Whose Opinion Do You Trust?

by Virginia P. Richmond and James C. McCroskey

A few years ago, men's opinions were the only ones respected. Today, the pendulum seems to be swinging the other way.

"You've come a long way, baby." This popular slogan, employed by the makers of Virginia Slims cigarettes, suggests a significant advance in the liberation of women in today's society. Many women can remember the days when they were not allowed to vote, smoke, or even give an opinion without severe criticism from the opposite sex or, worse yet, from their own sex. No one now questions the right of women to vote, nor the choice of smoking in public.

These obvious advances, however, are inadequate indices of true progress. A better indication of progress would be evidence that female opinions on significant issues are now accepted, or even sought, by members of both sexes in today's society. Considerable research over the past three decades indicates that most changes in society are produced through interpersonal communication, and the crucial variable in that communication process is the opinion leader—the individual a person turns to for advice or information on a particular topic. If most of the opinion leaders in a society are men, it is hard to argue that women in that society are liberated. However, a relative balance of males and females serving as opinion leaders indicates a relative balance of influence in the society and indicates that a measure of true liberation has been achieved.

As early as 1872, a woman tried to convince America that women have opinions and should have the right to vote as they please, even in a male-dominated society (8). Victoria C. Woodhull fought to eliminate the oppression of women and let women's opinions be heard and known. Woodhull tried to point out that women possess opinions on topics of the day, such as birth control and equal jobs. She wanted men and women alike to realize that women did not have to be so dominated by men and the informal rules of society. Woodhull felt

Virginia P. Richmond is a doctoral candidate in Communication at the University of Nebraska. James C. McCroskey is Professor and Chairman of the Department of Speech Communication, West Virginia University.
women should be able to speak out and share their opinions about topics of the day (8).

The fight for the right for women’s opinions to be heard and respected has continued, through the era of Elizabeth Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Lucretia Mott on to today. At least until recent years, women were looked upon as unimportant when it came to topics like politics, birth control, marriage, abortion, and sports. A new trend has definitely taken form in the past few years.

Recently we have seen the birth of magazines such as Ms., Vita, and Playgirl designed as vehicles for the expression of women’s views. A substantial number of activist women’s organizations have been formed. Politicians have given verbal support to women’s rights and the need for women in significant government positions. In short, there are reasons to believe that women’s opinions are finding more opportunities for expression than were available just a few years ago. Not all indicators point in this direction, however. The picture in the electronic media is less than encouraging. Mills (5) reports that while 40 percent of the national work force are women, only 22 percent of the employees of commercial television stations are women, the overwhelming majority of whom are in clerical positions. The situation in radio is similarly discouraging.

The importance of the male domination of the media is reflected in results of research reported by Turow (9). Turow found that, in evening television dramas in the United States, men are shown predominantly in advising and ordering positions. In 70 percent of the episodes men gave the directives, and in 30 percent of the episodes women gave the directives. The types of advice given by the men and the women conformed in most cases to the traditional categories for their sex. Twenty-two percent of the directives given by women related to the traditional “masculine” role of evening dramatic programs, while only 10 percent of the directives given by men related to areas of traditional feminine knowledge. Turow found, however, that men and women were on a more equal basis in the daytime shows than in the evening shows. This heavy emphasis on the male as the advisor or boss may be a reflection of American culture. If so, it
would appear that we have a long way to go before women's opinions are considered to be as valuable as men's. On the other hand, the observed male emphasis may not be reflective of the culture as a whole, but rather reflect chauvinistic decisions on the part of the male decision-makers in the media.

\[A \text{ very important element in opinion leadership is the credibility of the opinion leader.}\]

Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet (3) and Rogers and Shoemaker (7) refer to the opinion leaders as being the people in a community who are turned to for advice on an issue at hand. These people are seen as being more competent and more influential than their followers. By "influential" these authors mean that the followers are more likely to accept the opinion leader's advice than they are to accept other people's advice on the same subject. More recently Richmond (8) found that opinion leaders in an educational environment are also viewed by their followers as being more credible than are other followers.

Since credibility, particularly competence, is such a significant factor in the selection of opinion leaders, clues to the role of women as opinion leaders may be inferred from comparisons of men's and women's perceived competence under carefully controlled experimental conditions.

