale, the partial correlation between the MHS-G and ATG decreased appreciably in magnitude ($r=.46$, $p<.001$). A strong bivariate correlation also was observed between the Homophobia-G and ATG ($r=.90$, $p<.01$). After removing the influence of the Concern Subscale and MHS-G, the partial correlation between Homophobia-G and ATG remained highly significant ($r=.73$, $p<.001$). These findings suggest that the degree of conceptual similarity between the Homophobia-G and ATG scales is considerably greater (approximately 53% shared variance) than the similarity between the MHS-G and ATG (approximately 21% shared variance). The partial correlation between the MHS-G and Homophobia-G (controlling for the Concern Subscale and ATG) was $r=.12$, $p=.04$. Thus, these two scales share a negligible amount of variance (approximately 1.0%).

In addition, partial correlation analyses were conducted to explore the relationships between the gay men homonegativity scales, controlling for the influence of gender and concern about appearing prejudiced on their shared variance. Results indicated that a significant relationship between the MHS-G and ATG existed ($r=.46$, $p=.000$); however, the amount of shared variance (21.2%) is relatively small. The extent to which the Homophobia-G and ATG were related, however, remained strong when gender and the concern subscale were controlled

($r=.73$, $p=.000$; 53.3% shared variance). Controlling for gender, the relationship between the MHS-G and Homophobia-G remained relatively weak ($r=.09$, $p=.11$; 1.0% shared variance).

Similar results were obtained for the MHS-L, ATL, and Homophobia-L. The MHS-L and ATL correlated significantly ($r=.70$, $p<.01$); however, the partial correlation between these scales (controlling for the influence of the Concern Subscale and Homophobia-L) decreased appreciably in magnitude ($r=.20$, $p<.001$). The bivariate correlation between the Homophobia-L and ATL was very strong ($r=.89$, $p<.01$). Moreover, the partial correlation remained substantial ($r=.78$, $p<.001$), even after controlling for the influence of the Concern Subscale and MHS-L. Consequently, these findings suggest that the MHS-L and ATL are more conceptually distinct (approximately 4% shared variance) than the Homophobia-L and ATL (approximately 61% shared variance). The partial correlation between the MHS-L and Homophobia-L (controlling for the Concern Subscale and ATL) was $r=.29$, $p<.001$ (approximately 8% shared variance).

Further, on account of independent samples t-tests which indicated that men scored significantly higher than did women on the homonegativity measures, partial correlation analyses were conducted to explore the relationships between the lesbian homonegativity scales, controlling for the influence of gender and concern about appearing prejudiced on their shared variance. Results indicated a significant relationship between the MHS-L and ATL ($r=.22$, $p=.000$; 4.8% shared variance). However, the extent to which the Homophobia-L and ATL remained strongly related when gender and the concern subscale were controlled ($r=.77$, $p=.000$; 59.3% shared variance). Similar to the partial correlations for the gay men versions, the relationship between the MHS-L and Homophobia-L remained relatively weak ($r=.27$, $p=.000$; 7.3% shared variance), after gender and concern about appearing prejudiced served as covariates.

Overall, results indicate that both the MHS-G and MHS-L are distinct from the old-

fashioned ATG and ATL in their measurement of prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. As evidenced by the partial correlations, there is a relatively small amount of overlap between these two measures. The Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L, however, appear to share a far greater proportion of variance with the ATG and ATL. Therefore, the distinctiveness of both the gay and lesbian versions of the “modern” Homophobia Scale from the old-fashioned ATG and ATL is questionable.

Hypothesis 3: Are the MHS-G and MHS-L Factor Loadings Invariant for the Canadian and American Samples?

The results of all previous CFAs indicated that the hypothesized models for MHS-G and MHS-L scale items fit unidimensional factor structures in both Canadian and American samples. Consequently, the MHS *appears* to measure the same construct in both samples. However, a more systematic test of the comparability of the MHS across Canadian and American participants is required. To this end, the scale invariance of the MHS was tested by determining whether the factor loadings¹⁰ of its items were equivalent across Canadian and American samples. This test is performed by imposing parameter constraints of equality across the two groups. It should be noted that, if different factor loadings of MHS items emerge between Canadian and American respondents, one may conclude that the two groups differ in their interpretation of the scale's items.

First, an initial model of the MHS-G was tested that included the unidimensional baseline models of both Canadian and American samples. The overall fit of the model was good, $\chi^2(119, N=472)=292.6, p<.001, CFI=.93$; yet, this is not surprising given that the final baseline models from Studies 1 and 2 were the ones being run simultaneously. Moreover, although these fit statistics serve as useful omnibus indices of scale invariance, they do not address whether the individual items are equal across groups. To this end, parameter constraints were added such

that the estimated factor loadings of the American sample were equivalent to those of the Canadian sample. It should be noted that only estimated parameters may have equality constraints imposed on them (i.e., if a parameter is fixed for purposes of identification, it cannot be constrained equal across groups). Therefore, even though the MHS contains 12 items, the number of constraints examined is 11. The Lagrange-Multiplier Test was then used to determine the feasibility of the parameter constraint procedure.

Results of the analysis for invariance of MHS-G factor loadings indicated that 4 items were not equivalent across Canadian and American samples (all $p < .05$): item 4 ("The notion of universities providing students with undergraduate degrees in Gay and Lesbian Studies is ridiculous"); item 5 ("Gay men seem to focus on the ways in which they differ from heterosexuals, and ignore the ways in which they are the same"); item 8 ("If gay men want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture"); and item 10 ("Gay men should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society, and simply get on with their lives"). Interestingly, all of these items appear to reflect the principle that gay men place unwarranted emphasis on their sexual orientation. The constraints associated with the four items were, subsequently, released. The reparameterized model was rerun and evidenced improved overall fit, $\chi^2(115, N=472)=250.8, p < .001, CFI=.95$.

Results of the analysis for invariance of MHS-L factor loadings indicated that the overall model provided good fit for the original baseline models, $\chi^2(119, N=488)=216.4, p < .001, CFI=.96$. The Lagrange-Multiplier Test was then examined in order to identify whether any factor loadings did not uphold the hypothesis of invariant factor loadings. Unlike the MHS-G, all factor loadings for the MHS-L were invariant. Specifically, all univariate and multivariate probability values were nonsignificant.

Hypotheses 4, 5, 6: Correlations Among Measures of Interest

Several hypotheses were tested to determine whether: 1) levels of modern homonegativity correlate positively with political conservatism and religious self-schema (Hypothesis 5); 2) levels of modern homonegativity correlate positively with neosexism (Hypothesis 6); and 3) levels of modern homonegativity correlate negatively with concern about appearing prejudiced (Hypothesis 7).

Intercorrelations among all measures are reported in Table 7 for the gay version of the questionnaire and Table 8 for the lesbian version.

Insert Tables 7 and 8 here

For Hypothesis 5, the MHS-G correlated in the hypothesized direction with political conservatism ($r=.39$, $p<.001$) and religious self-schema ($r=.15$, $p<.001$). Similar correlations were noted for the MHS-L ($r_s=.36$ and $.22$, $p<.001$ for political conservatism and religious self-schema, respectively). These results support the findings reported previously by Morrison and Morrison (in press) and indicate that participants who perceive themselves as more politically conservative and religious evidence higher levels of modern homonegativity.

For Hypothesis 6, scores on the MHS correlated positively with scores on the Neosexism Scale (NS). Thus, as participants' level of modern homonegativity increases, so does their level of neosexism. This finding confirms previous research conducted by Morrison and Morrison (in press).

As hypothesized, scores on the MHS correlated negatively with scores on the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale. Thus, as concern over appearing prejudiced increases, level of modern homonegativity decreases.

Hypothesis 8: Do Modern Homonegativity Scores Vary as a Function of Interpersonal Contact with Gay Men and Lesbian Women?

To determine whether participants' MHS scores differed as a function of interpersonal contact with gay men and/or lesbian women, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted. As in Study 1, four relationship categories were created: 1) participants who knew neither gay men nor lesbian women; 2) participants who knew gay men only (but not lesbian women); 3) participants who knew lesbian women only (but not gay men); and 4) participants who knew both gay men and lesbian women. Separate ANOVAs were performed for the variables, acquaintanceships and close friendships.

For the gay men version of the questionnaire, the one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for acquaintanceship, $F(3, 288) = 21.71, p < .001$. Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test demonstrated that participants who did not have gay or lesbian acquaintances evidenced higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=43.49$) than participants who reported: a) knowing gay men as acquaintances but not lesbian women ($M=34.94, p < .05$); or b) knowing both gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances ($M=34.38, p < .05$). No other comparisons were significant.

A significant main effect also was observed for close friendships, $F(3, 288) = 12.10, p < .001$. Tukey's HSD revealed that participants who did not have gay men or lesbian women as close friends evidenced higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=39.81$) than participants who reported: a) having gay men as close friends but not lesbian women ($M=32.93, p < .05$); or b) having both gay men and lesbian women as close friends ($M=31.16, p < .05$). No other comparisons were significant.

For the MHS-L, the one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for acquaintanceship, $F(3, 298) = 6.63, p < .001$. Tukey's HSD test indicated that participants who

did not have gay or lesbian acquaintances evidenced higher levels of modern homonegativity ($M=40.25$) than participants who reported: a) knowing gay men as acquaintances but not lesbian women ($M=34.44$, $p<.05$); or b) knowing both gay men and lesbian women as acquaintances ($M=36.40$, $p<.05$). No other comparisons were significant.

Interestingly, the one-way ANOVA for close friendships was nonsignificant ($p=.09$). Thus, MHS-L scores did not differ significantly between individuals reporting no close friendships with gay men or lesbian women and those reporting close friendships with gay men only, lesbian women only, or both gay men and lesbian women. It should be noted, however, that means for the two cells of interest (i.e., close friends versus no close friends) were in the anticipated direction ($M_s=34.43$ and 38.41 , respectively).

