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Over the past 10 years there has been much research on various aspects of gender-role orientation. Specifically, many studies have explored gender-role orientation as a predictor of psychological adjustment. Findings suggest that masculine and androgynous individuals are high on psychological adjustment whereas, feminine and undifferentiated individuals score lower on adjustment. On the other hand, the research on gender-role orientation as a predictor of marital quality reveal that highly feminine individuals (feminine and androgynous) score high on marital quality and masculine individuals, which are found to score highly on psychological adjustment, score lower on marital quality. The purpose of this study was to further explore gender-

role orientation as a predictor of marital quality and to shed some light on the findings between psychological adjustment and marital quality.

Bem's Sex Role Inventory (1974) was used to measure gender-role orientation. Marital quality was measured by Braiker and Kelley's (1979) relationship questionnaire which served as a global assessment of the relationships. A second measurement of marital quality was an inventory of marital activities (Cate, 1980). This measured the number of specific activities the couples participated in, as well as a subjective evaluation of the amount of pleasure of the specific activities.

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run to examine differences in wives' marital quality scores between groups of husbands with different gender-role orientations. Additional ANOVA's were run to test for differences in husband's marital quality scores between groups of wives with different gender-role orientations. Correlation coefficients were then performed between husbands' femininity and wives' marital quality and other correlations were run between wives' femininity and husbands' marital quality. These were performed to explore the relationship between femininity and marital quality. Lastly, the same logic applied in testing the relationship between masculinity and marital quality.

Results indicated that husbands married to highly feminine wives perceived the pleasure of their marital activities to be significantly higher than husbands married to masculine wives. There were no significant differences in wives' marital quality among the husbands' different gender-role orientations. Masculine orientation did not relate to marital quality.

Gender-Role Orientation as a Predictor of Marital Quality

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Gender Role-Orientation as a Predictor of Marital Quality

I. Review of Literature

Introduction

People have many different social roles that influence their thoughts, feelings, and actions (Cox, 1984). These roles include family roles, occupational roles, ethnic roles, professional roles, just to name a few. Within each one of these roles, there are certain personal qualities and behavioral characteristics attached to that role (Hartley, 1959). For example, the husband's position in the family has expected behavioral roles such as breadwinner, sexual partner, father, general repairman, and so on (Cox, 1984). These expectations are usually defined through societal norms (Cox, 1984).

One social role that potentially influences many other social roles is that of gender-role, also referred to as sex role. The personal qualities and behaviors that people are societally expected to adhere to because of being male or female are called gender roles. Mussen (1969) stressed the importance of gender roles when he said:

It is a banal truth that the individual's sex role is the most salient of his many social roles. No other social role directs

more of his overt behavior, emotional reactions, cognitive functioning, covert attitudes, and general psychological and social adjustment (p. 707).

Gender roles are indeed crucial to individual behavior and development, but what influence does gender-role orientation have on relationships? Consider the following:

Example 1: Mary was raised in a traditional family where the wife's role was to be at home taking care of the house and children and providing support for the husband. Mary continued this traditional role when she married John Doe. John sells insurance and Mary is busy at home with their three-year old son. Before Mary married she had done well at college and was an active leader. Now that she is married she denies her masculine characteristics such as competitiveness and ambition. She fears those characteristics to be unfeminine. John, her husband, believes a wife should be at home, especially nights when he is home.

When he comes home from a hard days work he wants dinner to be ready and then he likes to relax and watch T.V. (Cox, 1984).

Example 2: Sally and Jim have been married for several years. They are presently taking a class together called Creative Marriage. Both Sally and Jim work. Each believe that they both need to be equally responsible for the house and children. They make a list of what things need to be done, pick the things they like to do, and compromise on the others. They arrange family responsibilities so that each can have individual free time (Cox, 1984).

The above examples illustrate different gender-role orientations at work in the relationship. The first couple, Mary and John, are more traditional in their orientations. Mary wants to emphasize the highly feminine qualities of nurturance, warmth, understanding, whereas, John incorporates more of the masculine qualities of ambition and competition. Sally and Jim, on the other hand, do not have traditionally defined gender-roles.

Many studies have explored the relationship between individual psychological well-being and gender-role orientation, yet, few studies have examined marital relationships and gender-role orientation. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to explore gender-role orientation as a predictor of marital quality.

Gender Roles

Culturally and traditionally males are expected to incorporate masculine characteristics and females are to incorporate feminine characteristics. A traditionally masculine male is seen as independent, assertive, forceful, dominant, competitive, ambitious, self-reliant, among other traits (Bem, 1974). A traditionally feminine female is seen as gentle, compassionate, warm, sensitive to the needs of others, among various other characteristics (Bem, 1974). Males and females that adopt these culturally defined "appropriate" roles and personality traits for their gender are considered gender-typed individuals. However, many individuals do not adhere to "traditionally" defined gender roles. Some individuals take on the characteristics of the opposite sex, feminine males and masculine females. These individuals are defined as cross gender-typed. This view of gender-role orientations, gender-typed and cross gender-typed, came out of the notion that masculinity and femininity are

mutually exclusive categories. A person's gender role in the past was viewed on a continuum from highly masculine to highly feminine. Individuals could fall anywhere on this continuum which meant an individual could be, in degree, masculine or feminine but not both.

This concept changed in 1974 when Sandra Bem developed and introduced the concept of androgyny (Greek word "andros", meaning male, and "gyny" meaning female). She suggested that individuals can possess both masculine and feminine characteristics to the same degree. Individuals who possess masculine and feminine characteristics (Bem, 1974), plus have high amounts of both (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975; Bem, 1977) are considered androgynous individuals--androgynous males and androgynous females. The remaining category of gender role-orientation are those individuals who are low on both masculine and feminine traits. These individuals are referred to as undifferentiated (Spence et. al., 1975) --undifferentiated males and undifferentiated females.

In the past 10 years there have been numerous studies on the psychological adjustment of masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated individuals. The majority of these studies have suggested that masculine and androgynous individuals consistently score significantly higher on psychological assessments (e.g.,

self-esteem, adjustment, feelings of self-worth) than the feminine and undifferentiated individuals (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Bem, 1974, 1977; Erdwins, Small, & Gross, 1980; Helmreich, Spence, & Holahan, 1979; Jones, Chernovetz & Hansson, 1978; La France & Carmen, 1980; O'Connor, Mann & Bardwick, 1978; Spence et al., 1975). Yet, a look at the literature that has examined gender-role orientation and marital quality, reveals much different findings. In general, feminine gender-role orientation is more predictive of marital satisfaction than any other of the previously cited orientations (Antill, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979). Reviews of both of these bodies of literature follows.

