

THE NOTION OF MASCULINITY IN MALE COLLEGIATE ROAD CYCLISTS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to look at notions of masculinity in male collegiate road cyclists and assess the masculinity scores of cyclist in one of the ten collegiate cycling conferences in the U.S. This study utilizes the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI, long form) to evaluate the masculinity scores of male collegiate road cyclists in order to open the discussion of masculinity as it pertains to cycling. Thirty-two male subjects, in the conference, participated in the study. Results show a BSRI t-ratio score of -10.41 , statistically different from that of the established norms of -6.33 ($p < 0.05$). Conclusions are that male collegiate cyclists although androgynous, are generally more masculine than the established normal population.

The last decade has witnessed a recent movement in men's studies and a growing popularity of investigating different forms of masculinity and their consequences for men (Beal 1996). The present study examines masculinity and how it pertains to male collegiate road cyclists. Cycling is a popular sport with much research having been done regarding the science of optimal performance. However, sociological aspects of the sport are sparse and masculinity studies have yet to stretch to the sport of cycling. This study seeks to redress the imbalance in cycling research.

Road cycling is an interesting activity in terms of masculinity. The sport of cycling contains the tight, flamboyant colored spandex clothing, leg shaving and the slim, lean bodies that could be construed as feminine. In comparison, there is an overtly heterosexual environment and testosterone pumped racing that can be dangerous and exciting, which seems contradictory to the cyclist's appearance. In order to look at and discuss masculinity in collegiate road cyclists in one of the ten collegiate cycling conferences in the United States, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI, reproduced with permission, Consulting Psychologists Press) was utilized to evaluate masculinity scores of road cyclists.

The Bem Sex Role Inventory, initially published in 1974 in the *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* (Bem 1978, 1981), was used to rate male collegiate road cyclists on a sex scale that could be compared to an established, normal population. The BSRI was one of the first sex tests published that was "specifically designed to provide independent measures of the individual's masculinity and femininity" (Lenny 1991

576). To date, reliability and validity tests on the BSRI are reported as high, and although the notion of masculinity is ever changing, it is the most often used measure in this type of research suggesting that it tests current masculinity ideals relevant to today's society (Lenny 1991).

THEORY

The theory behind the development of the BSRI purports that culture defines what is masculine and feminine, and that these are two random components that the BSRI is designed to assess. Specifically, the BSRI measures the degree "to which individuals endorse these heterogeneous cultural clusters as self-descriptive" (Lenny 1991 594). Much evidence to the ever-changing notion of masculinity will be presented that supports this view.

Analyzing masculinity, whether within the realm of sport or not, needs to be put into the context of the society in which the sport is played, and in which the participants of the sport play it. Kimmel (2001) discusses the notion of global masculinities, how they are created and how they try to resist change. He argues that masculinity is not a constant for all places and all times, but rather is an ever-changing fluid pool of concepts and behaviors that vary dramatically.

Masculinity and sport are two factors that seem intertwined. Frank (1999 221) argues that there are three sites of practice in which masculinity stands out as important: "the body, sports and sexuality." Sport and masculinity are inextricable linked, with sports said to be an arena where "traditional notions of masculinity can be reestablished and reproduced" (White & Gillett 1994 36). In fact,

it has been argued that

organized sports, as a public spectacle, is a crucial locus around which ideologies of male superiority... are constructed and naturalized. (Messner 1989a 80)

As Beal (1996 205) states, "sport is one of the most significant institutions of male bonding and male initiation rites." Furthermore, Messner, Dunbar and Hunt (2000) describe *real men* as winners, suggesting that to succeed in sport, against other men, heightens notions of masculinity.

If hegemonic masculinity were to have one defining visual representation, for sure it would be that of musculature. White & Gillett (1994) looked at masculinity in terms of muscularity when they decoded advertisements in *Flex* magazine. They argue idealistic masculinity is portrayed as being muscular (1994 20) and that men seek to attain this idea of the body beautiful in order to convey a masculine image.

From the many allusions to masculinity found in the literature, masculinity can be described as being hard, fast, strong, powerful, aggressive and tough; as successful ("winning isn't everything; it's the only thing" Messner 1989b 59), dominant and controlling; by being competitive, athletic and active; dangerous and risky; masculine, muscular, and above all masculinity is purported to be heterosexual (Beal 1996; Koivula 2001; Laberge & Albert 1999; Messner 1989a, 1989b; Messner *et al.* 2000; Trujillo 1995; Whannel 1999; and White & Gillett 1994). Moreover, the feminine must be suppressed (Gay 1992).