Taken globally, findings from the four ANOVAs suggest that higher levels of modern homonegativity are displayed by those reporting no acquaintances and/or close friends who are homosexual.

Correlations were computed to determine whether individuals' MHS scores decrease as their number of gay and/or lesbian acquaintances/close friends increase. MHS-G scores correlated negatively with number of same-sex homosexual acquaintances ($r=-.21$, $p<.01$). The correlation between MHS-G scores and number of opposite-sex homosexual acquaintances was not significant ($r=.04$). MHS-G scores did not correlate significantly with same-sex homosexual close friends ($r=-.05$, $p=ns$), yet did so with opposite-sex homosexual close friends ($r=-.25$, $p<.05$).

For the lesbian version of the questionnaire, the correlations between MHS-L scores and same-sex and opposite-sex acquaintances were nonsignificant ($r_s=.02$ and $-.12$, respectively), as were the correlations between MHS-L scores and number of same-sex and opposite-sex close

friends ($r_s = -.09$ and $-.10$). Thus, it does not appear that individuals' MHS scores decrease as their number of same- and opposite-sex acquaintances and close friends increase. It should be noted, however, that these correlations might have been attenuated due to restriction of range. For example, of those reporting contact with: 1) same-sex acquaintances ($n=144$), 90% reported having 5 or fewer; 2) opposite-sex acquaintances ($n=164$), 93% reported having 5 or fewer; 3) same-sex close friends ($n=52$), 94% reported having 2 or fewer; and 4) opposite-sex close friends ($n=63$), 87% reported having 2 or fewer.

In summary, the analyses for Hypothesis 8 provide evidence that individuals who report interpersonal contact with gay men and lesbian women possess lower MHS-G and MHS-L scores. The most consistent observation was that, modern homonegativity, as measured by the MHS-G or MHS-L, decreases significantly when individuals are acquainted with or maintain close friendships with gay men *and* lesbian women. The evidence obtained in the present study substantiates the findings with Canadian participants in particular, and confirms the contact hypothesis in general.

Discussion

The purpose of Study 2 was to examine the construct validity of the MHS using a cross-cultural sample of American participants. Since this was the first exploration of the scale's construct validity outside of a Canadian context, Study 2 attempted to replicate some of the findings obtained in previous investigations of the MHS. Specifically, the primary objectives of Study 2 were to: 1) confirm the unidimensionality of the MHS-G and MHS-L; 2) investigate the conceptual distinctiveness of the MHS from the old-fashioned ATLG, and the Homophobia Scale, a relatively new measure of "modern" prejudice against homosexual men and women; 3) examine the associations among the three homonegativity measures, accounting for their shared

variances; and 4) explore the relationships that exist between scores on the MHS-G and MHS-L and individual difference variables such as concern about acting prejudiced, interpersonal contact with gay men and lesbian women, and neosexism. Unique to the present study, however, was the hypothesis that factor loadings of the MHS-G and MHS-L would be invariant between Canadian and American participants.

With one exception, the hypotheses for Study 2 were confirmed. CFA results demonstrated excellent fit for unidimensional MHS-G and MHS-L models, which suggests that the scale is configurally equivalent in Canadian and American samples. The tests of conceptual distinction also were confirmed. The two-factor models proposed for the MHS-G/ATG and MHS-L/ATL scale items provided excellent fit to the data and strengthen the claim that modern homonegativity (as measured by the MHS) and old-fashioned homonegativity (as measured by the ATLG) are distinct constructs. It also was shown that modern and old-fashioned homonegativity share a negligible amount of variance with one another.

The separate four-factor models of the MHS-G/Homophobia-G and MHS-L/Homophobia-L scale items bolster the author's critique of the "modern" Homophobia Scale. Homophobia Scale items loaded on factors distinct to the one containing MHS items; consequently, these scales do not appear to be measuring comparable forms of modern homonegativity. The partial correlations conducted between the "modern" Homophobia and ATLG scales also indicate that significant differences exist between these measures and the MHS. The magnitude of the partial correlations reveals that the Homophobia and ATLG scales possess a degree of conceptual relatedness that is not evident in the association between the MHS and ATLG or the MHS and Homophobia Scale.

Relationships between MHS scores and concern about appearing prejudiced as well as interpersonal contact with gay men or lesbian women were investigated to determine whether patterns similar to those observed with Canadian participants would emerge. As found in Study 1, American participants' level of modern homonegativity was inversely related to their concern about appearing prejudiced. However, it should be noted that the correlations were modest.

Restriction of range does not appear to offer a plausible explanation for this finding (i.e., an adequate dispersion of scores was noted for both measures). One possible explanation is that the items comprising the Concern Subscale may not relate in a meaningful way to homonegativity. Dunton and Fazio (1997) originally developed this measure for use with the Modern Racism Scale. Indeed, inspection of the subscales' items reveals that some of their content clearly pertains to racial issues (e.g., "When speaking to a Black person, it's important to me that he/she not think I'm prejudiced). Given the interrelationships that exist among various forms of modern prejudice, it appeared reasonable to posit that, as it had done with modern racism, concern about appearing prejudiced would be negatively correlated with modern homonegativity. However, in future, it might be advantageous to develop a Concern Subscale that focuses more specifically on sexual orientation prejudice.

Similar to findings obtained with the Canadian sample, American participants who reported having *both* gay and lesbian acquaintances and/or close friends displayed significantly lower levels of modern homonegativity than did participants who reported not having these types of interpersonal contact. The correlation analyses indicated that the greater the number of gay/lesbian acquaintances or close friends, the lower the score on the MHS. Thus, knowing gay men and lesbian women as well as knowing greater numbers of gay men and lesbian women were associated with lower levels of modern homonegativity. The most striking finding was

that, participants indicating relationships with either gay men or lesbian women did not consistently evidence lower levels of modern homonegativity than those reporting no relationships at all. Thus, all forms of contact are not created equal. Additional research is needed, however, to determine whether this finding is an artifact of unequal cell sizes (i.e., only a small number of individuals reported knowing gay men or lesbian women only as acquaintances/close friends).

To provide further evidence that the MHS possesses construct validity when used cross-culturally, relationships between modern homonegativity and political conservatism, religious self-schema, and neosexism were tested. All hypotheses were confirmed. The replication of the hypothesized relationships with the American sample underscores the MHS' construct validity.

Finally, the hypothesis concerning factor loadings invariance received partial support. For the MHS-G, all but four factor loadings were invariant. Since the Canadian group served as the reference group in the invariance analysis, it can be said that the American sample perceived these items differently than did the Canadian sample. The four items in question seem to represent one of the three underlying principles of modern homonegativity; namely, that gay men are making too much of their sexual orientation and, as a result, are preventing themselves from assimilating into mainstream culture.

Several differences have been noted between Canadian and American cultures vis-à-vis attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women; however, one that may account for the discrepant factor loadings found with the MHS-G is the cultural history of the two countries. American culture is defined as being a melting pot (i.e., a cultural system that dissuades people from exercising their individuality in favour of group/national conformity). Canadian culture, on the other hand, is one that respects individual/cultural differences and does not, subsequently,

“insist” upon group/national conformity. The four items found to be discrepant suggest that American participants view gay men who contravene assimilationist principles by placing “undue” emphasis on their sexual orientation as being especially problematic.

All MHS-L items were found to be invariant across the Canadian and American samples. Thus, participants in both countries appear to interpret the construct of modern homonegativity against lesbian women in a similar manner.

General Discussion

Two studies were presented that detail further construct validation of the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS). Taken together, these findings provide two central strands of evidence in support of the author’s argument that modern homonegativity constitutes a new form of prejudice against gay men and lesbian women. Each strand will be discussed briefly.

The first piece of evidence concerns the factorial validity obtained in Studies 1 and 2. Factorial validation provides fairly strong evidence of a measure’s construct validity. A unifactorial model was identified for both the MHS-G and MHS-L; moreover, as this model fit the data for both Canadian and American participants, it suggests that the MHS possesses configural equivalence. The use of CFA in these studies corroborates the exploratory factor analytic results provided in earlier research conducted by Morrison and Morrison (in press). Further, the two-factor models obtained for the MHS and the ATLG, and the four-factor models obtained for the MHS and “modern” Homophobia Scale indicate that the construct of modern homonegativity is factorially distinct from other forms of prejudice against gay men and lesbian women.

Some researchers maintain that factorial distinction between measures does not, necessarily, imply conceptual distinctiveness. For example, Duckitt (1992) states that, in the

case of exploratory factor analysis, factor extraction may be a result of researchers' arbitrary decision-making. Also, if separate factors are detected, factorial distinction may be a result of items that possess semantic similarity rather than theoretical or empirical meaning. In order to complement more fully a researcher's claim that a new form of prejudice exists, Duckitt (1992) recommends conducting, in addition to factor analyses, correlation analyses between the constructs of interest. Since a central argument of this dissertation has been that the MHS is conceptually distinct from old-fashioned homonegativity as well as the hybrid measure referred to as "modern" homophobia, it was imperative that assessments of their conceptual overlap be undertaken. To this end, the factorial validity of the MHS was supplemented by partial correlation analyses.

Results of the partial correlations also suggest that modern homonegativity and old-fashioned homonegativity are conceptually distinct. The negligible amount of variance shared by the MHS and ATLG suggests that, from a practical vantage point, these forms of homonegativity are unrelated. With respect to the Homophobia Scale, the alternate measure of modern prejudice, the amount of overlap found between this scale and the MHS was modest. The most plausible interpretation of the latter finding is that the MHS measures modern prejudice whereas the Homophobia Scale does not. This interpretation is compelling because: a) partial correlation analyses reveal that the Homophobia Scale shares a considerable amount of variance with old-fashioned homonegativity; and b) the conceptual framework used to generate items for the Homophobia Scale does not clearly map onto prior theorizing in the area of modern prejudice. Indeed, the Homophobia Scale contains items that denote feelings of personal discomfort with gay men and lesbian women and the belief that homosexuality is deviant and/or changeable. Such content is theoretically more congruent with old-fashioned homonegativity.