Psychological Adjustment of the Gender-Role Orientations Feminine Individuals

As stated earlier, feminine individuals consistently score lower on psychological assessments than androgynous or masculine oriented individuals. On the dimension of self-esteem, feminine individuals score significantly lower than masculine and androgynous persons (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Bem, 1977; Erdwins et al., 1980; O'Connor et al., 1978). When compared to masculine and androgynous groups, highly feminine individuals are more

likely to exhibit high anxiety and low self and social acceptance (Bem, 1975; Censentino & Heilbrun, 1964; Gall, 1969; Sears, 1970). Feminine individuals also show a lack of individuation, achievement, and autonomy when compared to masculine and androgynous individuals (Block, Von der Lippe & Block, 1973). Jones et al. (1978) found that feminine females, when compared with androgynous females were more traditional, less outgoing, and less creative. Feminine females did score lower on problem drinking than masculine females. Usually feminine individuals score higher on psychological adjustment measures than undifferentiated individuals, yet feminine females in one study (Erdwins et al., 1980) scored lower on various measures than undifferentiated males.

Feminine males, as well as females, scored low on psychological adjustment scales. Feminine males when compared to masculine males were more neurotic and had more problems with alcohol (Jones et al., 1978). Feminine men did score significantly higher on creativity than androgynous men and were more sensitive to criticism than masculine men. As far as gender differences, Antill and Cunningham (1979) found femininity did not contribute to a low sense of esteem for males, yet it did with females.

Masculine Individuals

In contrast to highly feminine individuals, masculine individuals score higher on various psychological adjustment measures than both feminine and undifferentiated individuals (Antill & Cunningham, 1979, Erdwins et al., 1980; Helmreich et al., 1979; Jones et al., 1978; Spence et al., 1976) However, in some cases masculine individuals score higher or equally as high as androgynous individuals on measures of self-esteem, flexibility, adaptability, feeling of adequacy, and other variables (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Erdwins et al., 1980; Jones et al., 1978; Kelly & Worell, 1977).

In particular, masculine females were found to be more politically aware, more feminist in their attitude, and more extroverted than females of other orientations (Jones et al., 1978). Masculine females did have more drinking problems than females of other orientations and a greater sense of awkwardness with the opposite sex than androgynous females. In spite of these findings, Jones et al. (1978) concluded that the highly masculine female was happier, more competent, and more adaptive than females high on femininity.

Masculine males on the other hand, showed similar results to the masculine females. Masculine males were more politically aware, creative, and not as easy to

embarrass as androgynous males. However, masculine men were less sensitive to criticism than both androgynous and feminine males (Jones et al., 1978). As far as gender differences, masculine males did have less drinking problems than masculine females.

Androgynous Individuals

As stated earlier, androgynous individuals are those who are high on both masculine and feminine characteristics. An individual, independent of gender, who can be aggressive, competitive, strong as well as gentle, caring, compassionate, and cooperative is considered androgynous.

Researchers have shown that androgynous individuals are more flexible than masculine males and feminine females (Bem, 1974, 77; Bem & Lenney, 1976). This flexibility seems to contribute to satisfactory sexual relationships (Safir, Peres, Lichtenstein, Hoch, & Shepher, 1982). In addition, androgynous individuals have more positive attitudes towards sexuality (Walfish & Myerson, 1980) and handle failure or loss of control better than gender-typed individuals (Baucom & Danker-Brown, 1979). Most studies such as the above conclude that androgynous individuals have a larger repertoire of behaviors because they incorporate both masculine and

feminine characteristics. This allows the androgynous individual to function well in a variety of situations.

As alluded to earlier, there is a debate as to whether androgyny or masculinity is more predictive than other orientations of psychological well-being (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Erdwins et al., 1980; Jones et al., 1979; Kelly & Worell, 1977). On a measure of self-esteem, androgynous individuals consistently score higher than feminine and undifferentiated subjects and lower or equally as high as masculine individuals (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Bem, 1977; Erdwins et al., 1980; O'Connor et al., 1978; Schiff & Koopman, 1978; Spence et al., 1975). On a measure of non-verbal communication, behavior that is crucial in intimate relationships, androgynous males smiled and gazed more than masculine men when dealing interpersonally (La France & Carmen, 1980).

Undifferentiated Individuals

Undifferentiated individuals are those who are low on both masculine and feminine traits. Reports show these individuals to consistently score much lower on psychological assessments than masculine and androgynous individuals, and as low or lower than feminine individuals (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Bem, 1977; Erdwins et al., 1980; O'Connor et al. 1978; Spence et al., 1975). Erdwins et al. (1980) found that undifferentiated subjects were

lower on overall self-esteem, personal self-worth and feelings of adequacy than masculine or androgynous individuals. On measures of general maladjustment and neurosis, undifferentiated individuals were significantly higher than masculine and androgynous individuals.

Undifferentiated individuals in Erdwins et al. (1980) study appear quite similar to those of a feminine orientation, differing significantly on only one factor--- the feminine group scored higher on social interaction. Undifferentiated females scored significantly lower on all measures of psychological adjustment (self-acceptance, neurosis, physical self-worth, etc.) than any of the other orientations. Jones et al. (1978) found that undifferentiated men had significantly greater problems with alcohol than androgynous subjects.

In concluding, the literature reviewed on gender-role orientation as a predictor of psychological adjustment supports that androgynous and masculine individuals tend to be more psychologically adjusted than feminine and undifferentiated individuals. It seems it could be hypothesized that individuals high on psychological assessments (masculine and androgynous subjects) would also be more likely to have healthy and satisfied relationships as well, especially marital relationships. The following review brings that assertion into question.

Gender-Role Orientation as a
Predictor of Marital Quality

Highly Feminine orientations (androgynous and feminine)

Only a few studies have looked at gender-role orientation as a predictor of marital satisfaction (Antill, 1983; Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979; Scanzoni, 1975; Snyder, 1979). The studies that have found significant findings strongly suggest that the highly feminine gender-role orientations are more of a predictor of husbands' and wives' marital quality than any other orientation (Antill, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979).

Antill (1983) found that husbands, regardless of their orientation, were happiest with feminine and androgynous wives (high on femininity by definition). As with the husbands, wives regardless of their orientation were also happiest with highly feminine husbands. The couples who were by far the happiest were those where both husband and wife were feminine in orientation. Burger and Jacobson (1979) found similar results. Femininity of the husband and the wife was significantly and positively associated with both husbands' and wives' satisfaction and positive problem-solving behavior.