The notion of masculinity can be a very difficult idea to comprehend, with many values making up the ideal masculine image. Tensions within those that do not fit into its values are bound to exist. Frank (1999) argues that trying to become the ideal hegemonic male is full of struggles and tensions and that changing notions of masculinity makes this difficult. Gay (1992) outlines further tensions resulting from the suppression of the feminine within since this leads to a distortion of masculine characteristics.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Masculinity did not undergo extensive analysis till the mid-1980s (Whannel 1999), and since then sport has played a key role in

its construction and maintenance. Although no research could be found specifically in the area of cycling and masculinity, a study by Koivula (1995) looked to classify 60 different sports on gender appropriateness, including cycling. The study classified cycling as gender-neutral (Koivula 1995; see also Parsons & Betz 2001; Meaney, Dornier & Owens 2002). Furthering her work, Koivula (2001) looked at all of the sports classified previously and how these sports and those in these sports were characterized. Her classifications were rated on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1, "not at all characteristic of the sport/sport participant" to 7, "very much characteristic of the sport/sport participant" (2001 379). Koivula questioned 403 participants. Cycling, already defined as being gender-neutral, did not show any particularly high or low scores on the twelve factor-based scales. The highest score received was for strength and endurance (5.7 out of 7) with the lowest score interestingly being on the aesthetics and femininity scale (2.0 out of 7).

Masculine defined sports tend to display features that are characteristically perceived as dangerous, risky or violent, involve a team spirit, speed, have elements of strength or endurance, and are perceived to be masculine (Koivula 2001). In her recent work then, Koivula found cycling to be perceived as somewhere in the middle of the rating scale for masculinity, suggesting that it holds only certain aspects of the masculine definition.

Sport is one of the most popular mediated images, and American football is one of the most watched sports and thus serves as an important arena in which to look at masculinity. Trujillo (1995) studied an entire season of ABC's *Monday Night Football* program, finding considerable masculine laden overtures from the commentators. His study not only highlighted more universal notions of masculinity such as aggression and power, but also aspects of masculinity relating to "rigorous training techniques" and the importance of practicing (1995 407).

Messner *et al.* (2000) studied televised sports content, aimed at and viewed by a heavily young male audience, to determine the dominant themes that lie therein. Messner *et al.* (2000 381) argue "sports programming presents boys with narrow and stereotypical messages about race, gender, and violence". Specifically, they argued that viewers are continually absorbed in images and

commentary regarding the positive rewards that come from playing aggressively. Renzetti & Curran (1999) argue that media sports reporting emphasizes toughness and courage.

Messner *et al.* (2000) found that sports created what they termed the 'televised sports manhood formula.' This is said to provide

a remarkably stable and concrete view of masculinity as grounded in bravery, risk taking, violence, bodily strength, and heterosexuality. (Messner *et al.* 2000 392)

It is unsurprising that this is the case, with previous work by Messner concurring,

sports as a mediated spectacle provides an important context in which traditional conceptions of masculine superiority...are shored up. (1989a 79)

Whannel (1999) studied masculinity in sports with reference to sporting stars and its narrativization in the media in the United Kingdom. He concluded that sport is a male arena in which men both largely produce it and consume it.

It is important to note that masculinity is not only existent on one level. There is more than one type of masculinity that is evident in society at any one time, but it is the hegemonic masculinity that is the concern in this review, sometimes referred to as "exclusive masculinity" (Wellard 2002 235). It is this hegemonic masculinity that will be the frame of reference for masculinity used herein. Whannel (1999) makes us aware that more than one masculinity is evident in society, and that there is a struggle with notions of masculinity in the sporting world. Whannel (1999) contends that some images of masculinity occupy a subordinate position to masculinity as a whole. As Wellard succinctly puts it:

What prevails in sport and in turn reflects wider social values is the presentation of a particular version of masculinity which is ascribed higher cultural capital and, especially in sporting practices, viewed as a 'natural' form of behavior. (2002 236-237)

Whannel also agrees with the idea that there is a struggle with notions of masculinity in the sporting world, arguing

images and representations of sport characteristically involve contestation and categorization, marginalization and incorporation of elements of masculinity. (2002 64)

Smith (2000) argues masculinity is complex and has many dimensions, however, it can be sustained in part by other, non-hegemonic attributes that contribute to its maintenance. Loberge & Albert explain,

masculine hegemony is not simply a product of the things men do but also the meanings their activities acquire through unequal social interactions. (1999 259)

Kimmel (1996) argues that historically it was through sports at the turn of the twentieth-century that men were able to define themselves as men, and that sport turned boys into men. Messner (2003 140) believes that this was due to the fear of social feminization which led to "the creation of organized sport as a homosocial sphere". Messner's work looked at the construction of a masculine identity through organized sports as a child. His findings suggest that it is at an early age when men find themselves thrust into the world of sports and are impressed upon to uphold the ideals of masculinity that lay therein.

