Career Orientation, Sex Role Orientation, and Perceived Equity as Factors Affecting Marital Power

by

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ABSTRACT

Recently developed models of family power view power as an ability to influence others in situations of conflict of interest which is demonstrated by the process of interaction between individuals (Olson, Cromwell, & Klein, 1975; Osmond, 1978; Rollins & Bahr, 1976). Among the variables specified as influences on marital power by marital power theorists are the resources exchanged by marital partners, the perceived equity of the exchange (Osmond, 1978), and the partners' perceptions of the extent of their power in influencing spouses (Rollins & Bahr, 1976). The present study compared dual career and single career couples, in which one or both partners are involved in professional careers, on perceived marital equity, sex role orientation of spouses, and four dimensions of marital power, including influence attempts, perceived power, and two types of influence strategies.

Fifty dual career couples and fifty single career couples, selected chiefly from membership lists of professionals' organizations and matched for type of occupation and the presence or absence of children in the family, volunteered for participation. Couples completed the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974); a self-report measure of equity developed for this study; Bahr's Role Measure of Conjugal Power (Bahr, 1972); and a self-report scale of influence strategies (Davis, 1975). Couples also

resolved experimentally created conflicts from Olson and Ryder's (1970) Inventory of Marital Conflicts (IMC). Audio recordings of couples' IMC discussions were content analysed for influence attempts of each spouse.

Tests of career orientation hypotheses indicated that dual and single career couples differed on feminine sex role orientation, with single career wives viewing themselves as more feminine than did dual career wives. Tests of gender hypotheses indicated that wives viewed their marriages as more equitable than their husbands did, with husbands rating themselves as over-benefitting and wives rating themselves as slightly under-benefitting compared to their partners. Wives tended to use control of material resources (means control) as an influence strategy more than husbands did. For dual career couples, but not single career couples, gender of spouse and masculine sex role orientation were significant predictors of marital power variables, particularly influence attempts and use of appeals to one's credibility as an influence strategy.

The direction and extent of relationships among dependent variables were found to depend on couples' career orientation and the gender of the spouse. Perceived equity was positively related to perceived marital power for husbands and for wives, to use of credibility as an influence strategy for dual career partners, and to femininity for dual career husbands. For single career partners, perceived equity was negatively related to the

use of means control. Masculine sex role orientation was positively associated with the use of credibility as an influence strategy for all subgroups, as well as with perceived power for wives. For dual career husbands, masculinity was negatively associated with the frequency of influence attempts. Additional relationships were found between some but not all marital power variables.

These results support marital power theories which assert the importance of perceived equity (Osmond, 1978) and of perceived power (Rollins & Bahr, 1976) as determinants of other power variables. These results also re-affirm the multi-dimensionality of the concept of marital power, since not all marital power variables were related to each other nor equally predicted by non-power variables (Olson, Cromwell, & Klein, 1975). Several means by which spouses' gender affects marital power and the importance of sex role orientation as a predictor of self-reported marital power are suggested by the findings.

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Marriage partners succeed in resolving countless life issues during the course of their relationship. The range of decisions they face ensures that disagreement between partners on some issues is inevitable, necessitating that one spouse's opinion prevails over the other's some of the time. The occurrence of this process raises many unanswered questions about its nature. By what means does one spouse influence his partner? Under what conditions does one spouse permit the other to dominate? What characteristics of individuals and of their relationship determine how one partner influences the other? These questions have been the concern of research on marital power and are the central questions of the present investigation.

Power is the ability to make or alter group choices, according to Turk (1975), who has identified this characteristic as common to all definitions of power. Several models have been developed recently for the analysis of the capacity to make or alter choices within a marital partnership (Olson, Cromwell, & Klein, 1975; Osmond, 1978; Rollins & Bahr, 1976). The subsequent discussion will identify each model prior to delineating the relationship between the variables of the present study as a function of these models.