In Study 2 (American sample), the MHS was found to be reliable, unidimensional, and conceptually distinct from old-fashioned homonegativity and “modern” homophobia. Such findings were particularly encouraging in light of the myriad differences observed between American and Canadian participants. For example, American participants, completing the gay men version, reported being more politically conservative (42.5%) than did the Canadian sample (24.6%). A similar finding was yielded for the lesbian women version with respect to political conservatism (41.8% versus 23.8% for American and Canadian participants, respectively). Further, in terms of religious self-schema, American participants, completing the gay men version, reported perceiving themselves as more religious (58.9%) than did the Canadian sample (35.6%). For participants completing the lesbian women version, a slightly smaller disparity was reported (55.6% versus 45.6% for American and Canadian participants, respectively). The heterogenous nature of the samples minimizes one’s ability to make direct inter-sample comparisons; however, it *does* provide a stringent test of the psychometric properties of the MHS.

Mixed support was obtained for the test of invariance of the factor loadings for the MHS-G and MHS-L. Specifically, a small subset of items on the MHS-G proved to be non-equivalent across Canadian and American samples. This finding suggests that the American sample interpreted the four items differently. The non-invariant items seemed to represent the idea that gay men are unable to assimilate into mainstream culture because they exaggerate the importance of their sexual orientation. In accordance with this interpretation, it appears that the American participants used in Study 2 believe that no additional attention should be accorded gay men because of their sexual orientation. Any attempts made by homosexual males to emphasize their state of sexual otherness may be viewed as unnecessary and looked upon

disfavourably. Although this interpretation is speculative, it appears reasonable because the desire to differentiate oneself from the masses contradicts the American cultural ideology of a melting pot (Adams, 1999). Interestingly, the invariance analysis for factor loadings on the MHS-L indicated that Canadian and American participants interpreted scale items in a similar manner. Thus, it appears that American participants did not regard attempts made by lesbian women to differentiate themselves from mainstream heterosexual culture as being particularly worrisome or threatening.

How might the difference noted between the MHS-G and MHS-L in terms of factor loading invariance be explained? One possible explanation is that this finding stems from differences in the gender composition of American and Canadian samples. In the American sample, a majority of participants were male whereas in the Canadian sample, a majority were female. Thus, it is possible that American heterosexual males perceive the anti-assimilationist efforts of gay men to be more disturbing than similar efforts made by lesbian women. Such an interpretation is not surprising in light of research suggesting that males evidence less tolerance of gender non-conformity, especially when displayed by other men (Tomsen & Mason, 2001).

Interpersonal contact with gay men and lesbian women has been found to reduce prejudice in heterosexual individuals (e.g., Conley, Calhoun, Evett, & Devine, 2001; Sakall & Ugurlu, 2002). The relationship between the MHS and interpersonal contact in the form of acquaintanceships and close friendships was investigated in Studies 1 and 2. Overall, the intergroup contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954) was supported; however, it became apparent that simply having contact with a gay *or* lesbian individual was not consistently associated with lower modern homonegativity scores. Indeed, often no significant difference emerged between individuals reporting contact with either a gay man or lesbian woman and those reporting no

contact experience(s). On the basis of these results, it seems that only individuals acquainted or in close friendships with *both* lesbian women and gay men appear to have embraced less prejudiced attitudes toward homosexuals.

It is important to point out, however, that significant differences did emerge in Study 1 for individuals who had close friends who were lesbian women and, in Study 2, for individuals who had close friends who were gay men. However, it should be noted that only a small proportion of respondents identified having close friends of the same sex who were homosexual. Additional research targeting individuals who display this unique friendship pattern is warranted.

As the samples in Studies 1 and 2 were comprised primarily of females and males, respectively, it can be inferred that having same-sex close friends is a powerful buffer against modern homonegativity. [To investigate the possibility of gender by interpersonal contact interactions, 2 (male/female) X 4 (no contact, contact with gay men only, contact with lesbian women only, and contact with both) ANOVAs were performed. No significant interactions were noted.]

The results pertaining to interpersonal contact are intriguing; however, the measures used possess certain limitations that warrant discussion. The items employed in the current studies merely reflect an individual's presumption that his/her acquaintance or close friend is gay/lesbian. The veracity of this assumption may be questioned. In future, it would be preferable to have items that ask whether acquaintances or close friends have "disclosed" their sexual orientation to the respondent. Another potential problem is that the items used in Studies 1 and 2 do not quantify contact. Asking individuals to identify a number of homosexual acquaintances/close friends assumes that the greater the number, the greater the amount of contact. However, this may or may not be the case. Therefore, one way to improve the

measures of interpersonal contact would be to ask questions such as “how many times a week do you see this person” or “how many hours per week do you spend with this person.” Finally, another variable that might prove useful would be to inquire as to whether participants anticipate future contact with the individual(s) in question. Presently, it remains unknown as to whether the contact with gay men and/or lesbian women was longstanding or of short duration (Conley et al., 2001).

Limitations

A number of limitations, in addition to those associated with the measures of interpersonal contact, should be outlined. The first limitation concerns the issue of attitudinal self-report measurement. Although there are numerous advantages to using survey methodology (e.g., cost effectiveness and timely data collection), surveys possess an important disadvantage that should not be overlooked; namely, self-presentation bias. In this thesis, participants were asked questions about socially sensitive topics, the most sensitive of which likely concerned attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Issues involving homosexuality foster intense debate in mainstream society and it can be ventured that participants are most likely aware of the controversies surrounding this topic. This awareness may have served to “regulate” participants’ modern prejudice toward gay and lesbian individuals thereby compromising the honesty of their responses.

A second limitation associated with Studies 1 and 2 is that the samples were not matched on key demographic variables (e.g., political conservatism and religiosity). As many of these variables are associated with modern homonegativity, differences noted between the samples vis-à-vis scores on the MHS can be noted but not explained. For example, on the MHS-G, the American sample scored significantly higher ($M=37.9$, $SD=9.6$) than the Canadian sample

($M=31.4$, $SD=8.4$), $t=7.77$, $p<.001$. Similarly, on the MHS-L, the American sample evidenced higher scores ($M=37.9$, $SD=8.6$) than the Canadian sample ($M=33.2$, $SD=8.9$), $t=5.62$, $p<.001$. Unfortunately, due to the lack of comparability between samples, it cannot be determined whether American participants' level of modern homonegativity may be attributed to their status as Americans or whether it is a function of other variables such as political conservatism.

Another variable that was dissimilar between the Canadian and American samples was gender composition. Females comprised the majority of Canadian respondents (75%), whereas males comprised the majority of American respondents (63%). Further, gender differences within each sample emerged with respect to modern homonegativity. For example, Canadian males ($M=35.3$, $SD=8.3$) scored significantly higher on the MHS-G than Canadian females ($M=30.0$, $SD=8.1$), $t(178)=3.81$, $p<.001$. Canadian males ($M=37.2$, $SD=8.5$) also scored higher on the MHS-L than Canadian females ($M=31.9$, $SD=8.6$), $t(180)=3.52$, $p<.001$. With the American sample, males ($M=41.0$, $SD=8.6$) scored significantly higher on the MHS-G than females ($M=32.7$, $SD=8.9$), $t(290)=7.88$, $p<.0001$. American males ($M=40.0$, $SD=7.7$) also scored significantly higher on the MHS-L than females ($M=33.7$, $SD=9.1$), $t(304)=6.45$, $p<.0001$. It appears that the magnitude of the difference between males and females is greater for Americans than Canadians; however, once again, the heterogeneous nature of the samples used precludes efforts at particularizing why this gender disparity exists.

Several demographic variables that might have proven especially relevant to the samples used in Studies 1 and 2 were overlooked. For example, with respect to the Canadian sample, the proportion of Francophones and Anglophones was not known. Also, for the American sample, participants' place of origin in the mid-west was not investigated. Thus it is unknown whether participants originated from the Mid-west or from the northern or southern parts of the country.

Such variables may have implications for the liberalization of individuals' attitudes toward sexuality issues in general and sexual orientation issues in particular.

A third limitation is that two of the measures used in Studies 1 and 2 appear to possess questionable utility. First, contrary to Raja and Stokes' (1998) intention, the "modern" Homophobia Scale does not appear to reflect a constellation of beliefs underlying modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. Rather, this scale appears to conflate modern and old-fashioned homonegativity. Second, the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPRS) was flawed. Specifically, one of the MCPRS' subscales entitled, Restraint to Avoid Dispute, possessed extremely poor reliability estimates (e.g., alphas ranged from .35 to .57). Although the concept of restraint, which reflects the behavioural intention to avoid prejudiced based conflict, may possess utility vis-à-vis modern forms of prejudice, in particular modern racism, the way the construct is measured appears to be problematic. Additional validation work must be conducted on the MCPRS in general and the Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale in particular. Needless to say, this measure should not be used in its entirety at the present time.

A final limitation was that indicators of modern homonegativity, other than questionnaire responses, were not part of Studies 1 and 2. The idea of assessing a construct using a variety of indices is recommended, and over-reliance on one method should be avoided. According to Patrick and Middleton (2002), the use of a variety of methods provides researchers with the chance to "consider new evidence from new perspectives, giving the opportunity for previously obscured facets to be illuminated" (p. 28). Thus, a multi-method approach should be used to elucidate further this new form of prejudice. Specifically, it is recommended that future research on modern homonegativity look to incorporating behavioural and psychophysiological indicators.

Future Directions

The understanding of modern homonegativity via experimental means is clearly in its infancy. In fact, only one study to date (i.e., Study 4 of Morrison & Morrison, in press) investigating modern homonegativity has employed non-experimental approaches (e.g., survey methodology) for data collection purposes. Numerous researchers recommend investigating a given construct through both experimental and non-experimental means (Patrick & Middleton, 2002). To this end, possible experimental approaches for investigating modern homonegativity will be outlined briefly.