Androgyny itself seems not to be predictive of marital satisfaction (Antill, 1983; Burger & Jacobson,

1979). Antill (1983) concluded that androgyny was only predictive of marital happiness because by definition it is high on the femininity dimension. However, Burger and Jacobson (1979) found that their androgynous group did not differ significantly in marital satisfaction from their undifferentiated group, even though the means differed in the expected direction. The methodology of this study could have confounded the results. They separated their couples into only androgynous and undifferentiated groups in this particular analysis. If one spouse was androgynous and neither were undifferentiated, they called this an androgynous couple. The same logic applied to the undifferentiated couples. If one spouse was undifferentiated and neither were androgynous the couple was considered undifferentiated. Therefore, for example, if a spouse was highly masculine or feminine with an androgynous spouse, they were considered an androgynous couple. Also, if a highly masculine or feminine individual was paired with an undifferentiated individual, they were considered an undifferentiated couple. Therefore, both masculine and feminine individuals were interspersed in androgynous and undifferentiated groups. This prevented the comparison of androgynous couples with masculine and feminine groups. In comparing the importance of the wives' femininity with husbands' femininity, they

found that husbands' femininity was more predictive of the wives' happiness, than wives' femininity was of husbands' happiness (Antill, 1983). This was found only after controlling for several background variables. However, this may depend somewhat on the length of the relationship. Early in the marriage, the wife's femininity is important to the husband. As years go by and the couple begins to have children, the husband's femininity becomes more important to the wife. At the same time, the importance the husband places on the wife's femininity decreases.

Masculine Orientation

The few studies that have been done on gender-role orientations and marital quality indicates that the traditionally masculine orientation is not predictive of marital quality (Antill, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979). Antill (1983) found a nonsignificant correlation between wife's masculinity and husband's happiness. The correlation between the husbands' masculinity and the wives' happiness was also nonsignificant. Antill (1983) concluded that "...the wife's masculinity is not related to the husband's happiness....[and] the husband's masculinity is not related to the wife's happiness..." (p. 149). Burger and Jacobson (1979) reported similar findings. Even though these findings were nonsignificant,

a closer look at the research does seem to suggest that masculinity may very well relate to marital quality, especially the husbands' masculinity. To begin, Antill (1983) found that wives married to masculine husbands were significantly less happy than wives married to feminine husbands yet, husbands married to masculine wives were not significantly less happy than wives married to feminine husbands (see Table 1). This seems to suggest that wives somehow are not as happy with masculine husbands yet, this is not the case for the husbands married to masculine wives.

Additional findings to support that husband's rather than the wife's masculinity has a negative impact on marital quality comes from Burger and Jacobson (1979) who found that the wife's masculinity was significantly positively correlated with couple paraphrasing, which contributed to effective problem-solving; yet, this was not the case for husband's masculinity. In fact, husband's masculinity was significantly highly correlated to only mindreading, which they classified as a neutral category. Yet, some communication experts would categorize this as negative to the growth of an interpersonal relationship (Gottman, 1979).

As mentioned before, in general, males are socialized to incorporate traditional masculine characteristics and

Table 1

Antill's (1983) Happiness Scores for Each
Gender-Role Category of Husbands and Wives

Mean Wife Happiness Scores for Each
Gender-Role Category of the Husbands

<u>Husbands' Orientation</u>	<u>Mean Wives' Happiness Scores</u>
Feminine ^a	116.1*
Androgynous	113.9
Masculine	107.7*
Undifferentiated	107.3

Note. From Antill (1983, p. 149).

^a Feminine group differed significantly in happiness from the masculine and undifferentiated, at $t(104) = 2.5$, $p < .01$ and $t(104) = 2.6$, $p < .01$, respectively.

* $p < .01$

Mean Husband Happiness Scores for Each
Gender-Role Category of the Wife

<u>Wives' Orientation</u>	<u>Mean Husbands' Happiness Scores</u>
Feminine ^a	120.9*
Androgynous	116.2
Masculine	109.4*
Undifferentiated	108.3

Note. From Antill (1983, p. 149).

^a The feminine group differed significantly in happiness from only the undifferentiated, $t(104) = 2.7$, $p < .005$, (using a criterion of $p .01$; Bonferroni technique; Miller, 1976)

* $p < .01$.

females are socialized to have traditional feminine traits. Gender in Fitzpatrick and Indvik's (1982) study seemed to override gender-role orientation for the males. They found that husbands, regardless of orientation, "perceived themselves as rarely nurturant, passive, or dependent, always dominant and task-oriented, and generally incapable of discussing or expressing their feelings "(p. 210). If gender can override gender-role orientation, it could be argued that because of the different socializations of females and males, masculine males may be quite different than masculine females. Masculinity of the males, being socialized to incorporate masculine traits, may be more potent than the masculinity of the females. Specifically, being a male may accentuate the masculine gender-role orientation, while being female may attenuate the masculine gender-role. This, together with the findings that masculine characteristics are not facilitative of interpersonal growth (Balswick & Peek, 1976; Balswick, 1981; Crites & Fitzgerald, 1978; Doyle, 1983; Dubbert, 1979; Fasteau, 1974; Farrell, 1974; Forisha, 1978; Goldberg, 1979, 1983; Gross, 1978; Lofaro & Reeder, 1978; Mayer, 1978; Nichols, 1975; Pleck & Sawyer, 1974; Safilios-Rothschild, 1977; Verser, 1981) may suggest that, because of the potency of the masculinity of the male, masculinity of the male may have more of a

detrimental effect on the relationship than the masculinity of the female.

Measuring Marital Quality

The advantage of the present study over previous research in gender-role orientation and marital quality is the choice of the research procedure. All of the subjects in this study were married, whereas others have included (in their sample) married couples as well as couples living together (Burger & Jacobson, 1979). As far as measurements of the variables under investigation, researchers have used a global assessment of marital satisfaction (Antill, 1983; Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979). The present study utilizes a global assessment, as well as a measure of how often the subjects engaged in various activities. It has been found in previous research that nondistressed couples performed significantly more activities with each other than distressed couples (Barnett & Nietzel, 1979). Therefore, the present study will have two measurements of marital quality. The use of multiple measures of variables are suggested for higher validity and reliability (Pelto & Pelto, 1978).

Hypotheses

What is clear with the above literature is the important role of the partners' feminine orientation in both wives' and husbands' marital quality. Therefore, the following hypotheses:

1. Marital quality is higher for wives with highly feminine husbands (androgynous or feminine) than wives with husbands of other gender-role orientations.
2. Marital quality is higher for husbands with highly feminine wives (androgynous or feminine) than husbands with wives of other gender-role orientations.

In comparing the importance of wives' femininity with husbands' femininity, it is expected, because of the sample being homogeneous, that the husbands' femininity is more predictive of wives' marital quality than wives' femininity is of husbands' marital quality:

3. Husbands' femininity is more predictive of the wives' marital quality than the wives' femininity is of the husbands' marital quality. Husbands' and wives' femininity is positively related to marital quality.