This thrusting of young men into the sporting world suggests that it is not merely an individual choice to participate in sports, but something that is coerced in the individual. Masculinity is not formed by the individual alone, but shaped through the interaction between the individual and the society. Through organized sports, the challenged and faltering ideology of male superiority is reinforced (Messner 1988).

If masculinity were to have one defining visual representation, for sure it would be that of musculature (Gay 1992). White & Gillett (1994) looked at masculinity in terms of muscularity when they decoded advertisements in *Flex* magazine. They note that increasingly in today's capitalist society, men are "unsure about their masculine identities" (1994 19). They argue idealistic masculinity is portrayed as being muscular, in control, powerful, aggressive and violent (1994 20) and that men seek to attain this idea of the body beautiful. The establishment of a significant symbol of masculinity, such as muscularity, undermines the acceptance of alternative body

images, thus reinforcing hegemonic theories of masculinity.

In looking at male action toys and their evolving physiques, Pope, Olivardo, Gruber & Borowiecki (1999) argued that the trend over the years has seen an increase of muscularity among the figures. Pointing to the increasing problem of muscle dysmorphia amongst men, they argue it could be because men feel pressured by the fact that the male ideal is becoming increasingly more muscular. Findings from the study also show that action toys have become more muscular through the years (Pope et al 1999; see also Luciano 2001).

A study along similar lines by Jirousek, (1996) looked at the evolving visual ideals of the American football uniform, and how it represents the changing notions of what is masculine within society. She found that over time, the uniform has grown increasingly larger, especially in the shoulders, chest and thighs, yet becoming narrower in the waist, accentuating male body parts to meet ideal masculine images and posing virtually unattainable ideals for men to aspire to. It is interesting to note that at the turn of the twentieth-century the opposite was true in that excessive protective gear was not generally considered manly and therefore wide-shouldered pads were not worn.

Jirousek (1996) also discusses how men with exaggerated muscles, such as the football hero, are being replaced by athletes with more balanced proportions, such as the basketball star. This would seem to contradict current thought as to the notion of muscles and masculinity expressed by the other literature reviewed, but may highlight a changing attitude of hegemonic masculinity that could yet be seen to be expressed in the future. A more recent study by Edwards & Launder (2000) maintains that, in general males still desire to be more muscular, suggesting Jirousek's conclusions were rather hopeful.

A study of skateboarding subculture found that although a non-hegemonic masculinity was created, this revised form still elevated skateboarding as masculine by differentiating themselves from females and femininity (Beal 1996). Historically, in response to changing historical circumstances, sport was promoted as one significant means of ensuring that boys became "properly masculine." Even in the creation of new mascu-

linities, the dominant hegemonic masculine ideal that is promoted in society is evident. Within the subculture of skateboarding females had to prove their masculinity to become accepted. In creating the masculine subculture of skateboarding, the male skateboarders fashioned a culture that satisfied a need for defining themselves as different from the feminine that would normally have been met by athletics for other males (Beal 1996).

Looking at the association of masculinity with the choice to pursue, or not to pursue, athletic careers, Messner found that choices depended upon social ability to "construct a public masculine identity" (1989a 71). Messner argues that through organized sports, boundaries of identification between oneself and another is accomplished, and that masculinity serves to develop this identity. Messner believes sport represses natural similarities between sexes, constructs differences, and then weaves a structure of signs and interpretations around these differences that makes them natural (Messner 1989a). Also of note is a study by Harris & Hall (1978) who found a hierarchy within sporting athletes depending on the type of sport played. The athletes perceived to be most masculine were those involved in team sports, followed by those in individual sports and then at the bottom were the nonathletes.