Recent Models of Family Power

The first of three recently developed models of the nature of power is Olson, Cromwell & Klein's (1975). According to their model, power cannot be understood separately from the system in which it appears. Marital power is thus a component of the functioning of a total family, both affecting and affected by all other relationships within the family and by the family's external social context. The reciprocally or circularly causal relationship of many family life variables to marital power requires that power be identified by observing regularities in the interaction processes of marital partners, rather than solely through determination of the outcomes of interaction. In other words, the outcome of a difference of views is less salient for the understanding of marital power than is the process by which the outcome is determined. The dimensions of power include spouses' preceptions, motivations to apply power, and behaviors demonstrating power. Consequently, both objective observation and subjective self-reports of family members are required in the analysis of power relations. Family processes which may be understood by power dynamics include decision-making, problem-solving, negotiating differences, and responding to crises.

A second recently developed model of family power by Rollins & Bahr (1976) shares Olson, Cromwell and Klein's

(1975) view that power is a characteristic of social interaction, rather than a characteristic of an individual. From Rollins & Bahr's perspective, power is demonstrated only in situations where individuals have a conflict of interest, since only in these instances does potential power become an observable behavior. Each partner may have more influence than the other in specific situations. Power is therefore relative between spouses, depending on the issue and the context in which it is exerted. Power may be distinguished from attempts to influence, which may be called control attempts, and from control, which is behavior demonstrating power. The determinants of power in any situation are resources and authority. Resources are "anything that one partner may make available to the other, helping the latter satisfy his needs or attain his goals" (Rollins & Bahr, 1976, p. 621). Marital authority is a reflection of social norms determining which partner ought to have control over specific marital issues. The exercise of power, or control, is ultimately determined by the spouses' perceptions of resources and authority, with modifications resulting from counter-control attempts by the marital partner or by external others against the initiator's control attempts.

The third model of marital power, developed recently by Osmond (1978), is more explicit about the processes of marital power than either Olson, Cromwell, & Klein's (1975) model or Rollins and Bahr's (1976) model. Osmond suggests

that power relations emerge from the exchange of resources between partners occurring in the early stages of their relationship. If the worth and the rate of resources exchanged is relatively balanced, trust develops in the relationship. The partners develop expectations that the reciprocal exchange will continue. Exchanges come to be evaluated in comparison to past exchanges within the relationship and in comparison to expectations learned from observing the rewards obtained by others with similar resource exchanges in their relationships. The perceptions of the relationship partners and their comparison with standards both within and outside the relationship is termed the "referential structure" (Osmond, 1978, p. 52) of the exchange relations. When marital partners have unequal resources, attempts by one spouse to exert power result in the partner's choosing between several alternative response strategies. The partner may provide a service to the relationship in the expectation that his spouse will continue to reciprocate by providing resources in the future or the partner may provide the services in response to coercion. Failing these outcomes, the partner attempting to exert power may obtain the desired services elsewhere or may decide to do without the services. According to Osmond, a state of equitable exchange exists in a relationship if the resources contributed and the rewards obtained are proportional for each partner.

Although these three models emphasize different features

of the influence process between marital partners, they are not contradictory to one another. Taken together, they represent a conceptualization of marital power consonant with the findings of previous marital power research, which has been tested only minimally by subsequent research (Martin & Osmond, 1975; Osmond, 1978).

These recent models converge in their view of power as an ability or potential which is behaviorally demonstrated only in situations where conflict of interest occurs. A second point of convergence between these models is their assumption that power is a characteristic of a system of interaction between individuals or groups, rather than an attribute of an individual. The consequences of this view of power as a system characteristic are twofold: (a) that processes of interaction demonstrate power; and (b) that numerous characteristics of a marital relationship system affect the power relations of the partners. A third point of convergence between the models is the view the perceptions of marital partners are vital to understanding their power relations.