Just as understanding the attitudinal component of a construct is important in social psychology, so too, is gaining an understanding of the behavioural expressions associated with the construct. As only one behavioural manifestation of modern homonegativity has been investigated to date, a plethora of experimental research opportunities are available using the theoretical framework of modern prejudice. For example, behavioural indicators such as heterosexuals' eye contact and tone of voice when in the company of gay men and lesbian women may provide insight into the subtle forms of discrimination experienced by members of this social group. In addition, measuring modern homonegativity in a variety of situational contexts would augment researchers' understanding of modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. Specifically, it may prove advantageous to orchestrate experiments such that heterosexual individuals would be asked to help openly gay men and/or lesbian women in public (e.g., in a student centre) as well as in private contexts (e.g., request for help via the telephone).

Another avenue for future research resides in the use of social psychophysiological indicators of prejudice. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) recommend using the three classes of evaluative responses (i.e., cognitive, affective, and behavioural) as a conceptual framework for

understanding the dimensionality of attitudes. A significant amount of research suggests that intergroup attitudes are often best understood when the affective component is tapped in favour of the cognitive and behavioural. Indeed, Stangor, Sullivan, and Ford (1991) found that affective responses to a variety of social groups, male homosexuals in particular, were the most consistent and strongest predictors of negative attitudes when compared to cognitive responses. A psychophysiological technique that enables researchers to investigate affective responses to attitude objects is facial electromyography (EMG).

Facial EMG is capable of capturing affective responses not apparent in overt facial expressions. Cacioppo, Petty, Losch, and Kim (1986) state that facial EMG research using imagery that evokes emotion has provided evidence that, even in the absence of overt facial movements, positive and negative affective states can lead to localized changes in facial EMG activity. Further, the most consistent finding with the use of this technique is that EMG activity over two muscle sites (i.e., the corrugator supercilium and zygomaticus major) is capable of distinguishing subjects' positive and negative affect to visual stimuli, affect that would go unnoticed otherwise. In addition, previous investigations of modern racism (e.g., Vanman, Ito, Paul, & Miller, 1997) have used facial EMG to detect significant differences in the affective reactions of high- and low-prejudiced individuals, as measured by the Modern Racism Scale. Consequently, it is possible that by exposing high- and low-scoring subjects on the MHS to gay or lesbian imagery, heterosexual individuals' affective evaluations of members of this social group could be recorded via EMG and then calibrated against their modern homonegativity scores. The use of a psychophysiological technique such as EMG would provide an additional indicator of modern homonegativity that then could be used to address ongoing construct validity issues (e.g., do results from the EMG output adequately predict scores on the MHS?).

Finally, all of the research devoted to the study of modern homonegativity has involved college and university samples. Although Morrison and Morrison (in press) regard this form of prejudice as being particularly salient in post-secondary institutions, it would make sense to distribute the MHS to samples of individuals who similarly appear somewhat unlikely to endorse old-fashioned homonegativity. For example, individuals in professional spheres such as social workers, physicians, and clinical therapists could be targeted. By conducting attitudinal assessments of modern homonegativity outside the college and university milieu, social psychologists' understanding of the prevalence of this type of anti-homosexual prejudice may be improved.

In conclusion, given the debilitating effects of prejudice and discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation, ongoing research into the antecedents and consequences of modern homonegativity is necessary. Based on the research presented in this thesis, it appears that a psychometrically sound measure of modern homonegativity is at social scientists' disposal.

Notes

¹ Although Canadian Gallup polls have been conducted since 1945, the first record of items assessing opinions about gay men and lesbian women appears in May, 1977. This poll inquired as to whether “human rights acts should be in place to protect homosexuals” (52.2% in favour; 29.8% opposed). The second set of items pertaining to gay men and lesbian women next appeared in September, 1985. These items were: 1) Are there more homosexuals today? (60% agreed; 29.3% disagreed); 2) What is the cause of homosexuality? (21.6% indicated one was born homosexual; 35.6% indicated it was due to upbringing; 25.3% indicated both responses); 3) Had the respondent ever been approached by a homosexual as a child? (7.2% responded affirmatively; 92.8% responded not applicable); 4) Had the respondent ever been approached by a homosexual as an adult? (8.5% responded affirmatively; 91.5% responded not applicable); and 5) Were homosexuals most at risk for contracting AIDS (58.2% responded affirmatively; 41.8% responded not applicable). It should be noted that a “no” response option was not provided to respondents for questions 3, 4, and 5. Further, with respect to question 5, as one does not contract AIDS, this item should have been amended to read HIV. It was not until the 1992 Gallup poll that questions pertaining to homosexuals were posed to the Canadian public in a consistent fashion. As a result, the change in attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women is illustrated most accurately when examining responses to questions of similar content available during the 1990s.

² The General Social Survey (GSS), one of the best indicators of attitudinal trends (Loftus, 2001), began addressing issues pertaining to gay men and lesbian women in a consistent manner far earlier than the national opinion polls conducted in Canada. It also should be noted that the Canadian GSS does not include items related to homosexuality.

³ Although posed consistently over several decades, these questions pertain exclusively to gay men and, thus, do not capture attitudes toward lesbian women. This critique of the GSS has yet to be remedied.

⁴ Given that the focus of this dissertation is on homonegativity among college and university students, discussion pertaining to the general population will be discontinued.

⁵ The transformation formula $[(2r/(1-r^2))^{1/2}]$ provided by Wolf (1986) was used to compute effect sizes (d) for the t-statistics. Effect sizes of .2, .5, and .8 represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. Also, a bonferonni correction was used (.05/4); thus, mean differences are significant if $p < .0125$.

⁶ The acronym for the Modern Homophobia Scale and the Modern Homonegativity Scale is the same, thus where appropriate, the Modern Homophobia Scale will be abbreviated simply as Homophobia.

⁷ Unpublished research by Morrison (2001) corroborates this distinction. Specifically, the author observed a nonsignificant correlation between scores on the MCPRS and Reynold's (1982) short form version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale ($r = -.07$, $p > .05$).

⁸ Participants who neglected to complete multiple pages (i.e., 2 or more) and/or evidenced response set bias by using the same response option for multiple pages (i.e., 2 or more) were eliminated. Also, given that the purpose of this research is to investigate heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women, omitting individual cases on the basis of nonheterosexuality is a common practice (e.g., Adams, Wright, Jr., & Lohr, 1996; Louderback & Whitley, Jr., 1997).

⁹ The " h_{ii} " element was used to calculate values for Mahalanobis distance (Stevens, 1992). The formula for calculating the " h_{ii} " element is: $[(N-1)(3p/N)]$, where N =sample size, p =number of items plus 1]. These calculations produced the following cut-off scores for Mahalanobis distance: 1) 38.79 for the MHS-G and MHS-L, 68.63 and 74.60 for the Homophobia-G and Homophobia-L, respectively, and 32.82 for the ATG and ATL. If individual cases exceeded the cut-off values for Mahalanobis distance, they were, subsequently, deleted from the analyses.

¹⁰ Several additional tests of invariance exist. For instance, two such tests of invariance involve determining the equivalency of factor covariances and error covariances. In the present study, however, these three tests are not employed in Study 6 for practical reasons: 1) the MHS is unidimensional and, as a result, does not possess factor covariances; and 2) the models established for the MHS-G and MHS-L in both Canadian and American samples do not contain estimated error covariances and, as a result, no test of invariance can be conducted. In terms of an additional test involving latent means, Vandenberg (2002) suggests that an investigation into latent mean invariance be attempted when metric invariance has been obtained.

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Table 1.

*Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients for the Gay Men Version of the Questionnaire
(Canadian Participants; N= 180)*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Alpha</i>
MHS-G	31.37	8.43	.90
Homophobia-G	42.07	12.29	.92
PD	16.13	5.21	.83
D/C	6.94	2.89	.84
I	19.00	5.87	.84
ATG	20.56	7.03	.89
MCPRS	52.42	7.38	.72
Concern	29.97	5.14	.73
Restraint	22.45	4.12	.57

Note. MHS-G (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Gay; range from 12-60); Homophobia-G (Modern Homophobia Scale-Gay; range from 22-110); PD (Personal Discomfort with Gay Men Subscale; range from 9-45); D/C (Deviance/Changeability of Gay Male Homosexuality Subscale; range from 4-20); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Gay Men Subscale; range from 9-45); ATG (Attitudes Toward Gay Men Scale; range from 10-50); MCPRS (Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale; range from 17-85); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale; range from 9-45); Restraint (Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale; range from 8-40).

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients for the Lesbian Women Version of Questionnaire (Canadian Participants; N= 182)

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Alpha</i>
MHS-L	33.24	8.85	.90
Homophobia-L	51.64	16.65	.95
PD	21.84	7.75	.92
D/C	5.21	2.52	.88
I	24.59	7.9	.87
ATL	20.15	6.65	.87
MCPRS	51.02	7.78	.70
Concern	29.41	5.67	.75
Restraint	21.61	3.75	.35

Note. MHS-L (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Lesbian; range from 12-60); Homophobia-L (Modern Homophobia Scale-Lesbian; range from 24-120); PD (Personal Discomfort with Lesbian Women Subscale; range from 10-50); D/C (Deviance and/or Changeability of Lesbian Women Homosexuality; range from 3-15); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Lesbian Women Subscale; range from 11-55); ATL (Attitudes Toward Lesbians Scale; range from 10-50); MCPRS (Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale; range from 17-85); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale; range from 9-45); Restraint (Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale; range from 8-40)

Table 3.
Intercorrelations Among Measures Used in Gay Men Version of Questionnaire (Canadian Participants; N=180)

Scale	Scale						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. MHS-G	-						
2. Homophobia-G	.77**	-					
3. PD	.56**	.88**	-				
4. D/C	.59**	.79**	.56**	-			
5. I	.82**	.92**	.69**	.66**	-		
6. ATG	.72**	.90**	.74**	.78**	.84**	-	
7. Concern	-.18*	-.19**	-.15*	-.13	-.21**	-.19*	-

Note. ** $p < .001$; * $p < .01$; MHS-G (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Gay); Homophobia-G (Modern Homophobia Scale-Gay); PD (Personal Discomfort With Gay Men Subscale); D/C (Deviance/Changeability of Gay Male Homosexuality Subscale); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Gay Men Subscale); ATG (Attitudes Toward Gay Men Scale); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale of the MCPRS).