The study by Laberge & Albert (1999) referenced previously, examined conceptions of masculinity and gender transgressions in sport among boys in Quebec. They found that boy's views of men undertaking participation in feminine sporting endeavors were mixed, with some responses seemingly indifferent and others attaching an "inferior status" to those men. It was argued that transgressive behaviors could be legitimate because

moral strength (in this case for facing stigmatization and discrediting by peers) and physical prowess are used as proof of masculinity. (Laberge & Albert 1999 257)

Work undertaken by Loland (1999) looked at sport specific attitudes of sportsmen to their bodies. She found that there are sport specific ideals to what the body should look like that contend hegemonic notions of the masculine ideal, but are, however, always compared to what the ideal within the hegemonic society is. Loland believes that bodily

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables (mean +/- standard deviation)

Racing Category	Age (Years)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	Body Fat %	HRS Training	Sexual Orient.
A = 34.40%	23.27 +/- 3.80	180.80 +/- 6.35	73.41 +/- 8.72	6.11 +/- 2.30	18.23 +/- 5.57	hetero 91%; 9% missing
B = 28.10%	22.22 +/- 2.22	181.74 +/- 5.70	72.02 +/- 6.84	8.16 +/- 3.44	13.06 +/- 4.69	hetero 78%; 22% missing
C = 37.50%	22.17 +/- 2.76	181.61 +/- 5.36	76.07 +/- 6.61	7.88 +/- 1.64	11.33 +/- 7.01	hetero 100%
Totals	22.56 +/- 2.98	181.37 +/- 5.64	74.01 +/- 7.41	7.17 +/- 7.41	14.20 +/- 6.50	hetero 90.63%; 9.37% missing

images that did not compare to the masculine ideal were more related to functional expressions. Importantly however, other masculine traits substituted for the lack of the ideal image.

Loland (1999) argues tensions often exist between sport-specific ideals of masculinity and societal masculine ideals in general. Sporting men often measure themselves by two standards, the predominant body ideal of the specific sport in which they participate, as well as ideals of society at large.

It is a paradox that to enhance traditional masculine virtues such as dominance and control, ski jumpers have to minimize the primary sign of masculinity, namely muscles. (Loland 1999 299)

Among the various sports that have been researched over the last decade that men's studies have become popular, cycling is a particularly interesting one to investigate due to the contradictions of norms, including dress and the feminine type behaviors of shaved legs, as well as the body structure that is in opposition to much of what is construed as masculine in our society. The present study employs the Bem Sex-Role Inventory to address masculinity in collegiate road cyclists in one of the ten collegiate cycling conferences in the United States. We rate male collegiate road cyclists on a sex scale that could be compared to an established, normal population. In looking at the notion of masculinity as it pertains to cycling in today's society, conclusions will be made regarding the hegemonic masculinity in which the study took place.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects. The sample population was male collegiate road cyclists from one of the ten collegiate cycling conferences in the United States. The population consisted of 99 male cyclists present for the conference. Subjects that agreed to volunteer in the study were handed an informed consent and questionnaire. Thirty-four subjects agreed to take part in the study, with 32 completing it. Two subjects were removed from the study after defacing questionnaires.

Data collection. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI, long form) was used to ascertain the mean sex *t*-ratio score for the sample

Table 2: BSRI Scores

	Masculinity scale	Femininity scale	t-ratio
1978 Stanford normative sample	Mean 5.12	Mean 4.59	-6.33 +/- 13.73
	Median 5.10	Median 4.60	
	+/- 0.65	+/- 0.55	
Male collegiate road cyclists	Mean 5.27	Mean 4.47	-10.41* +/- 10.87
	Median 5.33	Median 4.63	
	+/- 0.64	+/- 0.57	

*Statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$).

group. Reproduction rights were obtained from appropriate sources. Reliability and validity of the BSRI has been tested and is shown to be high (Lenny 1991). At registration for the conference championships, in the spring of 2003, the consent form and BSRI were administered to participants. To test for possible spurious relationships between masculinity and cycling the questionnaire also contained descriptive questions that pertain to the subject's age, height, weight, body fat percentage, total training hours per week, race category and sexual orientation (see Appendix). Completed questionnaires were collated and the BSRI was analyzed.

Statistics. Using Bem (1978, 1981), data was converted to standard scores for masculine and feminine scores, and overall t -ratio scores, in order for analysis. Microsoft Excel with *Stats Plus v2.5* add-in software was used to analyze the data, with significance (\bar{U}) set at $p < 0.05$. A 1x3 ANOVA was performed on the BSRI t -ratio scores broken down by rider category.

Results showed that no significant differences were evident between any of the categories ($p > 0.05$), illustrating that the groups were homogenous, and thus data was collapsed and analyzed together. A one-sample t -test was then performed to compare the mean t -ratio score of the entire sample data to the established norm of the 1978 Stanford sample population.