The Present Research

The present research investigates aspects of marital power suggested by these recently developed theoretical models. The assumptions shared by the present research

with these models are the following: (a) that power is observable only in situations of conflict; (b) that power characterizes not an individual but a system of interaction, requiring an analysis of the interaction process; and (c) that the perceptions of participants in a power relationship are necessary for understanding power.

The major consequences of these assumptions for the present study are seen in the research design and in the choice of dependent variables. The consequence for the research design is the concept of using the marital dyad rather than each partner as the basic unit of analysis, since marital power is a characteristic of the relationship system rather than of either the husband or wife. The dependent variables of power in this investigation include attempts to influence the marital partner, the strategies partners identify in their attempts to influence and partners' perceptions of their relative power in decisions affecting the relationship. The present research thus provides an opportunity to observe both the interaction process and the participants' perceptions of power, as well as the effects of process and perception on each other.

The purpose of the present research is to investigate marital power by comparing the process of influence during conflict interactions of two types of marital dyads, dual career and single career professional couples. Dual career couples, in which both partners pursue careers while maintaining a family life together, differ from single

career couples, in which one member of the couple pursues a career, in the kinds of rewards and costs contributed to the marriage by each partner. These couples therefore provide a means of investigating the effects of equity, or equality in the reward-cost balance of the marriage partners, on marital power. If the single career couples are the type in which the husband is the breadwinner, these couples also differ in the extent to which husband and wife share or do not share the family provider and family homemaker roles traditionally ascribed to husbands and wives, respectively. Thus, dual and single career couples also provide a means for investigating the effects of sex role orientation or androgy on marital power.

In summary, the present investigation proposes to study: (a) the effects of couples' career orientation and gender of spouse on dimensions of marital power suggested by recently developed models of family power; (b) the effects of couples' career orientation and gender of spouse on perceived equity of the relationship and on sex role orientation of the partners; (c) the effects of perceived equity and sex role orientation on marital power. The independent variables of the present investigation are couples' career orientation and gender of spouse, while the dependent variables are perceived equity, sex role orientation, attempts to influence, influence strategies and perceived power. Perceived equity and sex role orientation are considered mediating variables for the

effects of career orientation and gender of spouse on power variables.

The discussion to follow illustrates the hypothesized differences between couples of differing career orientation and between husbands and wives on marital power, on the perceived equity of the relationship, and on the sex role orientation of the marital partners.

Resources as Determinants of Marital Power

Rollins and Bahr (1976) and Osmond (1978) share with older, classical theories of family power their identification of both resources and authority as significant determinants of marital power. The possession of valued resources increases the ability of a marital partner to influence his or her spouse. Authority, or the role-based ascription of decision-making power to a spouse determined by social values, may be considered a resource since possession of authority augments its holder's power. Neither Bahr and Rollins nor Osmond specify what attributes constitute the resource base of family power. However, several older theories of marital power have specified the resources base of marital power in ways that suggest differences between the dual and single career professional couples which are the focus of the present investigation (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Heer, 1963a, 1963b; Wolfe, 1959).

If, as assumed by Wolfe (1959), marital power must be based on possession of resources needed by one's spouse, then the distribution of marital power between dual career and single career families is necessarily different. Resources contributed by the husbands in both instances include the provision of financial support for the family, social status resulting from occupational participation, and the contribution of skills that are a by-product of occupational participation.[1] The resources contributed by wives in dual and single career families differ markedly, however. The single career wife contributes to the accomplishment of household and child-rearing tasks as her major occupation while the dual career wife contributes the resources resulting from her occupational activity. Since the kinds of resources exchanged in the two types of relationships differ so markedly, the power relations must differ in the two types of relationships, according to Wolfe.