Lastly, the literature suggests that the masculine gender-role orientation is negatively related to marital quality, especially the husbands' masculine orientation. Therefore, the following:

4. Husbands' masculinity is more predictive of wives' marital quality than wives' masculinity is of husbands' marital quality. Husbands' and wives' masculinity is negatively related to marital quality.

II. Method

Participants

Forty-seven married couples (94 individuals) participated in this study. The age range of the sample was 19 to 31 years with a mean for males of 24.61 years and for females of 23.64 years. Two methods were used in selecting the couples. First, a list of names, addresses, and phone numbers was compiled of couples who had taken out marriage licenses in the past two years in Benton County, Oregon. Second, other potential volunteers were recruited in various classes in Human Development and Family Studies at Oregon State University. Students were briefly informed about the research project during class. If they were interested and met the qualifications, they were asked to write down their name, address, and phone number on a piece of paper provided by the researcher. Letters were then sent to all off the above couples explaining the project (see Appendix A). The letters were followed by a phone call approximately one week later to inquire whether the couple was interested in participating in the research study. The length of time married ranged from 1 month to 29 months, with an average of 11.42 months. All subjects were in their first marriage, yet 59.5% of the sample had one or two serious relationships prior to their marriage. The subjects who had never been

seriously involved before marriage were 15.2% of the males and 21.3% of the females. In terms of education, 24.5% had 16 years of school and another 31.9% had 17 years or more of school. Males had an average of 15.99 of education years and females had an average of 14.89 years of education. Fifty percent of the sample had an income of less than \$10,000. Those participants who made \$20,000 or more constituted 19.1% of the sample.

Procedure

The Interview

Data for the project were collected in one-on-one interviews. Couples where both partners agreed to participate in the study were given the option to be interviewed in their home or in the offices at Human Development and Family Studies. Partners were interviewed at the same time, yet in separate rooms so as not to influence the other spouse's responses. Husbands were interviewed by males and wives were interviewed by females. Other research data were collected during these interviews for research purposes other than those of the present study.

The interview began with five or ten minutes of informal conversation between the applicant and the interviewer. This aided in establishing rapport and

familiarizing the couple with the data collection procedure. The first task of the interview was to have both spouses read and sign a consent form (see Appendix B). This was also signed by the interviewer. The form's purpose was three-fold; to explain the purpose of the present study, to inform the participants of their right to not choose to answer questions and thirdly, to guarantee confidentiality of all written and discussed material. The next task of the interview was to fill out a series of four questionnaires. The first was a relationship questionnaire that measured love, conflict, ambivalence, and maintenance behaviors working at present in the relationship. Then, the subjects were asked to rate various marital activities as to how pleasurable the activities were and how often they engaged in these various activities together in the past four weeks. The third questionnaire utilized a standard measure of gender-role orientation. Lastly, the participants were asked to fill out a background questionnaire that elicited information on variables such as age, sex, income, etc. (see Appendix C).

Training of Interviewers

The interviews were conducted by four graduate students and two undergraduate seniors in Human Development and Family Studies at Oregon State University.

The investigator implemented a three hour training session for the interviewers. The session involved introducing the interview procedure and then observing an experienced interviewer go through the expected procedure. After the training session, each interviewer was asked to audio-tape a practice interview. The investigator listened to each tape and provided feedback on the individual's technique. Once the requirements of a successful interview were met, the interviewer could begin actual data collection. The interviewer was then randomly assigned to various couples.

Measurement of Variables

Marital Quality

Relationship Scale (Braiker & Kelley, 1979). The first measurement was a global assessment of various areas of marital quality (Braiker & Kelly, 1979, see Appendix D). The 25 item on this relationship dimension scale are accompanied by a 9-point Likert scale of 1 (not true at all of the relationship at present) to 9 (very true of the relationship at present). The scale taps four dimensions of a relationship:

1. Love. The love subscale assessed feelings of attachment, belonging, and closeness in the relationship (see items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 17, 19, 21, and 23,

Appendix D). The possible range of scores on these 10 items is from 10 to 90.

2. Maintenance. The maintenance dimension taps communication and self-disclosure in the relationship at present (see items 2, 8, 11, 14, and 22, Appendix D). Scores can range from 5 to 45.

3. Conflict. This dimension measures the amount of overt conflict and communication of negative affect in the relationship (see items 3, 5, 12, 24, and 25, Appendix D). The scores on this subscale can range from 5 to 45.

4. Ambivalence. The ambivalence subscale assesses feelings of confusion concerning the partner and anxiety about increasing the commitment to the partner (see items 6, 9, 15, 18, and 20, Appendix D). The sum of these five items can range in score from 5 to 45.

Inventory of Marital Activities

The second measurement used to assess marital quality was an inventory of marital activities (Cate, 1980, see Appendix E). This inventory contained 25 various marital activities such as going to the movies, going out to eat, managing funds, and having sexual intercourse. The participants were asked to indicate how many times they had engaged in each one of these activities over the past four weeks (see Appendix E). There were six columns of ratings that the participants were asked to respond to.

These columns indicated who the participants were involved with in these activities (i.e., alone, with partner only, with partner and family members, etc.). The information utilized in this study was the interaction between the participant and spouse only. The subjects were asked to rate each activity engaged in with spouse as being very pleasant (++=5 points), pleasant (+=4 points), no opinion (0=3 points), unpleasant (-=2 points), or very unpleasant (--=1 point). This tapped a subjective evaluation of each item. Considering the point value, the score could range from 25 to 125.

Gender-Role Orientation

Bem's Sex Role Inventory. Gender-role orientation was measured using the BSRI (see Appendix F). The long form of B.S.R.I. (Bem, 1974) is composed of 60 items describing different personality characteristics. Each participant rated how true these characteristics were of them on a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 ("never or almost never true") to 7 ("always or almost always true"). The 60 personality characteristics can be broken into 20 masculine characteristics (e.g., ambitious, forceful, dominant, aggressive, competitive, assertive, independent), 20 feminine characteristics (e.g., gentle, cooperative, affectionate, understanding, sensitive to the

needs of others), and 20 neutral characteristics (e.g., truthful, happy, likable, solemn, moody). Two types of scoring were used for the analyses. First, a score was computed by the median split procedure described by Bem (1977). Those scoring only above the mean on masculine characteristics and below the mean on feminine characteristics were classified as masculine individuals. Those falling above the mean for femininity and below the mean on masculinity were classified as feminine individuals. Thirdly, those scoring above the mean on both masculine and feminine traits were classified as androgynous, and lastly, those falling below the mean on both masculine and feminine characteristics were classified as undifferentiated. The other scoring procedure generates separate masculinity and femininity scores by simple summing of the masculine and feminine items. The scores can range from 20 to 140 on both dimensions.