Miller and McReynolds (4) employed a standard message on the topic of ABM weapons systems to examine whether or not female communicators were perceived to be as competent as male communicators. As predicted, competence ratings for the male sources were higher than those for the females. However, the effect was more pronounced for female receivers than for male receivers (all college students). While male receivers did not rate either females or males significantly more competent than one another, the female receivers did. They rated the male source significantly more competent than the female source. Miller and McReynolds attributed this to the fact that ABM systems is considered to be a man's topic, and that women are still conditioned to their traditional role in society.

This problem of topic bias was confronted directly by Goldberg (1). He employed 1,500-word articles in seven separate fields: art, history, dietetics, elementary education, city planning, linguistics, and law. Female college students were given these articles and asked to evaluate them on the basis of competence. Half of the subjects had female authors' names attached to a given article; the other half had male names. Each subject responded to three articles attributed to males and three attributed to females. The results permit us to discount the topic as the cause of the results of the Miller and McReynolds (4) study. Goldberg's results indicated a strong negative bias against women on the part of his female subjects. The male authors were seen as more competent than the female authors, even on the topics of dietetics and elementary education.

The results of these studies suggest that women are perceived as less competent than men, at least by college student women. Whether this perception is characteristic of all segments of American society, of course, cannot be clearly inferred from these studies. If women are perceived as less competent than
men by other women, they may be less likely than men to be selected as opinion leaders.

In 1945 Katz and Lazarsfeld (2) found that whether women were married, single, or separated, they chose men as their opinion leaders in matters related to public affairs. They also saw these men as more competent than other females. However, Katz and Lazarsfeld also found that the topic of concern impacted the selection of opinion leaders. They found that when females decided they wanted to attend a movie and needed an expert to consult, females of all ages turned to other females for advice and information on the movies to see.

Similarly, Katz and Lazarsfeld (2) found that fashion influence traveled from young girls to older women. In general, then, Katz and Lazarsfeld’s results indicated a major interaction of topic and sex in the selection of opinion leaders. These results suggest that, for women, women may be opinion leaders on “women’s topics” and men on “men’s topics.” While this may appear to provide a “balance” and be perceived as quite desirable, such a conclusion would be very misleading. The so-called “men’s topics” are ones with considerably more social significance than the ones with female identification.

Since the major thrust of the women’s liberation movement came some time after the collection of the Katz and Lazarsfeld data, it is very possible that major changes in patterns of opinion leader selection have occurred in recent years. Particularly among women. The present studies were designed to probe these possible changes and to investigate whether male and female opinion leader preferences differ.

The literature on opinion leadership draws a sharp distinction between general opinion leaders and opinion leaders on specific topics. Consequently, both types of opinion leaders were considered in this series of studies. In all cases the general opinion leader was operationalized as “the person you most often turn to for advice, other than a member of your family.” This operationalization specifically excluded both spouses and parents, persons whom Katz and Lazarsfeld (2) found in 1945 in their classic Decatur study were frequently indicated as opinion leaders on politics by females. These potential choices were excluded because we believed that it might be difficult for our subjects to make a clear distinction between frequency of interaction with another person and choice of that person as an opinion leader. Further, if general opinion leaders are overwhelmingly within the family, as reported by Katz and Lazarsfeld, then general opinion leadership could not have the major impact in the diffusion process that has been observed in numerous later studies (7).

We sampled three subject populations to investigate possible differences in choice of general opinion leaders based on either the sex of the subject or the sex of the potential opinion leader. The first sample was comprised of 186 unmarried undergraduate students in basic communication courses, 61 male and 125 female. The second sample included 65 female graduate students in education, 38 single and 28 married. The final sample included 272 married teachers, principals, extension agents, members of the Lions and Rotary clubs, and their spouses. The sample included 125 males and 146 females (several of the spouses were not available to complete the instrument, hence the unequal number of
males and females). The age range in the sample was from 22 to 65, with approximately equal frequency across the entire range. The subjects not in Lions or Rotary were either enrolled in a graduate teaching methods course or married to an enrollee. Data for each sample were analyzed separately. The data were first examined by means of 2 × 2 chi-squares and phi coefficients to see if the sex of subject (or in the case of the female graduate students, marital status) and sex of opinion leader formed an interactive relationship. If the overall chi-square was found to be significant, simple chi-squares for the classification of sex or marital status were performed. If the overall chi-square was not found to be significant, simple chi-squares for sex of opinion leader across classifications were performed. The criterion for significance for all tests was set at p < .05.