Family power is affected specifically by resources

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[1]Resources, in Wolfe's sense, may refer to all possible kinds of contributions, from the universal level (resources which may be contributed by anyone possessing them) to the particularistic or highly personal level (resources or contributions which are considered as such by the recipient only because of the identity of the person contributing them.) Both these kinds of resources are exchanged in marriage relationships. The most obvious differences between dual and single career marital dyads are those of the universal type. These types of resources are the major ones referred to in the discussion of the resource-base of marital power, although not in subsequent discussion of other possible differences between the two types of couples.

such as the relative amount of education completed by spouses, and spouses' relative degree of organizational and occupational participation, according to Blood and Wolfe (1960). In their formulation, the spouse with the greater education, greater income, and greater skills due to participation in the occupational world and in organizations has the greater personal resources. These elaborated specifications of the resource base of family power continue to suggest differences between dual and single career families. Income, education, and skills resulting from greater occupational and organizational participation are likely to differ between the spouses in the two types of families. By definition, wives in single career families do not contribute income, are likely to have less education than their husbands since husbands' careers usually necessitate advanced education, and have less opportunity for skill development of the type specific to occupational and organizational participation. Wives of dual career families, in contrast, engage in a full-time occupation outside the home, usually have advanced education, and may have greater opportunities than wives of single career families for the development of skills specific to occupational and organizational participation. Dual and single career wives differ on all of the criteria identified by Blood and Wolfe as determinants of family power. However, husbands in both types of marital dyads possess the resources specified by

Blood and Wolfe as determinants of marital power. Blood and Wolfe's resource theory therefore, clearly predicts some differences in marital power relations between the husbands and wives of single career families, but not between the husbands and wives of dual career families.

Blood and Wolfe's (1960) resource theory of family power includes cultural norms prescribing authority as determinants of power. Recent theory and research on marital authority has further implications for understanding power in dual and single career families.

Traditional norms have facilitated husband dominance in families where both husbands and wives were socialized to attribute authority to the husband's role. More recently, family roles have become less culturally prescribed (Aldous, 1974; Bernard, 1972; Gass, 1974; Nye, 1974; Osofsky & Osofsky, 1972; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975). The resulting increase in ambiguity of norms for behavior in families, according to Blood and Wolfe, has also increased the degree to which comparative resources of husbands and wives determine who makes family decisions.

Cromwell, Corrales, and Trosiello (1973) and Rodman (1972) have stated the Blood and Wolfe (1960) theory more explicitly by saying that cultural or subcultural expectations about marital power, in addition to spouses' comparative resources, determine marital power. Variations in husbands' and wives' contributions to decision-making by social class and educational status of the couple are

attributable to couples' expectations about power relations in marriage, as influenced by the subculture to which they belong.

A major determinant of norms regarding marriage authority patterns, which also constitutes a basis for subcultures within a larger society is education (Cromwell, Corrales, & Torsiello, 1973; Rodman, 1972; Safilios-Rothschild, 1967), with high education typically associated with equalitarian rather than husband dominant authority patterns. Husbands in the two types of marriages to be studied in the present investigation will be relatively similar in education as a function of the definition of a career. Since subcultural membership by education will therefore be similar for the two types of couples, the values of each with regard to authority patterns in families will tend to be similar, according to Rodman (1972). The likelihood of equalitarian norms in the dual and single career marital dyads facilitates the present investigation of marital power since contested or conflicted interaction is less likely to occur in marital dyads with authoritarian norms.

The likelihood of similarity in prescribed authority between single and dual career marital couples also adds to the clarity of examining differences in resources as a basis for the differences in power hypothesized in this study between these two types of couples.

Heer's (1963a; 1963b) exchange theory of family power

has identified resources effecting marital power that are additional to those identified by Blood and Wolfe (1960). Blood and Wolfe cite as major determinants of family power only resources based on spouses' participation in activities external to the family, such as income, occupational status, and organizational participation. Heer views attractiveness, competence in family roles, and other factors specific to internal family relations as influential for husbands' or wives' power. According to Heer, these personal attributes affect power because husbands and wives are aware of the value of their personal resources both within and outside the marriage. Since it is presumed that spouses actively evaluate their resources, subjective evaluations of needs and resources rather than actual attributes determine power relations.