III. Results and Discussion

Results

Statistical Analyses

A series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) tests were run to test hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2. For hypothesis 1, wives' marital qualities of love, maintenance, conflict, ambivalence, pleasure of marital activities, and number of marital activities acted as the dependent variables and the independent variable was husbands' gender-role orientations (feminine/androgynous, masculine or undifferentiated). For hypothesis 2, an identical analysis of variance was performed, except in this case husbands' marital qualities (love, maintenance, conflict, ambivalence, subjective evaluation of marital activities, and number of marital activities) were the dependent variables and the independent variable was wives' gender-role orientations (feminine/androgynous, masculine, or undifferentiated). For the remaining hypotheses Pearson Correlation Coefficients were performed. For hypothesis 3, correlations were run between husbands' femininity and wives' marital qualities and other correlations were run between wives' femininity and husbands' marital qualities. The same logic applied to hypothesis 4, except correlations were performed between

masculinity of the husbands and wives their individual marital quality scores.

Hypothesis 1: Marital quality is higher for wives with highly feminine husbands (androgynous or feminine) than wives with husbands of other gender-role orientations.

This hypothesis was not supported. The one-way analysis of variance at the .05 level showed no significant differences between wives' marital quality scores among the three gender-role orientation groups of the husbands (see Table 2). Wives married to husbands of highly feminine orientations (feminine and androgynous) reported equal levels of marital quality as wives married to masculine or undifferentiated husbands.

A "honeymoon" effect may be operating to artificially inflate the scores. These couples were all newly married. Marriages ranged from 1 month to 29 months and the average time married was not quite a full year ($\bar{x}=11.42$ years). It appears that wives' marital quality scores were affected by this factor. Wives' mean scores were substantially high on the marital quality dimensions of love, maintenance, pleasure of activities, and number of activities. There were substantially low means in the dimensions of conflict and ambivalence (see Table 2).

Table 2

Wives' Mean Marital Quality Scores for
Each Gender-Role Orientation of the Husbands

<u>Wives' Marital Quality Dimension</u>	<u>Husbands Gender-Role Orientation</u>		
	<u>Feminine/ androgynous</u>	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Undifferentiated</u>
Love	84.16 (13.85) ^a	84.31 (6.71)	83.58 (5.60)
Maintenance	35.84 (5.96)	36.75 (3.80)	33.92 (8.28)
Conflict	15.79 (7.52)	19.44 (7.54)	17.67 (7.36)
Ambivalence	8.21 (6.60)	8.06 (6.07)	8.42 (3.99)
Pleasure of Activities	2.68 (.98)	2.92 (.60)	2.35 (.90)
Average Number of Activities	133.53 (84.76)	291.81 (482.18)	208.67 (297.45)

^aNumbers in parenthesis indicate standard deviation.

*p < .05

These findings seem to be typical of newly married couples. Therefore, these findings may be a reflection of the length of time married instead of the influence of gender-role orientation.

Hypothesis 2: Marital quality is higher for husbands with highly feminine wives (androgynous or feminine) than husbands with wives of other gender-role orientations.

This hypothesis was only partially supported. One out of the six marital quality dimensions of the husbands was significant. A significant difference was found at the .05 level between husbands married to feminine wives ($\bar{x}=3.19$) and husbands married to masculine wives ($\bar{x}=2.09$) in the pleasure of marital activities (see Table 3 and 4). Husbands married to feminine wives reported significantly more pleasure in marital activities than husbands married to masculine wives. Even though pleasure of activities revealed significant differences between groups, the number of activities engaged in did not show any differences. In this case, the evaluation of marital activities was more of a predictor of high marital quality than number of actual behaviors. This seems to suggest that couples who simply engage in more activities do not necessarily have higher quality marriages. Husbands

Table 3
 Husbands' Mean Marital Quality Scores for
 Each Gender-Role Orientation of the Wives

<u>Husbands' Marital Quality Dimension</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Wives Gender-Role Orientation</u>	
		<u>Feminine/ androgynous</u>	<u>Masculine</u> <u>Undifferentiated</u>
Love	84.85 (5.32) ^a	79.40 (11.71)	83.13 (4.64)
Maintenance	32.39 (5.92)	29.80 (5.07)	32.00 (4.66)
Conflict	17.24 (5.25)	17.80 (3.11)	17.88 (5.44)
Ambivalence	8.97 (3.57)	11.40 (8.35)	9.13 (4.32)
Pleasure of Activities	3.19 ^b (.52)	2.09 ^b (1.39)	2.77 (.58)
Average Number of Activities	203.58 (112.99)	92.80 (60.29)	221.88 (117.68)

^aNumbers in parenthesis indicate standard deviation.

^bp < .05

Table 4

Analysis of Variance Table of Husbands'
Pleasure of Marital Activities among
the Different Wives' Gender-Role Orientations

Source of Variation	df	ss	ms	F	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	5.75	2.87	6.59	.003
Within Groups	43	18.75	.44		
TOTAL	45	24.49			

Wives' gender-role orientation	Number of wives	Husbands' Mean Pleasure of Marital Activity Scores
Feminine/Androgynous	33	3.19
Masculine	5	2.09
Undifferentiated	8	2.77

married to highly feminine wives enjoyed activities together regardless of the number of activities.

Hypothesis 3: Husbands' femininity is more predictive of the wives' marital quality than the wives' femininity is of the husbands' marital quality. Husbands' and wives' femininity is positively related to marital quality.

This hypothesis was not supported. Wives' mean marital quality scores did not significantly relate to femininity of husbands. Yet, there were several significant correlations between wives' femininity and husbands' marital quality (See Table 5). Husbands' love, maintenance, and pleasure of marital activities scores increased as the femininity of the wives increased. Ambivalence, on the other hand, significantly decreased for the husbands as femininity of the wives increased. These findings are highly supportive of what has been previously suggested: wives' femininity is a predictor of husbands' marital quality.

It was expected that husbands' femininity would be a predictor of wives' marital quality and that it would be more of a predictor than wives' femininity is of the husbands marital quality. As stated earlier, husbands' femininity was not related at all to wives' marital

Table 5
 Correlations between Marital Quality
 Dimensions and Feminine Orientations

<u>Marital Quality Dimension</u>	<u>Husbands' Femininity with Wives' Marital Quality</u>	<u>Wives' Femininity with Husbands' Marital Quality</u>
Love	.11 p = .24	.41 p = .002**
Maintenance	.05 p = .37	.31 p = .018*
Conflict	-.14 p = .18	-.02 p = .45
Ambivalence	-.07 p = .32	-.24 p = .054*
Pleasure of Activities	.09 p = .29	.26 p = .04*
Average Number of Activities	-.03 p = .43	.18 p = .11

*p < .05
 **p < .01

quality. Wives perceived their marriages as high in quality regardless of husbands' gender-role orientation. Wives in this sample appear to be adaptable to husbands with any orientation (i.e., highly feminine, masculine, and undifferentiated).