Table 4.

Intercorrelations of Measures Used in Lesbian Women Version of Questionnaire (Canadian Participants; N=182)

Scale	Scale						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. MHS-L	-						
2. Homophobia-L	.72**	-					
3. PD	.61**	.94**	-				
4. D/C	.52**	.77**	.66**	-			
5. I	.76**	.94**	.78**	.67**	-		
6. ATL	.63**	.87**	.79**	.76**	.82**	-	
7. Concern	-.26**	-.20**	-.12	-.15*	-.26**	-.17*	-

Note. ** $p < .001$; * $p < .01$. MHS-L (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Lesbian); Homophobia-L (Modern Homophobia Scale-Lesbian); PD (Personal Discomfort With Lesbian Women Subscale); D/C (Deviance/Changeability of Lesbian Women Homosexuality Subscale); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Lesbian Women Subscale); ATL (Attitudes Toward Lesbians Scale); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale of the MCPRS).

Table 5.

*Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients for Gay Men Version of Questionnaire
(American Participants; N= 292)*

Scale	Mean	SD	Alpha
MHS-G	37.92	9.59	.92
Homophobia-G	55.58	14.25	.97
PD	21.76	8.40	.92
D/C	9.74	3.90	.86
I	24.07	3.70	.89
ATG	28.56	10.14	.94
NS	28.28	5.86	.77
ATWS	33.94	7.68	.78
Concern	28.99	5.78	.78

Note. MHS-G (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Gay; range from 12-60); Homophobia-G (Modern Homophobia Scale-Gay; range from 22-110); PD (Personal Discomfort with Gay Men Subscale; range from 9-45); D/C (Deviance/Changeability of Homosexuality Subscale; range 4-20); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Gay Men Subscale; range from 9-45); ATG (Attitudes Toward Gay Men Scale; range from 10-50); NS (Neosexism Scale; range from 11-55); ATWS (Attitudes Toward Women Scale; range from 15-75); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale from the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale; range from 9-45)

Table 6.
Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients for Lesbian Women Version of Questionnaire
(American Participants; N= 306)

Scale	Mean	SD	Alpha
MHS-L	37.71	8.75	.89
Homophobia-L	59.19	16.96	.94
PD	22.94	7.84	.87
D/C	6.44	2.74	.84
I	29.82	8.34	.87
ATL	24.48	7.75	.89
NS	28.00	5.93	.76
ATWS	33.88	7.83	.80
Concern	29.27	5.71	.78

Note. MHS-G (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Lesbian; range from 12-60); Homophobia-L (Modern Homophobia Scale-Lesbian; range from 24-120); PD (Personal Discomfort with Lesbian Women Subscale; range from 10-50); D/C (Deviance and/or Changeability of Homosexuality Subscale; range from 3-15); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Lesbian Women Subscale; range from 11-55); ATL (Attitudes Toward Lesbians Scale; range from 10-50); NS (Neosexism Scale; range from 11-55); ATWS (Attitudes Toward Women Scale; range from 15-75); Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale of the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale; range from 9-45)

Table 7.
Intercorrelations Among Measures Used in Gay Men Version of Questionnaire (American Participants; N=292)

Scale	Scale								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. MHS-G	-								
2. Homophobia-G	.78**	-							
3. PD	.78**	.96**	-						
4. D/C	.70**	.83**	.71**	-					
5. I	.49**	.80**	.68**	.52**	-				
6. ATG	.83**	.90**	.87**	.80**	.65**	-			
7. NS	.54**	.54**	.54**	.49**	.33**	.48**	-		
8. ATWS	.56**	.63**	.61**	.53**	.46**	.56**	.74**	-	
9. Concern	-.34**	-.31**	-.32**	-.18**	-.27**	-.29**	-.27**	-.31**	-

Note. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; MHS-G (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Gay); Homophobia-G (Modern Homophobia Scale-Gay); PD (Personal Discomfort With Gay Men Subscale); D/C (Deviance/Changeability of Gay Male Homosexuality Subscale); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Gay Men Subscale); ATG (Attitudes Toward Gay Men Scale); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale of the MCPRS).

Table 8.

Intercorrelations of Measures Used in Lesbian Women Version of Questionnaire (American Participants; N=306)

Scale	Scale								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. MHS-L	-								
2. Homophobia-L	.72**	-							
3. PD	.76**	.93**	-						
4. D/C	.55**	.91**	.72**	-					
5. I	.59**	.75**	.65**	.59**	-				
6. ATL	.70**	.89**	.85**	.77**	.72**	-			
7. NS	.62**	.39**	.47**	.21**	.42**	.35**	-		
8. ATWS	.57**	.55**	.59**	.39**	.48**	.54**	.71**	-	
9. Concern	-.22**	-.12*	-.18**	-.05	-.06	-.05	-.26**	-.18**	-

Note. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$. MHS-L (Modern Homonegativity Scale-Lesbian); Homophobia-L (Modern Homophobia Scale-Lesbian); PD (Personal Discomfort With Lesbian Women Subscale); D/C (Deviance/Changeability of Lesbian Women Homosexuality Subscale); I (Institutional Homophobia Against Lesbian Women Subscale); ATL (Attitudes Toward Lesbians Scale); Concern (Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale of the MCPRS).

Appendix A

The Attitudes Toward Gay Men Scale (ATG; Herek, 1988)

1. Male homosexual couples should be allowed to adopt children the same as heterosexual couples.*
2. I think male homosexuals are disgusting.
3. Male homosexuals should not be allowed to teach school.
4. Male homosexuality is a perversion.
5. Just as in other species, male homosexuality is a natural expression of sexuality in human men.*
6. If a man has homosexual feelings, he should do everything he can to overcome them.
7. I would not be upset if I learned that my son were a homosexual.*
8. Homosexual behaviour between two men is just plain wrong.
9. The idea of male homosexual marriages seems ridiculous to me.
10. Male homosexuality is merely a different kind of lifestyle that should not be condemned.*

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.

The Attitudes Toward Lesbians Scale (ATL; Herek, 1988)

1. Lesbians just can't fit into our society.
2. A woman's homosexuality should not be a cause for job discrimination in any situation.*
3. Female homosexuality is detrimental to society because it breaks down the natural divisions between the sexes.
4. State laws regulating private, consenting lesbian behaviour should be loosened.*
5. Female homosexuality is a sin.
6. The growing number of lesbians indicates a decline in American morals.
7. Female homosexuality in itself is no problem, but what society makes of it can be a problem.*
8. Female homosexuality is a threat to many of our basic social institutions.
9. Female homosexuality is an inferior form of sexuality.
10. Lesbians are sick.

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.

Appendix B

The Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS-G; Morrison & Morrison, in press)

1. Many gay men use their sexual orientation so that they can obtain special privileges.
2. Gay men seem to focus on the ways in which they differ from heterosexuals, and ignore the ways in which they are the same.
3. Gay men do not have all the rights they need.*
4. The notion of universities providing students with undergraduate degrees in Gay and Lesbian Studies is ridiculous.
5. Celebrations such as "Gay Pride Day" are ridiculous because they assume that an individual's sexual orientation should constitute a source of pride.
6. Gay men still need to protest for equal rights.*
7. Gay men should stop shoving their lifestyle down other people's throats.
8. If gay men want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture.
9. Gay men who are "out of the closet" should be admired for their courage.*
10. Gay men should stop complaining about the way they are treated and simply get on with their lives.
11. In today's tough economic times, Canadians' tax dollars shouldn't be used to support gay men's organizations.
12. Gay men have become far too confrontational in their demand for equal rights.

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.

The Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS-L; Morrison & Morrison, in press)

1. Many lesbians use their sexual orientation so that they can obtain special privileges.
2. Lesbians seem to focus on the ways in which they differ from heterosexuals, and ignore the ways in which they are the same.
3. Lesbians do not have all the rights they need.*
4. The notion of universities providing students with undergraduate degrees in Gay and Lesbian Studies is ridiculous.
5. Celebrations such as "Gay Pride Day" are ridiculous because they assume that an individual's sexual orientation should constitute a source of pride.
6. Lesbians still need to protest for equal rights.*
7. Lesbians should stop shoving their lifestyle down other people's throats.
8. If lesbians want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture.
9. Lesbians who are "out of the closet" should be admired for their courage.*
10. Lesbians should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society, and simply get on with their lives.
11. In today's tough economic times, Canadians' tax dollars shouldn't be used to support lesbian organizations.
12. Lesbians have become far too confrontational in their demand for equal rights.

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.

Appendix C

The Modern Homophobia Scale (Homophobia-G; Raja & Stokes, 1998)

1. I wouldn't mind going to a party that included gay men.*
2. I would not mind working with a gay man.*
3. I welcome new friends who are gay.*
4. I would be sure to invite the same-sex partner of my gay male friend to my party.*
5. I won't associate with a gay man for fear of catching AIDS.
6. I don't think it would negatively affect our relationship if I learned that one of my close relatives was gay.*
7. I am comfortable with the thought of two men being romantically involved.*
8. I would remove my child from class if I found out the teacher was gay.
9. It's all right with me if I see two men holding hands.*
10. Male homosexuality is a psychological disease.
11. Physicians and psychologists should strive to find a cure for male homosexuality.
12. Gay men should undergo therapy to change their sexual orientation.
13. Gay men could be heterosexual if they really wanted to be.
14. I don't mind companies using openly gay male celebrities to advertise their products.*
15. I would not vote for a political candidate who was openly gay.
16. Hospitals shouldn't hire gay male doctors.
17. Gay men shouldn't be allowed to join the military.
18. Movies that approve of male homosexuality bother me.
19. Gay men should not be allowed to be leaders in religious organizations.
20. Marriages between two gay men should be legal.*
21. I am tired of hearing about gay men's problems.
22. Gay men want too many rights.