Descriptive data were analyzed to ascertain means, standard deviations and percentages of responses. This information was then tabulated for ease of inspection (see table 1 for descriptive data)

RESULTS

Mean scores for masculine and feminine norms (5.26, ($t(31) = 1.28$, $p > 0.05$), and 4.47, ($t(31) = -1.16$, $p > 0.05$) respectively) were not significantly different from the 1978 Stanford normative sample population (5.12 and 4.59 correspondingly). Using Bem (1978, 1981),

the median split method of analysis shows participants to express androgynous scores closely approaching masculinity.

Further analysis of the data shows, however, that there was a statistically significant difference between the overall t -ratio score (-10.41) obtained from the results of this study and those of the 1978 Stanford normative sample population (-6.33, $t(31) = -2.12$, $p > 0.05$). A summary of the results is apparent in table 2.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Results from this study investigating masculinity suggest that male collegiate road cyclists rate as "androgynous," but approaching masculine using the BSRI median split method. Furthermore, evidence suggests that they are more masculine than the 1978 Stanford normative sample population using the t -ratio scores. Androgyny represents a combination of masculine and feminine characteristics within a person, no gender role differentiation. This leads to greater behavioral flexibility in interacting with others.

Messner et al. (2000) argue that real men are winners, suggesting that the better an athlete is, the more masculine he should be. However, the results from this study found no significant difference between the masculinity scores of riders from different categories (which examined athletes at different levels), which suggests that the level of the athlete has no particular influence over their masculinity. Masculinity, defined in part as being successful, is shown here not to be the case as higher level athletes appear to have similar masculinity scores as lower level ones.

Subjects in this study report very low body fat percentage levels. Although measurements were not conducted by this study, these self-reported levels are not uncommon in cyclists, who are generally very lean. Masculinity, in the literature reviewed, is often associated with muscles, and as such cyclists fail to fit into this hegemonic masculinity

(White & Gillett 1994). The results of this study seem to contradict this idea, and the masculine scores obtained by the sample could well be explained through a hyper-masculine persona. It is suggested that cyclists create a hyper-masculine image to compensate for their lack of muscle bulk in order to satisfy the need to exert a masculine appearance in the context of cycling as a sport (Beal 1996).

White & Gillett (1994 20) believe that the physical and dietary routines of bodybuilding are "disciplinary techniques some men use to understand themselves as masculine." This suggests that regimented types of physical and dietary routines are a way of defining what is masculine and thus, the extreme training involved with cycling and the evidence of dieting may be a way in which collegiate road cyclists identify their masculinity. The subjects in this study reported training loads of an average 14.20 hours per week, and almost 30 percent of them reporting having previously been or currently on diets. Trujillo (1995) believes that rigorous training and practice is manly, and it is argued here that this, along with dieting to have control over their bodies, is a way in which cyclists' masculinity is defined and expressed.

Gender transgressions, an idea put forward by Laberge & Albert (1999) can be related to collegiate cycling. Not only do they rate as "androgynous" on the BSRI scale, but the tight, brightly colored clothing and the leg shaving often practiced by some cyclists seem to go against the dominating masculine ideal. Laberge & Albert found that transgressive behavior can be legitimate because

moral strength (in this case for facing stigmatization and discrediting by peers) and physical prowess are used as proof of masculinity. (1999 257)

In a sense, cyclists make up for their transgressive behavior by being more masculine in other aspects.

Trujillo (1995) suggests that masculinity is exhibited best when men perform in a homosocial, but heterosexual, environment. Thus, Trujillo is suggesting that masculinity is not only heterosexual, but it is also most powerful when conveyed in a male setting. We see this with cyclists, who may often race at the same time as women, but race against

other men. This homosocial environment in which they compete leads to cyclists adopting an overtly heterosexual orientation. It was documented in some of the responses to the question on sexual preference, that there were several explicitly heterosexual replies stating that individuals 'liked chicks' or were 'as straight as an arrow.'

Some subjects abstained from answering the question on sexuality, and although homosexuality is not assumed, it does raise the question as to whether non-heterosexual individuals would refrain from responding to protect their image of masculinity and place within the sport of cycling. Answering truthfully for a non-heterosexual individual could have possibly led to an exclusion from the overtly heterosexual world of collegiate cycling, thus abstaining would have been an expected and understandable choice.