Hypothesis 4: Husbands' masculinity is more predictive of wives' marital quality than wives' masculinity is of husbands' marital quality. Husbands' and wives' masculinity is negatively related to marital quality.

This hypothesis was not supported. There were no significant correlations between husbands' masculinity and wives' marital quality or wives' masculinity and husbands' marital quality (see Table 6).

Discussion

The results indicate that husbands married to feminine wives had significantly higher pleasure of activities than husbands married to masculine wives. Husbands' marital quality dimensions of love, maintenance, and pleasure of activities significantly increased as femininity of their wives increased. Ambivalence for the husbands, on the other hand, significantly decreased as wives' femininity increased. These significances clearly indicate that for husbands, wives' femininity is a

Table 6
Correlations between Marital Quality
Dimensions and Masculine Orientation

<u>Marital Quality Dimension</u>	<u>Husbands' masculinity with Wives' marital quality</u>	<u>Wives' masculinity with Husbands' marital quality</u>
Love	.06 p = .33	-.24 p = .055
Maintenance	.20 p = .09	.03 p = .41
Conflict	.11 p = .24	.16 p = .14
Ambivalence	-.05 p = .36	.11 p = .24
Pleasure of Activities	.19 p = .11	-.02 p = .46
Average Number of Activities	-.03 p = .41	-.09 p = .28

*p < .05
**p < .01

predictor of marital quality. The nonsignificant findings in the present study provide valuable information as well, that might otherwise be overlooked. The following is a review of the nonsignificant findings and their possible suggestions.

In hypothesis 1 and 2, there were no significant findings between wife's mean marital quality scores of the different gender-role orientations of the husbands. Husbands' gender-role orientation was not a predictor of wives' marital quality. The means did show an interesting pattern. Wives married to masculine husbands scored highest on the dimensions love, maintenance, pleasure of activities, and number of activities and lowest on ambivalence. This trend suggests that wives preferred the traditional masculine husband over any other orientation. Yet, interestingly enough, wives married to masculine husbands also scored highest on conflict (see Table 2 page 32). This suggests that these newly married wives prefer the traditional masculine male even though it involves more conflict. Conflict in this case does not appear to be detrimental to the relationship.

To briefly summarize the findings of hypothesis 1 and 2, husbands' femininity was not a predictor of wives' marital quality, yet, wives' femininity was a predictor of husband's marital quality. Antill (1983) found that

wives' feminine characteristics to be most critical early in relationships. The present study supports these findings. Antill (1983) also found that husbands' feminine characteristics were most critical later in the relationship. To test this, the sample was broken down into couples married less than 12 months and those married more than 12 months. Pearson Correlation Coefficients were then run between husbands' femininity and wives' marital pleasure for each group. The correlations did not reach significance. There was no increase or decrease in wives' pleasure of activities as husbands femininity increased (See Table 7). This trend does not support Antill's (1983) findings that later on in marriages husbands' femininity plays a more important role yet, it is important to monitor this in future studies.

Lastly, It was hypothesized that masculine characteristics, such as competitiveness, aggressiveness, forcefulness, dominance, would negatively relate to marital quality, especially husbands' masculinity. Other studies have suggested these findings (Balswick & Peek, 1976; Dubbert, 1979; Crites & Fitzgerald, 1978; Doyle, 1983; Verser, 1981). Yet, there are also the findings that masculinity does not relate to marital quality (Antill, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979). This discrepancy is quite unclear in the present literature. It is

Table 7

Correlations between Husbands'
Femininity and Wives' Pleasure
of Marital Activities

<u>Months married</u>	<u>Coefficient</u>
Less than 12	- .02 p=.47
More than 12	.27 p=.15

interesting to note though that in the present sample there seem to be a trend for husbands' love scores to decrease as masculinity of the wives' increase (see Table 7). It appears that husbands seem to prefer highly feminine wives, as significantly indicated in the present research, yet it also seems important to the husbands that their wives not incorporate masculine characteristics. There is a possibility that husbands do not perceive marital quality as being high if their wives incorporate masculine characteristics such as independence, aggressiveness, strong personalities, dominance, etc. It may very well be that husbands are threatened by females (wives in this case) who have strong characteristics as the above. The answer to this suggestion lies in additional research.

IV. Implication and Conclusions

Future Research and Educational Intervention

As mentioned earlier, the research on gender-role orientation as a predictor of marital quality is still in its infancy. The studies that have shown significant findings all reveal that the feminine orientation is a positive predictor of marital quality. More studies, of course, need to be done to verify these findings. There are many areas within this topic of research that need more exploration. Only one study has investigated the different combinations of husband/wife gender role orientations (Antill, 1983). For example, feminine husbands married to feminine wives had the highest couple marital quality score, whereas undifferentiated husbands married to masculine wives had the lowest marital quality scores. The differences between these various combinations need to be further explored. Specifically, research is needed on the differences between husbands married to feminine wives versus husbands married to androgynous wives. Both the feminine and androgynous orientations by definition are high on feminine characteristics, yet, whether one or the other is more of a predictor of marital quality is unclear. It would logically seem that femininity and androgyny would be equal predictors of marital quality considering that

masculinity does not contribute to marital quality. Unfortunately, the sample in this study was not large enough to compare and contrast the differences between the feminine orientation and androgynous orientation.

It is interesting to note that newly married couples in this study desired traditional spouses. Husbands significantly preferred highly feminine wives, and wives, even though it did not reach significance, seem to prefer masculine husbands. As mentioned above, studies, including this one, suggest that as the marriage progresses wives desire husbands to incorporate more feminine characteristics and husbands continue to want their wives to be highly feminine (Antill, 1983; Burger & Jacobson, 1979). Studies have also indicated that traditional couples (masculine husband/feminine wife) in the long run are somewhat low in marital quality (Antill, 1983; Bowen & Orthner, 1983). It may be that what is being culturally defined as "appropriate" is integrated early in marriage, as the case in this study. Yet, what is taught as "appropriate" does not seem to keep the couples satisfied. As mentioned earlier, studies have indicated that as a marriage progresses in time the couples prefer spouses who incorporate highly feminine characteristics such as warmth, gentleness, compassion, affection, understanding, etc. (Antill, 1983; Burger &

Jacobson, 1979). It seems as educators and counselors in marriage and family life an emphasis needs to be placed on males and females incorporating such feminine qualities as tenderness, loyalty, understanding, etc. in order to develop quality long-term relationships.