Heer's (1963a; 1963b) perspective also suggests differences between single career and dual career professional couples in their power relations. Again, husbands contribute the same kinds of material resources, while wives in the two types of couples clearly contribute different types of resources. While the value attributed to husbands' material contributions may be evaluated subjectively differently within each marriage, the value attributed to wives' markedly different contributions to each type of marriage is likely to vary even more. Therefore, Heer's theory, as well as Blood and Wolfe's (1960), theory predicts some differences in power between dual career and single

career couples on the basis of differences in their exchange of resources.

Influence Process and Perceived Power in Marital Couples

Resource and exchange theories predict marital power differences between dual and single career couples. However, research on marital power has frequently found great discrepancies between different measures of power. Generally, it has been found that process or interaction measures yield different results than outcome measures of family decision tasks, as do self-report versus behavioral measures (Olson, 1969; Olson & Rabunsky, 1972; Turk & Bell, 1972). Sprey (1971, 1972, 1975) has attributed these discrepancies to the difference between observable family interaction and an underlying system of rules for family interaction. This underlying organization or structure of interaction patterns is not likely to be evident to family members themselves, and may be evident to an observer only after extensive, repeated observation of interaction patterns characteristic of a particular family. Sprey and other family theorists (Olson & Cromwell, 1975a; Olson, Cromwell & Klein, 1975; Rollins & Bahr, 1976) have suggested that the process of family interaction provides more information on a family's power relations than do measures of the outcome of a family's decision-making tasks.

Family interaction measures can identify the system of family interaction rules which determine both who has influence and how influence occurs in families, while decision-making tasks demonstrate merely who influences a particular kind of decision most. Several family theorists recommend the use of both self-report and process measures of family influence interaction in studies of power to combine the advantages of the phenomenological perspective of family members and the more objective perspective of observers in measuring family power (Olson & Cromwell, 1975b; Safilios-Rothschild, 1972; Turk & Bell, 1972).

Rollins and Bahr (1976) identify several dimensions in the process by which family members influence each other: control or influence attempts, control, counter control attempts, and power. The attempt to exert power is an influence attempt. If the attempt elicits compliance, the behavioral event of control by one person over another's behavior has occurred. Counter control attempts are influence attempts exerting a strong force in a direction opposite to the initiator's, by a person external to the relationship. Power remains the term referring to potential or ability to control another's behavior. The present investigation is concerned with one dimension of the influence process, influence attempts.

In Rollins and Bahr's (1976) view, influence attempts and power are highly related to perceptions of power. They suggest that the more power a person perceives himself to

have in a relationship, the more influence attempts he will initiate. The more power an initiator is perceived to have, the greater is the likelihood of compliance in response to his attempt.

Sprey (1971, 1972) similarly suggests that the perceptions family members have of the influence process between family members determines their behavior in subsequent influence interactions. In his view, perceptions of influence strategies between family members affect individuals' decisions about the bargaining or negotiation strategy to use in subsequent interactions. Similarly, family members' perceptions of past conflict interactions may be expected to influence their behavior in subsequent conflict interactions. The more they see themselves as having exerted influence in past family conflict situations, the more likely they will be to attempt to exert influence in subsequent conflict situations.

Rollins and Bahr's (1976) theory suggests further that authority and resources of each spouse in a marriage relative to the other, determine spouses' perceptions of their relative power and, subsequently, the frequency of their attempts to influence each other. Moreover, they suggest that the more often spouses attempt to influence each other the greater is the probability of obtaining compliance in response to the attempt.