Homoeroticism and clothing is another issue that has been discussed in the literature in relation to American Football. The tight clothing that the athletes wear is said to be sexually charged as it closely adheres to the shapes of their buttocks (Trujillo 1995 416). The similar fashion of cycling clothing to 'tightly adhere' to the shapes of the male body is clearly comparable to that of American Football, and thus, creating a heterosexual environment minimizes the potential erotic pleasures that may be obviously derived from the appearance of cycling clothes.

In analyzing the current data, Lenny (1991) discusses the two methods that were used. The median split approach compares the masculine and feminine scores for the whole group to the established norms. In this case, when the median masculine score is higher than the norm, and the median feminine score is above the norm, a sex rating of androgynous is given to the sample group. As the median for the feminine score is so close to the norm, it is suggested that the subjects are approaching masculine scores using this method. The t-ratio scale is another way in which to look at the data, comparing the result of the difference between the masculine and feminine scores to give a relative finding. If t-ratios were small, a person would be viewed as androgynous, whereas a larger t-ratio would equal a higher masculine or feminine score (Lenny 1991 579, 589). The median split approach can only classify a person's sex, whereas using the t-ratio approach, a masculine quantity can be derived

from the established normal data (Bem 1978, 1981).

This research did not simply wish to define male collegiate cyclists merely as feminine or masculine, but to the extent that they are one or the other. Using the median split method, it is evident that the cyclists in the study approach masculine. Although these medians are not significantly different from the established norms, placement above or below the median value is used to classify a subject's sex. However, using the t-ratio approach, which scores individuals on their sexuality rating, we can see a statistically significant difference between the established norms and the findings of this study.

In evaluating the use of the BSRI, its reliability and validity are high, and the BSRI is the most often used measure in this type of research (Lenny 1991). It is also noted that the scales used "have adequate freedom from socially desirable responding" (Lenny 1991 591).

In the study by Koivula (2001), where perceived sport characteristics were looked at, the highest score received for cycling was in the strength and endurance scale (5.7 out of 7) with the lowest score interestingly being on the aesthetics and femininity scale (2.0 out of 7). Masculinity in cycling was given 4.1 out of 7, suggesting its classification of gender-neutral (Koivula 1995) is appropriate in how it is perceived. The current study has found that male collegiate cyclists exert a more masculine presence than normal populations. In relating this to Koivula (2001), it may suggest that although cyclists are more masculine than the general population, they are viewed, and possibly are, somewhere in the middle of the masculinity scale when compared to other sports and sporting participants.

Results from this study suggest that male collegiate road cyclists rate androgynous using the BSRI median split method, but are more masculine than the established normal population using the BSRI t-ratio approach. It is argued here that these findings result from a trend in cyclists as a whole to adopt a more exaggerated form of masculinity than the normal population. In the sporting world of collegiate road cycling, cyclists seem to have found a place where certain behaviors are reinforced and masculinity authenticated, even in the presence of transgressive behaviors.

This research has extended masculinity studies to the sport of collegiate road cycling. It is believed that as more research is done using the BSRI with athletes that more defined measures of normality can be developed in which to compare sample groups. The question is whether cyclists are more masculine because they are cyclists or because they are athletes participating in a male dominated arena, sports, and in which ways are they more masculine. Further research in the area of masculinity needs to be conducted, especially in the sparse field of cycling.

Our research is not without shortcomings. First, our sample is small, but this is a fairly large percentage of the population in the region. Also, this study only examines males and their rating on the BSRI. While it is beyond the scope of this study to assess women's scores on masculinity versus femininity using the BSRI, how women in cycling fair in terms of gender is also of interest. These issues and other related questions define the agenda for future research on cyclists.

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APPENDIX

Copy of Questionnaire

Please fill out the information on this page first. Once you have completed this page, please begin answering the questions on the subsequent page. This questionnaire will take around 5-10 minutes for you to complete. If you have any questions, please ask the person that handed this questionnaire to you to clarify.

Personal Information:

- a) Please state your
 - i. Age _____
 - ii. Height _____
 - iii. Weight _____
 - iv. Body fat % _____
(If unknown, please leave blank)
- b) Are you male / female*
(*Please delete as necessary)
- c) What is your sexual orientation?

(If you would prefer not to say, please leave blank)
- d) At what level / category do you race in at collegiate events? _____
- e) How many years have you been cycling competitively? _____

Training Questions:

- 1) In an average week, how many hours would you say you train on the bike? (Include any work done on an indoor trainer) _____
- 2) How much time in an average week do you train off of the bike? _____
- 3) Do you ever train using weight / resistance exercise (i.e. weight training)? _____
- 4) Do you ever go on a diet during the year? _____
- 5) Is your weight an issue for you?

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