The results indicated that both sex and marital status have a significant impact on choice of general opinion leaders.

For both the undergraduate and married adult samples the overall chi-squares indicated the presence of an interaction between sex of subject and sex of chosen general opinion leader (see Table 1). In the married adult sample, both the males ($X^2 = 85.94, p < .05$) and the females ($X^2 = 31.58, p < .05$) overwhelmingly chose general opinion leaders of the same sex. However, among the single undergraduates, only the female choice pattern was the same ($X^2 = .15, NSD$). The preference for female general opinion leaders on the part of females is also indicated by the results of data provided by the female graduate students (see Table 1). The non-significant overall chi-square indicates that marital status did not result in differential general opinion leader choices. However, disregarding marital status, these female subjects preferred female general opinion leaders 2 to 1 ($X^2 = 10.24, p < .05$).

Considerable research has indicated that choice of opinion leaders can be influenced heavily by the specific topic in question (7). For example, with female subjects, Katz and Lazarsfeld (2) found that for choice of movies and advice on fashion, females were most frequently chosen as opinion leaders, while on the topic of politics males were the predominant choice. In short, it would appear that there are "female topics" and "male topics." To determine whether this sex bias is present today with females or males, we chose these same topics for study, as well as two topics not examined by Katz and Lazarsfeld that we believed to have less or no obvious sex bias: information about a class in which the subject was enrolled, and information about an elective course the subject was considering taking.

Data from four subject populations were collected. The married adult sample and the female graduate student sample discussed above provided their choices of opinion leaders for "the person whose opinion you most often seek concerning movies you might want to attend," "the person whose opinion you most often seek concerning changing clothing styles," and "the person whose opinion you most often seek concerning voting and candidates for political office." A sample of 192 students (74 male, 118 female) enrolled in basic un-
undergraduate communication classes provided their choices of opinion leaders for the person "you would prefer to go to to get notes and other information about the class." A sample of 191 eleventh- and twelfth-grade students (109 males, 81 females; approximately half of each sex were black, half white) enrolled in required social studies classes also provided their choices for opinion leader for class information. In addition, they provided choices of the person "you would prefer to go to to get information about an elective course you are considering taking." The data were analyzed in the same manner as those for the generalized opinion leader.

The results on the topics presumed not to have an obvious sex bias are reported in Table 2. In each case, the overall chi-square was significant. Further analysis indicated that this significance was principally the result of the overwhelming preference for female opinion leaders on the part of female subjects. The college females chose female opinion leaders by a ratio of more than 4 to 1 ($X^2 = 46.41, p < .05$); the high school females preferred female opinion leaders on the class information topic by a ratio of almost 7 to 1 ($X^2 = 40.11, p < .05$), and they preferred females on the elective course topic by a better than 2-to-1 ratio ($X^2 = 13.44, p < .05$). However, the college males ($X^2 = 1.35, NSD$) and the high school males on the class information topic ($X^2 = 3.31, NSD$) and on the elective course topic ($X^2 = 3.64, NSD$) evidenced no significant sexual preference for opinion leaders.

The results on the topics initially employed by Katz and Lazarsfeld (2) yielded several interesting findings. On the movies topic the analysis of the data from the married adult sample resulted in a significant overall chi-square (see Table 3). There appeared to be a slight tendency for both males and females to turn to members of the opposite sex for opinion leadership. However, this tendency was not significant for either the males ($X^2 = 2.96, NSD$) or the females ($X^2 = .51, NSD$) when analyzed separately. The results from the female graduate student sample failed to indicate an effect for marital status on choice of sex of opinion leader. The data collapsed across marital status levels also failed to indicate a significant sexual preference for these female subjects ($X^2 = .58, NSD$).

A very strong preference for female opinion leaders on the topic of fashion was evidenced by both the married adult females and the female graduate stu-
Table 2: Selection of specialized opinion leaders in education environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>College class information</th>
<th>High school class information</th>
<th>High school elective course</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of opinion leader:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall chi-square</td>
<td>29.73*</td>
<td>37.32*</td>
<td>16.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phi</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td>.44*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant

dents. The analysis of the data from the married adult sample yielded a significant overall chi-square (see Table 3). This result was primarily a function of the female subjects' preference for female opinion leaders by an almost 4-to-1 ratio ($X^2 = 23.35$, $p < .05$). The males showed no significant sexual preference ($X^2 = 1.33$, NSD). The marital status of the female graduate students produced no significant effect. This sample preferred female opinion leaders by over a 6-to-1 ratio ($X^2 = 32.06$, $p < .05$).