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored. Items 1-9 represent the Personal Discomfort Subscale; Items 10-13 represent the Deviance/Changeability Subscale; Items 14-22 represent the Institutional Homophobia Subscale.

Appendix C cont'd

The Modern Homophobia Scale (Homophobia-L; Raja & Stokes, 1998)

1. Employers should provide health care benefits to the partners of their lesbian employees.*
2. Teachers should try to reduce their students' prejudice toward lesbians.*
3. Lesbians who adopt children do not need to be monitored more closely than heterosexual parents.*
4. Lesbians should not be allowed to be leaders in religious organizations.
5. Lesbians are as capable as heterosexuals of forming long-term romantic relationships.*
6. School curricula should include positive discussion of lesbian topics.*
7. Marriages between two lesbians should be legal.*
8. Lesbians should not be allowed to join the military.
9. I would not vote for a political candidate who was openly lesbian.
10. Lesbians are incapable of being good parents.
11. I am tired of hearing about lesbians' problems.
12. I wouldn't mind going to a party that included lesbians.*
13. I wouldn't mind working with a lesbian.*
14. I am comfortable with the thought of two women being romantically involved.*
15. It's all right with me if I see two women holding hands.*
16. If my best female friend were dating a woman, it would not upset me.*
17. Movies that approve of female homosexuality bother me.
18. I welcome new friends who are lesbian.*
19. I don't mind companies using openly lesbian celebrities to advertise their products.*
20. I would be sure to invite the same-sex partner of my lesbian friend to my party.*
21. I don't think it would negatively affect our relationship if I learned that one of my close relatives was a lesbian.*
22. Physicians and psychologists should strive to find a cure for female homosexuality.
23. Lesbians should undergo therapy to change their sexual orientation.
24. Female homosexuality is a psychological disease.

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored. Items 1-11 represent the Institutional Homophobia Subscale; Items 12-21 represent the Personal Discomfort Subscale; Items 22-24 represent the Deviance/Changeability Subscale.

Appendix D

The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPRS; Dunton & Fazio, 1997)

1. In today's society it is important that one not be perceived as prejudiced in any manner.
2. I always express my thoughts and feelings, regardless of how controversial they might be.*
3. I get angry with myself when I have a thought or feeling that might be considered prejudiced.
4. If I were participating in a class discussion and an African American student expressed an opinion with which I disagreed, I would be hesitant to express my own viewpoint.
5. Going through life worrying about whether you might offend someone is just more trouble than it's worth.*
6. It's important to me that other people not think I'm prejudiced.
7. I feel it's important to behave according to society's standards.
8. I'm careful not to offend my friends, but I don't worry about offending people I don't know or don't like.*
9. I think that it is important to speak one's mind rather than to worry about offending someone.*
10. It's never acceptable to express one's prejudices.
11. I feel guilty when I have a negative thought or feeling about an African American person.
12. When speaking to an African American person, it's important to me that he or she not think I'm prejudiced.
13. It bothers me a great deal when I think I've offended someone, so I'm always careful to consider other people's feelings.
14. If I have a prejudiced thought or feeling, I keep it to myself.
15. I would never tell jokes that might offend others.
16. I'm not afraid to tell others what I think, even when I know they disagree with me.*
17. If someone who made me uncomfortable sat next to me on a bus, I would not hesitate to move to another seat.*

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored. Items 1, 3, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 represent the Concern about Appearing Prejudiced Subscale; Items 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 16, 17 represent the Restraint to Avoid Dispute Subscale.

Appendix E

Recruitment Text

Hello, my name is Melanie Morrison, and I am a doctoral student in psychology. I am collecting data for my Ph.D. thesis, and am wondering if you would be willing to assist me by completing my questionnaire. In social psychology, we often distribute questionnaires as a way of examining people's attitudes toward specific topics and how these attitudes change over time.

My questionnaire is looking at individuals' attitudes towards minorities, primarily gay men and lesbians. In addition, we will be asking you to complete some demographic questions (e.g., your age, gender, and sexual orientation), as well as some sociodemographic questions (e.g., academic major and political orientation).

When we ask questions about minorities, we recognize that these topics are sensitive, and for some individuals, these questions may be extremely delicate. I ask then, that you consider whether you want to participate in the study. If your mind is not entirely made up at this point, allow me to tell you a bit more about what is required should you decide to participate.

The questionnaire takes approximately 20-25 minutes to complete; however, some of you may finish in less time. On the first page of the questionnaire there is an information sheet that will provide salient information about the study. On the second page there is an informed consent sheet. It is imperative that you read the information contained in this form carefully. I ask that you sign your name at the bottom of the sheet if you are going to participate. Following the informed consent sheet is the questionnaire itself.

I want to highlight that you are under no obligation to participate...there is no penalty for not participating. Also, if there is any item that you do not want to answer, please leave it blank. If you do not wish to participate, please feel free to leave the classroom at any time, read your class notes, or complete any other work that you may have. Also, there will be no penalty or negative effects associated with any of these actions.

If you decide to participate, your responses will not be individually identified. Why is this? Because *no identifying information appears on the questionnaire*. We keep the informed consent sheets (where you do sign your name) separate from the actual questionnaire. As a result, *your individual responses remain confidential*. You will also remain anonymous throughout the entire process from data collection, to data entry, to data analysis. For example, when we analyze *the data*, all of them are *grouped, or aggregated*, and therefore, individual responses cannot be identified. When you have finished the questionnaire, we will collect them. We ask that you hand in one copy of the informed consent sheet with the questionnaire for our records. Keep one copy of the informed consent sheet for yourself.

If you have any questions about the survey, please raise your hand. Take your time and remember, this is not a test of any kind. Also, if you would like to talk with me afterward about the questionnaire, or would like to contact me individually at a later date, please note my extension number here at the University. Results of the study will be available by December 15th, 2000 (location is provided on the informed consent sheet). We will begin handing out the questionnaires now.

Appendix E Cont'd

Information Sheet (Appearing on Front of Each Questionnaire)

Thank you for volunteering to participate in the study. The primary purpose of the study is to assess individuals' attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. We will also be looking at your opinions regarding equality and fairness. When we ask questions about minorities, we recognize that these topics are sensitive. And for some individuals, these questions may be extremely delicate. You are under no obligation to participate, and you can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. If you do not wish to participate, please feel free to leave the classroom, read your class notes, or complete any other work that you may have. Also, there will be no penalty or negative effects associated with any of these actions.

If you are participating, we want to stress that this is NOT a test. Therefore, please answer the questions as honestly as possible. The anonymity and confidentiality of your responses will be safeguarded at all times. Please read the questions carefully. Also, if you have any questions, please ask for assistance.

Next, you will turn to the informed consent sheet. I ask that you read the terms carefully and provide your signature at the bottom of the page if you consent to participate.

Thanks Again

Appendix E Cont'd

Informed Consent Sheet

Principal Investigator: Melanie A. Morrison, MSc. is conducting research for her Ph.D. thesis and is supervised by Dr. Michel Girodo at the University of Ottawa, Faculty of Social Sciences, School of Psychology.

Location and Contact Number: Mont Petit 416A (above the gym); 562-5800 (ext. 4304) /Dr. Girodo (ext. 4290)

E-mail address: melanie_psychology@hotmail.com OR girodo@uottawa.ca

The purpose of the study is to examine how you feel about gay men and lesbians. In addition, we will be asking you to complete some demographic questions (e.g., age, gender, and sexual orientation), as well as some sociodemographic questions (e.g., academic major and political orientation). The last page of the questionnaire asks about your degree of contact with gay men or lesbians (e.g., "I have an acquaintance of the same sex whom I know is either gay/lesbian").

I, _____, am interested in collaborating in the research conducted by Melanie A. Morrison of the School of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Ottawa, and her assistants.

If I decide to participate in the study, I understand that I will be asked to complete a questionnaire of approximately 25 minutes in duration. I also understand that I am under no obligation to participate in this study, and I can leave questions unanswered. I can also withdraw from the study at any time, without penalty. My decision to not participate in the study, to not answer all of the questions, or to withdraw from the study, will not affect me negatively in any way (e.g., grade in this course, treatment by researchers).

All of the information collected from the questionnaires will remain strictly confidential. In other words, only the researchers associated with this project will see this information. They will only be using the information collected in the study for research purposes. In reporting findings from the study, the researchers will only provide general statements about the results and will remove all identifying information. They will never reveal the identity of the individual participants in the study.

There are two copies of the consent form one, that the researchers keep, and one that I keep. If I have any questions or concerns about this study, I can contact Ms. Lise Frigault, Research Protocol Officer at the University of Ottawa. She can be reached at (613) 562-5800 (ext. 1787). The researchers have also included a list of resource materials and contact persons in the questionnaire package.

By signing below, I agree to be part of this study.

PARTICIPANT'S SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

RESEARCHER'S SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

I wish to receive a summary of the findings of this research that will be made available to me by *December 15th, 2000* at the following address: Mont Petit 416A (posted outside of door), School of Psychology, University of Ottawa. Please note that the summary will be removed by *January 10th, 2001*.