Other areas of needed exploration in the study of gender-role as a predictor of marital quality concerns mediating variables such as length of marriage, children, divorce, etc. The question of how these variables come in to play as far as gender-role orientation predicting marital quality has only been touched upon. Antill (1983), for example, found that husbands' femininity was more crucial after the first child. It seems that when children are present the feminine qualities of the husband such as warmth, tenderness, and compassion play a key role in marital quality, possibly even more so than when the couple was childfree. Divorce may also have an influence in an individual's gender-role orientation. Possibly after a failed relationship, individuals attempt to incorporate more feminine qualities of warmth, tenderness, and understanding to increase the quality of the marriage in order to prevent failure a second time.

The gender-role research has yielded contradictory findings. The marital quality literature suggests that a masculine orientation does not predict marital quality,

yet, the masculine orientation seemingly predicts personal adjustment. As Antill (1983) stated "...masculine traits may be the key to self-confidence, achievement, and leadership, they are not the qualities that hold the key to a happy, long term relationship." (Antill, 1983, p. 153). It would seem that qualities that predict personal adjustment would also predict a healthy relationship, yet, this is not the case. More research is needed to clarify these baffling findings.

Problems with the Gender-Role Orientation Research

The study of gender-role orientation over the past 10 years has been enormous and fruitful, yet, it has not been without its difficulties. At present there are many measures of gender-role: Sex role inventory (Baucom, 1926); PAQ personal attributes questionnaire (Spence et al., 1975); SRAS-sex-role attitudes scale used in Bowen & Orthner (1983), Scanzoni (1975b), and Tomeh (1978); and, of course, BSRI - Bem's Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). These are just to name a few. Some of the scales measure gender-role traits, attitudes, and/or attributes, yet, the literature seems to categorize it all under gender-role orientation without distinguishing the differences. For example, SRAS sex-role inventory describes a traditional and a modern orientation. In comparing, for example, the

BSRI terminology to the other SRAS, the question arises whether the traditional orientation of the SRAS can be compared and contrasted to the BSRI's masculine male and feminine female. Likewise, can the modern orientation of the SRAS be compared and contrasted to the androgynous orientation of the BSRI. Therefore, the gender-role orientation literature is lacking in organization and common definitions which is making it difficult to compare and contrast research findings.

What is severely needed in the field of gender-role orientation is a clearly defined and well organized measurement. This is easier said than done. Problems arise in the definitions of the gender-role orientations. The different orientation of the BSRI, for example, the masculine characteristics are said to be culturally defined norms for males and, likewise, feminine characteristics are culturally defined norms for females. As one well knows, norms of behavior for males and females are rapidly changing. The scales like the BSRI, which was created 10 years ago, could easily be outdated. Plus, the defined norms in the BSRI, or any other gender-role orientation scale, does not take into consideration other demographic variables. For example, what is considered highly feminine (i.e. "warmth", "gentleness", "compassion") in metropolitan New York may not be in rural

Hicktown, Montana. This brings into question the median split procedure of the BSRI. The sample basically defines the cut-off points for the different gender-role orientation groups which may be extremely misleading. It appears what is needed is more global representations of what is "feminine" and "masculine" as Block (1973) outlined.

Lastly, problem with the creation of a new scale is that most of the gender-role orientation scales are self-report likert type measures. If a researcher is attempting to measure gender-role behavior with a self-report measure, one may instead be measuring gender-role expectation and/or gender-role ideal. Precautions need to be made to insure the measurement of gender-role enactment by incorporating interviews and/or specific behavioral assessments within the measurement.

Methodological Suggestions

In reviewing the literature specifically on gender-role orientation as a predictor of marital quality some methodological procedures create a difficulty in comparing and contrasting research. For example, Burger & Jacobson (1979) included individuals that were married as well as cohabitating. With the increase of individuals living together and the decrease of marriages, the definition of a "couple" does present a problem. Intermingling the two

does not seem to be an effective answer. Also many of the studies attempt to combine the individual husband/wife marital quality scores and obtain a couple score. For example, if one spouse is androgynous the couple is categorized as an androgynous couple. Massive information is lost with this particular methodological approach. For one, gender differences are lost which can be valuable information. Secondly, a key concern in the gender-role research at present is that an androgynous male may not be equivalent to an androgynous female and therefore, should not be treated as such. Likewise, a masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated male may not be equivalent to a masculine, feminine, or undifferentiated female. Until the gender-differences can be separated out, the gender-role research needs to be cautious in combining husbands and wives under one gender-role orientation.

In concluding, this study has expanded the findings that the highly feminine orientations do contribute positively to husbands' marital quality. It seems logical that feminine characteristics such as warmth, tenderness, compassion, etc. would positively relate to marital quality. Yet, as this study has mentioned, there are many unanswered questions and methodological concerns dealing with gender-role orientation as a predictor of marital quality. In refining labels and definitions of gender-

role orientation, as well as, incorporating more precise methodological procedures will guide future researchers to a more fruitful understanding of gender-role orientation and its impact on marital quality.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

September, 1980

Ms. Jane Doe
Box 000
Corvallis, OR 97330

Dear Ms. Doe:

As you may have learned from articles in the local newspapers, I am directing a study of courtship patterns which lead to marriage. We are interested in finding out how people decide when they have found the "right" marriage partner and how one couple's courtship differs from another's courtship. Your name was found in the public records of marriage licenses in the county courthouse. We are writing to ask if you and your spouse are willing to cooperate in our study. In fact, your spouse may receive this same letter.

If you both are able to participate, two interviewers from our research staff will make an appointment to talk with you and your spouse at your convenience. The interview requires that you talk to us about what your relationship was like from the time you met until marriage. The interviews can be done in your home or in our offices on campus, whichever is most convenient for you. You can expect the interviews to take about one hour of your time.

Your interview will be strictly confidential, and your name will never be associated with any information given us. The confidentiality of your interview is protected by the rigid guidelines of the Oregon State University. Information gathered in all of the interviews will be pooled and used to formulate general research reports. If you participate, we will gladly send you a report of our general findings.

Would you please phone me when it is convenient for you so that we can set up an appointment? We want to give you the opportunity to find out as much about the study as you wish. If you would like to participate or if you have

Ms. Jane Doe
September, 1980
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any questions at all, please do not hesitate to call. My phone number is 754-4765. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. If I am not in when you call, please leave a message and your call will be returned.