Partners in dual career marriages provide similar resources to their marriages from their occupational

participation, while partners in single career marriages differ more notably in the kinds of basic resources they contribute to their marriage. Moreover, dual career marital dyads, since they are a relatively deviant family form (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971; Safilios-Rothschild, 1972), tend to be highly conscious of the effects of their joint occupational participation on various aspects of their family life and marital relationship (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). In addition to this heightened attention of dual career marital partners to each other's contributions to their family life, dual career couples also tend to compare their respective contributions quite consciously and deliberately, usually for the purposes of equalizing family responsibilities (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). Since similar contributions tend to be easier to evaluate than dissimilar contributions, it is hypothesized in the present study that dual career marital partners will perceive themselves and their partners to be similar in marital power, while single career partners will perceive themselves as dissimilar in marital power. According to Blood and Wolfe's (1960) and Heer's (1962, 1963) theories of marital power, participation in systems external to the family tends to be valued as a resource more highly than participation only in family activities. Consequently, it is predicted that, in the present investigation, single career wives will perceive themselves as having less marital power than their husbands.

Greater perceived power is associated with increased frequency of influence attempts (Rollins & Bahr, 1976). The more frequently individuals attempt to influence each other the more likely is the success of an influence attempt (Rollins & Bahr, 1976). In the present investigation, it is therefore predicted that dual career partners and single career husbands will attempt to influence their partners more than will single career wives. In addition, it is predicted that perceived power will be highly related to frequency of influence attempts.

Influence Strategies

As suggested by Rollins and Bahr (1976) and Sprey (1971, 1972), the subjective process of spouses' evaluations of their resources and their perceptions of their ability to influence others in the family are salient predictors of marital power relations. However, the field of family power has not itself provided a means for the analysis of bases of influence or influence strategies from spouses' own points of view. The present study, therefore, proposes an analysis of bases of influence derived from a theoretical source not previously applied to family power. This alternate source of theoretical propositions relevant to conjugal power relations is a theory of influence communications proposed by Kelman

(1958, 1961). The theory includes a typology of the verbal communications individuals use to influence others. Kelman's classification system may also be considered a typology of verbal strategies for influencing others.

Kelman's theory (Kelman, 1958, 1961) differentiates three types of influence processes characteristic of interpersonal communication. The first type or strategy of influence depends on the communicator's control of some of the receiver's sources of satisfaction (means control). This type of influence corresponds to material aspects of resources postulated as influence bases by the major family power theories. The second strategy of influence depends on the satisfaction experienced by the receiver in his relationship with the sender (sender "attractiveness"). This type of influence refers to the communication receiver's evaluation of the degree to which he or she positively values the relationship with the communicator. The third strategy of influence results from the receiver's respect for the expertise and trustworthiness of the sender (sender "credibility"). This type of influence may also be categorized, from Heer's (1963a, 1963b) and Osmond's (1978) exchange theory perspective, as one type of personal resource affecting marital power.

The applicability of Kelman's (1958, 1961) typology of the verbal strategies of interpersonal influence to the analysis of intimate relationships, including marriage relationships, has recently been demonstrated by Davis (Note 1).

His investigation revealed that Kelman's typology, in comparison to typologies from other sources, best approximated individuals' conceptualizations of their attempts to influence others. Davis hypothesized that, although all of Kelman's suggested bases of influence may be operating to some degree in many kinds of relationships, some types of influence are likely to be more characteristic of highly intimate relationships than of relationships low in intimacy. On comparing the strategies for influencing partners reported by intimate heterosexual couples in three types of relationships, Davis did indeed find that relationships differing in level of intimacy also differed in the reported verbal strategies for influence between the individuals involved. The three types of relationships compared by Davis were relationships between intimate heterosexual couples, relationships between opposite-sex friends, and relationships between opposite-sex acquaintances. Marital and other intimate heterosexual relationships used all three of Kelman's types of influence more than did friendship relationships or relationships between mere acquaintances. Of the three influence strategies, Davis' respondents rated influence due to attractiveness, or the satisfaction experienced in the relationship, as the most predominant basis of influence in their intimate relationships; credibility, or the trustworthiness and expertise of their partner, as the next most highly used basis of influence; and means control, or the capacity of the partner

to control tangible rewards, as the least used basis of influence in their intimate relationships.