Appendix E Cont'd (Gay Men Questionnaire)

PART ONE**Please Provide the Following Information**

1. Gender (1=male; 2=female) _____
2. Age _____
3. Year of University (e.g., 1st) _____
4. Major (e.g., biology) _____
5. By my own definition, I would consider myself to be: (select one)

Very conservative	_____
Conservative	_____
Somewhat conservative	_____
Somewhat liberal	_____
Liberal	_____
Very liberal	_____
Don't know	_____

6. Generally, I consider myself to be: (select one)

Exclusively heterosexual	_____
Primarily heterosexual	_____
More heterosexual than homosexual	_____
Bisexual	_____
More homosexual than heterosexual	_____
Primarily homosexual	_____
Exclusively homosexual	_____
Don't know	_____

7. By my own definition, I would consider myself to be: (select one)

Very religious	_____
Somewhat religious	_____
Slightly religious	_____
Not at all religious	_____
Don't know	_____

PART TWO

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Don't know
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

8. Discrimination against women in the labour force is no longer a problem in the United States.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I wouldn't mind going to a party that included gay men.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Male homosexual couples should be allowed to adopt children the same as heterosexual couples.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I would not mind working with a gay man.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Women's requests in terms of equality between the sexes are simply exaggerated.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Gay men do not have all the rights they need.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Universities are wrong to admit women in costly programs such as medicine when in fact a large number will leave their jobs after a few years to raise their children.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I welcome new friends who are gay.	1	2	3	4	5
18. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause in the marriage service.	1	2	3	4	5
19. In order not to appear sexist, many men are inclined to overcompensate women.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Just as in other species, male homosexuality is a natural expression of sexuality in human men.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I would be sure to invite the same-sex partner of my gay male friend to my party.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

22. Over the past few years, women have gotten more from the government than they deserve.	1	2	3	4	5
23. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.	1	2	3	4	5
24. It is difficult to work for a female boss.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I won't associate with a gay man for fear of catching AIDS.	1	2	3	4	5
26. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I don't think it would negatively affect our relationship if I learned that one of my close relatives was gay.	1	2	3	4	5
28. The idea of male homosexual marriages seems ridiculous to me.	1	2	3	4	5
29. The notion of universities providing students with undergraduate degrees in Gay and Lesbian Studies is ridiculous.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I am comfortable with the thought of two men being romantically involved.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I would remove my child from class if I found out the teacher was gay.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Male homosexuality is a perversion.	1	2	3	4	5
34. If I had a son, I would not be too upset if I learned that he was homosexual.	1	2	3	4	5
35. In a fair employment system, men and women would be considered equal.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

36. Gay men have become far too confrontational in their demand for equal rights.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Due to social pressures, firms frequently have to hire underqualified women.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Celebrations such as "Gay Pride Day" are ridiculous because they assume that an individual's sexual orientation should constitute a source of pride.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Gay men should stop shoving their lifestyle down other people's throats.	1	2	3	4	5
40. A woman should not expect to go exactly the same places or have quite the same freedom of action as a man.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I consider the present employment system to be unfair to women.	1	2	3	4	5
42. It's all right with me if I see two men holding hands.	1	2	3	4	5
43. If a man has homosexual feelings, he should do everything he can to overcome them.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Homosexual behaviour between two men is just plain wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Male homosexuality is a psychological disease.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Physicians and psychologists should strive to find a cure for male homosexuality.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Gay men should undergo therapy to change their sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Hospitals shouldn't hire gay male doctors.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 51. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and a man to darn socks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. Gay men seem to focus on the ways in which they differ from heterosexuals, and ignore the ways in which they are similar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 53. Gay men who are "out of the closet" should be admired for their courage. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 54. Many gay men use their sexual orientation so that they can obtain special rights and privileges. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 55. Women shouldn't push themselves where they are not wanted. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 56. Women will make more progress by being patient and not pushing too hard for change. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 57. Gay men could be heterosexual if they really wanted to be. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 58. I don't mind companies using openly gay male celebrities to advertise their products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 59. I would not vote for a political candidate who was openly gay. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 60. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 61. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 62. Gay men still need to protest for equal rights. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 63. Gay men want too many rights. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 64. Gay men should not be allowed to be leaders in religious organizations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

65. Male homosexuals should not be allowed to teach at schools.	1	2	3	4	5
66. Any laws regulating private, consenting gay male behaviour should be loosened.	1	2	3	4	5
67. Movies that approve of male homosexuality bother me.	1	2	3	4	5
68. Gay men shouldn't be allowed to join the military.	1	2	3	4	5
69. In today's tough economic times, Americans' tax dollars shouldn't be used to support gay men's organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
70. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up the children.	1	2	3	4	5
71. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.	1	2	3	4	5
72. Marriages between two gay men should be legal.	1	2	3	4	5
73. I think male homosexuals are disgusting.	1	2	3	4	5
74. If gay men want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture.	1	2	3	4	5
75. Gay men should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society, and simply get on with their lives.	1	2	3	4	5
76. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.	1	2	3	4	5
77. Male homosexuality is merely a different kind of lifestyle that should not be condemned.	1	2	3	4	5
78. Gay men often miss out on good jobs due to discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

79. It is rare to see gay men treated in a stereotyped manner on television.	1	2	3	4	5
80. Society has reached the point where gay men have equal opportunities for achievement.	1	2	3	4	5
81. I am tired of hearing about gay men's problems.	1	2	3	4	5
82. It is easy to understand the anger of gay men's groups in the United States.	1	2	3	4	5
83. Over the past few years, the government and news media have been showing more concern about the treatment of gay men than is warranted by gay men's actual experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
84. Discrimination against gay men is no longer a problem in the United States.	1	2	3	4	5
85. On average, people in our society treat gay men and heterosexual men equally.	1	2	3	4	5
86. It is easy to understand why gay men's groups are still concerned about the limitations society places on their opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
87. In today's society it is important that one not be perceived as prejudiced in any manner.	1	2	3	4	5
88. I always express my thoughts and feelings, regardless of how controversial they might be.	1	2	3	4	5
89. I get angry with myself when I have a thought or feeling that might be considered prejudiced.	1	2	3	4	5
90. If I were participating in a class discussion and an African American student expressed an opinion with which I disagreed, I would be hesitant to express my own viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5
91. Going through life worrying about whether you might offend someone is just more trouble than it's worth.	1	2	3	4	5

After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 92. It's important to me that other people not think I'm prejudiced. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 93. I feel it's important to behave according to society's standards. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 94. I'm careful not to offend my friends, but I don't worry about offending people I don't know or don't like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 95. I think that it is important to speak one's mind rather than to worry about offending someone. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 96. It's never acceptable to express one's prejudices. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 97. I feel guilty when I have a negative thought or feeling about an African American person. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 98. When speaking to an African American person, it's important to me that he or she not think I'm prejudiced. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 99. It bothers me a great deal when I think I've offended someone, so I'm always careful to consider other people's feelings. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 100. If I have a prejudiced thought or feeling, I keep it to myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 101. I would never tell jokes that might offend others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 102. I'm not afraid to tell others what I think, even when I know they disagree with me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 103. If someone who made me uncomfortable sat next to me on a bus, I would not hesitate to move to another seat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

PART THREE: NEW DIRECTIONS

After each statement, please circle "true" or "false"

- | | | |
|---|------|-------|
| 104. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. | True | False |
| 105. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. | True | False |
| 106. I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability. | True | False |
| 107. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right. | True | False |
| 108. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. | True | False |
| 109. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. | True | False |
| 110. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. | True | False |
| 111. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. | True | False |
| 112. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. | True | False |
| 113. I have never been irritated when people expressed ideas very different from my own. | True | False |
| 114. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. | True | False |
| 115. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me. | True | False |
| 116. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. | True | False |

PART FOUR: NEW DIRECTIONS

After each statement, please circle "yes" or "no"

1. My friends would feel comfortable associating with gay men. Yes No
2. My friends would feel comfortable associating with lesbians. Yes No
- 3a. I have an acquaintance of the *same sex* whom I know is either gay/lesbian. Yes No
- 3b. If yes, how many acquaintances of the *same sex*? (please provide a number) _____
- 4a. I have an acquaintance of the *opposite sex* whom I know is either gay/lesbian. Yes No
- 4b. If yes, how many acquaintances of the *opposite sex*? (please provide a number) _____
- 5a. I have a close friend of the *same sex* whom I know is gay/lesbian. Yes No
- 5b. If yes, how many close friends of the *same sex*? (please provide a number) _____
- 6a. I have a close friend of the *opposite sex* whom I know is gay/lesbian. Yes No
- 6b. If yes, how many close friends of the *opposite sex*? (please provide a number) _____
7. I would feel comfortable if a friend of the *same sex* told me he/she was gay/lesbian. Yes No
8. I would feel comfortable if a friend of the *opposite sex* told me he/she was gay/lesbian. Yes No
9. I would approve if someone in my extended family (e.g., cousin) were to disclose that he/she was either gay/lesbian. Yes No
10. I would approve if someone in my immediate family (e.g., sister, brother) were to disclose that he/she was either gay/lesbian. Yes No

11. Please provide a number between 0° and 100° to indicate how you feel about gay men.

0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°	100°
extremely unfavourable	very	quite	fairly	slightly	neither favourable nor unfavourable	slightly	fairly	quite	very	extremely favourable

Appendix E Cont'd (Lesbian Women Questionnaire)

PART ONE**Please Provide the Following Information**

1. Gender (1=male; 2=female) _____
2. Age _____
3. Year of University (e.g., 1st) _____
4. Major (e.g., biology) _____
5. By my own definition, I would consider myself to be: (select one)

Very conservative	_____
Conservative	_____
Somewhat conservative	_____
Somewhat liberal	_____
Liberal	_____
Very liberal	_____
Don't know	_____

6. Generally, I consider myself to be: (select one)

Exclusively heterosexual	_____
Primarily heterosexual	_____
More heterosexual than homosexual	_____
Bisexual	_____
More homosexual than heterosexual	_____
Primarily homosexual	_____
Exclusively homosexual	_____
Don't know	_____

7. By my own definition, I would consider myself to be: (select one)

Very religious	_____
Somewhat religious	_____
Slightly religious	_____
Not at all religious	_____
Don't know	_____

PART TWO

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

8. Discrimination against women in the labour force is no longer a problem in the United States.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Employees should provide health care benefits to the partners of their lesbian employees.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Teachers should try to reduce their students' prejudice toward lesbians.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Female homosexuality is detrimental to society because it breaks down the natural divisions between the sexes.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Women's requests in terms of equality between the sexes are simply exaggerated.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Lesbians do not have all the rights they need.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Universities are wrong to admit women in costly programs such as medicine when in fact a large number will leave their jobs after a few years to raise their children.	1	2	3	4	5
17. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause in the marriage service.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Lesbians who adopt children do not need to be monitored more closely than heterosexual parents.	1	2	3	4	5
19. In order not to appear sexist, many men are inclined to overcompensate women.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Lesbians should not be allowed to be leaders in religious organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Marriages between two lesbians should be legal.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