A clear preference for male opinion leaders on the topic of politics was evidenced by the subjects in both samples. The analysis of the data from the married adult sample yielded a non-significant overall chi-square (see Table 3). The males by approximately a 3-to-1 ratio ($X^2 = 11.86$, $p < .05$) and the females by approximately a 4-to-1 ratio ($X^2 = 23.76$, $p < .05$) both chose male opinion leaders on politics. The data from the female graduate students indicated a similar preference by approximately a 6-to-1 ratio ($X^2 = 31.23$, $p < .05$), with marital status having no significant impact.

*It would appear that “baby” has come a way. Whether it is a “long way” is certainly open to question.*

Our results must be interpreted in the context of the samples studied. Our adult subjects were clearly better educated than adults in general in our society. Considerable research on diffusion and social change (7) suggests that adoption of innovations—in this case acceptance of women’s opinions—is frequently earlier among the well-educated. Thus any progress suggested by our data probably should be interpreted as only an early trend toward change rather than a clear societal pattern.

Although previous research suggests that females judge males to be more competent than other females across a wide variety of topics, this bias was reflected in the present study only on the topic of politics, with a slight, non-significant trend in the same direction on the topic of movies. If we define chauvinism as biased, unreasoned preference for one’s own kind (in this case, sex), we might raise the question of the presence in the data from these studies of a significant degree of “female chauvinism.” We might be able to discount
the results for both sexes on general opinion leadership, since members of the subjects’ families were excluded. Similarly, one might argue that females really are more competent than males on the subject of fashion, and the reverse on politics, because of educational patterns in our culture. However, results on the topics related to the educational environment are more difficult to discount. The results on the educational environment topics are even more interesting in light of the absence of a comparable pattern for males. An alternative, and equally credible, interpretation of these results is that our female subjects often selected female opinion leaders because of a hesitancy to initiate interaction with males. This pattern was more pronounced with our older, married subjects. If we accept the results of the research by Goldberg (1) as indicating that females see males as more competent than other females on most topics, our results may simply reflect a preference for opinion leaders who are more similar to one’s self on the competence dimension, a finding consistent with considerable research in the area of diffusion of innovations (7).

Table 3: Selection of specialized opinion leaders: Katz and Lazarsfeld topics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Married adults</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Movies</td>
<td>Fashion</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of opinion leader:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall chi-square</td>
<td>6.21*</td>
<td>13.59*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phi</td>
<td>16*</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female graduate students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Movies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of opinion leader:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall chi-square</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phi</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant

While the question of female chauvinism is raised but not answered by our results, an encouraging picture is presented concerning male chauvinism. Although males did not show a significant preference for female opinion leaders on any topic, they also showed little evidence of a preference for males. In general, there were few significant differences attributable to opinion leader sex for male subjects. Married males showed a significant preference for male general opinion leaders and opinion leaders on politics. As noted above, the
general opinion leader results might be discounted because of the exclusion of
the potential for choosing the spouse. Most important is the fact that the single
males did not use sex as a basis for determining either general opinion leaders or
opinion leaders on specific topics in the educational environment.

As a whole, examination of the results of these studies provides an encourag-
ing picture for the acceptance of women's views in contemporary American
society. The immediate rejection of women's opinions may be becoming a thing
of the past. The problem of "male topics" and "female topics" may have
declined over the past 30 years. The results of the current series of studies indi-
cate that neither movies nor fashion are strictly women's topics any longer. Of
course, the topic of politics produced discouraging results. As was the case 30
years ago, both males and females indicated an overwhelming preference for
male opinion leaders in politics. Probably the most encouraging sign is the fact
that the single males studied were about as likely to turn to females as to males
for general opinion leadership. These results in combination with those on the
topics related to politics and the educational environment suggest that while
true equality of men's and women's opinions has not yet been achieved in the
minds of either men or women, some real progress may have been made in
overcoming the destructive male chauvinism of the past, particularly among
younger males.

REFERENCES

1948.
150-153.
Educational Environment." Paper presented at the annual Speech Communication Asso-
ciation Convention, Chicago, December 1974.
1971.
24:2, 1974, pp. 138-141.