Sincerely,

Rodney M. Cate, Ph.D.
Project Director

Appendix B
INFORMED CONSENT

To the participant:

This study of how relationships develop. We know that there is great variability in how relationships change over time and that there is no typical relationship. We are not interested, primarily, in how your relationship is similar to others but in the ways in which it might be different and unique. You will be asked to describe your relationship and we will ask you questions to help you fill in details. You will also be asked to fill out a form with questions that ask about the way you feel and the things you do as a person. These procedures should not take longer than one hour. Through this experience, you may come to know some of the reasons why relationships change. Your contribution will add much to the little knowledge which is available in this field. Your name will never be connected with your particular answers and only members of our qualified research team will have access to any information you provide.

This is to certify that I, _____, hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in a scientific investigation as an authorized part of the educational and research program of Oregon State University under the supervision of Dr. Rodney Cate, Assistant Professor of Family Life.

The investigation and my part in it have been defined and fully explained to me by _____ and I understand the explanation. The procedures are described on this form and have been discussed in detail with me. I have been given an opportunity to ask whatever questions I may have had and all such questions and inquiries have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to deny any answer to specific items or questions in interviews or questionnaires.

I understand that any data or answers to questions will remain confidential with regard to my identity. I further understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and terminate my participation at any time.

Date

Participant's Signature

I, the undersigned, have defined and fully explained the investigation to the above person.

Date

Investigator's Signature

I was present when the above was explained to the subject in detail and to my best knowledge and belief it was understood.

Date

Witness

Appendix C

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

- (1-3) Respondent Code _____
- (4) Card No. _____
1. Number of previous marriages _____
- (5-6) 2. Age _____
- (7) 3. Sex
- (1) Male
- (2) Female
- (8) 4. Total years of education _____
- (9) 5. Yearly income
- (1) \$5,000 or less (total for family)
- (2) \$5,000 to 9,999
- (3) \$10,000 to 14,999
- (4) \$15,000 to 19,999
- (5) \$20,000 or above
6. Date of marriage _____
- (10-11) 7. How many serious relationships did you have
prior to the one with your spouse? _____

Appendix D
 RELATIONSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE
 FORM D

(1-3) Interviewee Code _____
 (4) Card No. _____

The following questions are items that ask about certain aspects of your relationship with your spouse. Please answer these questions for the present time in your relationship. In answering the questions, you are to pick the number from "1" to "9" that best tells how much, or to what extent the statement describes your relationship as it is right now. The following is an example of how a question might be answered:

A. Now much do you worry about getting hurt emotionally by (partner's name) --i.e., how emotionally vulnerable do you feel?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all			Moderately			Very Much		

If you worry not at all about being hurt, you would circle the number "1."

If you worry moderately, you would circle the number "5."

If you worry very much, you would circle the number "9."

If your amount of worry is somewhere between "not at all" and "moderately" you would circle either number "2," "3," or "4," depending on the extent of your feeling.

If your amount of worry is somewhere between "very much" and "moderately," you would circle either number "6," "7," or "8," depending on the extent of your feeling.

Please complete the following questions, according to the instructions just given, for your relationship as it is at the present time.

- (5) 1. To what extent do you have a sense of "belonging" with (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

2. To what extent do you reveal or disclose very intimate facts about yourself to (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Moderately

Very much

3. How often do you and (partner's name) argue with one another?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Very infrequently

Very frequently

4. How much do you feel you "give to the relationship?"

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Very little

Very much

5. To what do you try to change things about (partner's name) that bother you (e.g., behaviors, attitudes, etc.)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

not at all

Very much

6. How confused are you about your feelings toward (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Extremely

7. To what extent do you love (partner's name) at this stage?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

8. How much time do you and (partner's name) spend discussing and trying to work out problems between you?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

No time at all

A great deal of time

9. How much do you think about or worry about losing some of your independence by getting involved with (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

10. To what extent do you feel that the things that happen to (partner's name) also affects or are important to you?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

11. How much do you and (partner's name) talk about the quality of your relationship--e.g., how "good" it is, how satisfying, how to improve it, etc.?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Never

Very often

12. How often do you feel angry or resentful toward (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Never

Very often

13. To what extent do you feel that your relationship is somewhat unique compared to others you've been in?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

14. To what extent do you try to change your own behavior to help solve certain problems between you and (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

15. How ambivalent or unsure are you about continuing in the relationship with (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not unsure at all

Extremely unsure

16. How committed do you feel toward (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Extremely

17. How close do you feel to (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not close at all

Extremely close

18. To what extent do you feel that (partner's name) demands or requires too much of your time and attention?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

19. How much do you need (partner's name) at this stage?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

20. To what extent do you feel "trapped" or pressured to continue in this relationship?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

21. How sexually intimate are you with (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Extremely

22. How much do you tell (partner's name) what you want or need from the relationship?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Very little

Very much

23. How attached do you feel to (partner's name)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

24. When you and (partner's name) argue, how serious are the problems or arguments?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not serious at all

Very serious

25. To what extent do you communicate negative feelings toward (partner's name)--e.g., anger, dissatisfaction, frustration, etc.?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Not at all

Very much

Appendix E

INVENTORY OF MARITAL ACTIVITIES

Participant Code _____

On this sheet are 25 activities that many married couples engage in with a variety of people. Please indicate in the appropriate space how often you have engaged in these activities in the past 4 (four) weeks, and how pleasant, in general, each activity was for you. ++ = very pleasant, + = pleasant, 0 = no opinion, - = unpleasant, and -- = very unpleasant.

++ = very pleasant + = pleasant 0 = no opinion - = unpleasant -- = very unpleasant

Activity was performed:

	with partner only How many times?	How Pleasant?
1. Listening to music on the radio or stereo	++	+
2. Playing with pets or animals	++	+
3. Reading novels, short stories or poetry	++	+
4. Managing funds (banking, budgeting, etc.)	++	+
5. Planning or preparing a special meal	++	+
6. Having friends over for a visit or dinner	++	+
7. Repairing things (because you want to)	++	+
8. Affectional talk (I love you, you're wonderful, etc.)	++	+
9. Engaging in petting or other sex play	++	+
10. Having intercourse	++	+
11. Conversations about general family management	++	+
12. Talking about friends or relatives	++	+
13. Playing games, such as Scrabble or Monopoly	++	+
14. Play sporting activities (jogging, football, etc.)	++	+
15. Go to a movie	++	+
16. Go out to eat	++	+
17. Go to a dance or party	++	+
18. Go shopping for clothes (because you want to)	++	+
19. Go for a ride	++	+
20. Visit friends	++	+
21. Visit relatives	++	+
22. Go to a club or organization meeting	++	+
23. Go to a sporting event (football game, etc.)	++	+
24. Go on a picnic	++	+
25. Engaging in religious activities	++	+