22. Over the past few years, women have gotten more from the government than they deserve.	1	2	3	4	5
23. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Lesbians are as capable as heterosexuals of forming long-term romantic relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
25. It is difficult to work for a female boss.	1	2	3	4	5
26. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.	1	2	3	4	5
27. A woman's homosexuality should not be a cause for job discrimination in any situation.	1	2	3	4	5
28. The notion of universities providing students with undergraduate degrees in Gay and Lesbian Studies is ridiculous.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Female homosexuality in itself is no problem, but what society makes of it can be a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
31. In a fair employment system, men and women would be considered equal.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Female homosexuality is an inferior form of sexuality.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Due to social pressures, firms frequently have to hire underqualified women.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Celebrations such as "Gay Pride Day" are ridiculous because they assume that an individual's sexual orientation should constitute a source of pride.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Lesbians should stop shoving their lifestyle down other people's throats.	1	2	3	4	5

After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

36. A woman should not expect to go exactly the same places or have quite the same freedom of action as a man.	1	2	3	4	5
37. School curricula should include positive discussion of lesbian topics.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I consider the present employment system to be unfair to women.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Female homosexuality is a threat to many of our basic social institutions.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Female homosexuality is a sin.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.	1	2	3	4	5
43. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and a man to darn socks.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lesbians seem to focus on the ways in which they differ from heterosexuals, and ignore the ways in which they are similar.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Lesbians just can't fit into our society.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Many lesbians use their sexual orientation so that they can obtain special rights and privileges.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Women shouldn't push themselves where they are not wanted.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Women will make more progress by being patient and not pushing too hard for change.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I wouldn't mind working with a lesbian.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

51. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Lesbians still need to protest for equal rights.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Any laws regulating private, consenting lesbian behaviour should be loosened.	1	2	3	4	5
54. The growing number of lesbians indicates a decline in American morals.	1	2	3	4	5
55. Lesbians have become far too confrontational in their demand for equal rights.	1	2	3	4	5
56. Lesbians should not be allowed to join the military.	1	2	3	4	5
57. I would not vote for a political candidate who was openly lesbian.	1	2	3	4	5
58. Lesbians who are "out of the closet" should be admired for their courage.	1	2	3	4	5
59. In today's tough economic times, Americans' tax dollars shouldn't be used to support lesbian organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
60. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up the children.	1	2	3	4	5
61. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.	1	2	3	4	5
62. Lesbians are sick.	1	2	3	4	5
63. If lesbians want to be treated like everyone else, then they need to stop making such a fuss about their sexuality/culture.	1	2	3	4	5
64. Lesbians should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society, and simply get on with their lives.	1	2	3	4	5
65. Lesbians are incapable of being good parents.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

66. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.	1	2	3	4	5
67. In today's society it is important that one not be perceived as prejudiced in any manner.	1	2	3	4	5
68. I always express my thoughts and feelings, regardless of how controversial they might be.	1	2	3	4	5
69. I am tired of hearing about lesbians' problems.	1	2	3	4	5
70. I wouldn't mind going to a party that included lesbians.	1	2	3	4	5
71. I get angry with myself when I have a thought or feeling that might be considered prejudiced.	1	2	3	4	5
72. I am comfortable with the thought of two women being romantically involved.	1	2	3	4	5
73. It's all right with me if I see two women holding hands.	1	2	3	4	5
74. If I were participating in a class discussion and an African American student expressed an opinion with which I disagreed, I would be hesitant to express my own viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5
75. If my best female friend was dating a woman, it would not upset me.	1	2	3	4	5
76. Movies that approve of female homosexuality bother me.	1	2	3	4	5
77. I welcome new friends who are lesbian.	1	2	3	4	5
78. I don't mind companies using openly lesbian celebrities to advertise their products.	1	2	3	4	5
79. I would be sure to invite the same-sex partner of my lesbian friend to my party.	1	2	3	4	5
80. I don't think it would negatively affect our relationship if I learned that one of my close relatives was lesbian.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

81. Discrimination against lesbians is no longer a problem in the United States.	1	2	3	4	5
82. Lesbians often miss out on good jobs due to discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
83. Physicians and psychologists should strive to find a cure for female homosexuality.	1	2	3	4	5
84. It is rare to see lesbians treated in a stereotyped manner on television.	1	2	3	4	5
85. On average, people in our society treat lesbians and heterosexual women equally.	1	2	3	4	5
86. Society has reached the point where lesbians and heterosexual women have equal opportunities for achievement.	1	2	3	4	5
87. Lesbians should undergo therapy to change their sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
88. It is easy to understand the anger of lesbian groups in the United States.	1	2	3	4	5
89. It is easy to understand why lesbian groups are still concerned about the limitations society places on their opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
90. Over the past few years, the government and news media have been showing more concern about the treatment of lesbians than is warranted by lesbians' actual experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
91. Female homosexuality is a psychological disease.	1	2	3	4	5
92. Going through life worrying about whether you might offend someone is just more trouble than it's worth.	1	2	3	4	5
93. It's important to me that other people not think I'm prejudiced.	1	2	3	4	5

**After each statement, please circle the number
which best represents your opinion**

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Don't know

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

94. I feel it's important to behave according to society's standards.	1	2	3	4	5
95. I'm careful not to offend my friends, but I don't worry about offending people I don't know or don't like.	1	2	3	4	5
96. I think that it is important to speak one's mind rather than to worry about offending someone.	1	2	3	4	5
97. It's never acceptable to express one's prejudices.	1	2	3	4	5
98. I feel guilty when I have a negative thought or feeling about an African American person.	1	2	3	4	5
99. When speaking to an African American person, it's important to me that he/she not think I'm prejudiced.	1	2	3	4	5
100. It bothers me a great deal when I think I've offended someone so I'm always careful to consider other people's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
101. If I have a prejudiced thought or feeling, I keep it to myself.	1	2	3	4	5
102. I would never tell jokes that might offend others.	1	2	3	4	5
103. I'm not afraid to tell others what I think, even when I think they disagree with me.	1	2	3	4	5
104. If someone who made me uncomfortable sat next to me on a bus, I would not hesitate to move to another seat.	1	2	3	4	5

PART THREE: NEW DIRECTIONS**After each statement, please circle "true" or "false"**

- | | | |
|---|------|-------|
| 105. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. | True | False |
| 106. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. | True | False |
| 107. I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability. | True | False |
| 108. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right. | True | False |
| 109. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. | True | False |
| 110. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. | True | False |
| 111. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. | True | False |
| 112. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. | True | False |
| 113. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. | True | False |
| 114. I have never been irritated when people expressed ideas very different from my own. | True | False |
| 115. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. | True | False |
| 116. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me. | True | False |
| 117. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. | True | False |

PART FOUR: NEW DIRECTIONS

After each statement, please circle "yes" or "no"

- | | | |
|--|-------|----|
| 1. My friends would feel comfortable associating with gay men | Yes | No |
| 2. My friends would feel comfortable associating with lesbians | Yes | No |
| 3a. I have an acquaintance of the <i>same sex</i> whom I know is either gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 3b. If yes, how many acquaintances of the <i>same sex</i> ? (please provide a number) | _____ | |
| 4a. I have an acquaintance of the <i>opposite sex</i> whom I know is either gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 4b. If yes, how many acquaintances of the <i>opposite sex</i> ? (please provide a number) | _____ | |
| 5a. I have a close friend of the <i>same sex</i> whom I know is gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 5b. If yes, how many close friends of the <i>same sex</i> ? (please provide a number) | _____ | |
| 6a. I have a close friend of the <i>opposite sex</i> whom I know is gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 6b. If yes, how many close friends of the <i>opposite sex</i> ? (please provide a number) | _____ | |
| 7. I would feel comfortable if a friend of the <i>same sex</i> told me he/she was gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 8. I would feel comfortable if a friend of the <i>opposite sex</i> told me he/she was gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 9. I would approve if someone in my extended family (e.g., cousin) were to disclose that he/she was either gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |
| 10. I would approve if someone in my immediate family (e.g., sister, brother) were to disclose that he/she was either gay/lesbian. | Yes | No |

11. Please provide a number between 0° and 100° to indicate how you feel about lesbians in general.

0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°	100°
extremely unfavourable	very	quite	fairly	slightly	neither favourable nor unfavourable	slightly	fairly	quite	very	extremely favourable

Appendix F

The Attitudes Toward Women Scale (ATWS - short form; Spence et al., 1973)

1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.
2. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.*
3. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause in the marriage service.*
4. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.*
5. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.
6. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.*
7. A woman should not expect to go exactly the same places or have quite the same freedom of action as a man.
8. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.
9. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.
10. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.*
11. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expenses when they go out together.*
12. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.
13. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up the children.
14. Economic and social freedom are worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.*
15. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.

Appendix G

Neosexism Scale (NS; Tougas et al., 1995)

1. Discrimination against women in the labour force is no longer a problem in Canada.
2. I consider the present employment system to be unfair to women.*
3. Women shouldn't push themselves where they are not wanted.
4. Women will make more progress by being patient and not pushing too hard for change.
5. It is difficult to work for a female boss.
6. Women's requests in terms of equality between the sexes are simply exaggerated.
7. Over the past few years, women have gotten more from the government than they deserve.
8. Universities are wrong to admit women in costly programs such as medicine, when in fact a large number will leave their jobs after a few years to raise their children.
9. In order not to appear sexist, many men are inclined to overcompensate women.
10. Due to social pressures, firms frequently have to hire underqualified women.
11. In a fair employment system, men and women should be considered equal.*

Note: Items with an asterisk are reverse scored.