The differences between single career and dual career marital dyads suggested by the resource theory and the exchange theories of conjugal power also suggest differences between these two types of couples in their perceptions of the degree to which they use means control and credibility as bases of influence in their marital relationships.

The material resources contributed by the husbands of both types of couples and the wives of dual career couples are greater than the material resources contributed by the wives of single career couples as a function of the husbands' and the career wives' occupational participation. The husbands of both types of couples and wives of dual career couples, therefore, have more opportunity to influence their spouses by means control. It is, therefore, an hypothesis of the present study that husbands in both types of couples and wives in dual career couples will rate their use of means control as a basis of influence in their marital relationships more highly than will wives in single career couples.

A corresponding prediction of spouses' ratings of their use of credibility as a resource may be made from resource theories of family power, since husbands in dual and single career couples and wives in dual career couples are likely to have developed a range of skills and expertise

as a function of their occupational participation which are not as likely to have been developed by non-career wives. The availability of credibility as an influence base is therefore greater for husbands and for dual career wives than for the wives of single career dyads. It is therefore an hypothesis of the present study that husbands of both dual career and single career couples and wives of dual career couples will rate themselves as using credibility to influence their spouses to a greater extent than will wives of single career couples.

Perceived Equity

Equity refers to the equalization of outcomes, or the rewards minus the costs of a relationship for its participants (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). The costs of a relationship include the inputs or contributions of an individual, which corresponds, in the language of family power theory, with resources actually contributed. The rewards of a relationship correspond with resources contributed by one marital partner that are valued by the other partner. Equity theory holds that a relationship will continue as long as its participants believe they are receiving outcomes comparable to those received by their partners in any relationship.

According to equity theory, individuals compare the outcomes of their relationship with the outcomes received by other participants in the relationship (Walster, Berscheid & Walster, 1976). They also behave interpersonally in ways which equalize their outcomes with those of the other relationship participants. Individuals' perceptions of the degree of equity or inequity in a relationship are therefore a determinant of their behavior towards others. Since this process is common to all interpersonal interaction, according to equity theorists, marital partners' perceptions of the degree of equity or inequity of their marriage will be a determinant of their behavior toward their marriage partners.

The process of evaluating relationship equity, as described by equity theory, may be considered the specification of the evaluation process which family power theorists suggest is a determinant of family power (Heer, 1963a, 1963b; Osmond, 1978). In both major theories of family power, the resource theory or the exchange theories, the determinants of the spouses' conjugal power relations are not necessarily the actual resources or the actual exchange value of spouses' attributes outside the marriage. Rather, the major determinants of family power are spouses' evaluations of their own and their spouses' resources and contributions to the marriage (Heer, 1963b; Osmond, 1978; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970; Sprey, 1972). Spouses' perceptions of equity in their marriage relationships

represent the summary of spouses' evaluations of their own and their partners' contributions and costs (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978).

In the process of trying to achieve and maintain equity, equity theory predicts that marital partners will change their own behavior to facilitate the equity in their relationship (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). A partner viewing himself as contributing more may begin to expect more in return, or may reduce the extent of his previous contributions. Similarly, a partner who contributes less may expect to receive less in return or may choose to increase his contribution. Equity in intimate relationships like marriage is complex since the contributions of each partner are so various and the time frame for exchanges varies for each kind of contribution (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). However, at any one point in time in a marital relationship, the partner contributing most may expect his or her views to dominate marital decision-making as a reward for the extent of his or her contributions just as the partner contributing least may permit the partner to dominate in return for the excess of benefits received. It is therefore an hypothesis of the present investigation that spouses who view themselves as giving more than they are receiving in their marital relationship will expect to be able to influence their spouses more than will spouses who view themselves as receiving more than they are giving. Partners who view

their marital relationship as inequitable to their partner's advantage will attempt to influence their spouses and will perceive themselves as the more powerful partner to a greater extent than will partners who view their relationship as inequitable to their own advantage.

Dual career partners contribute similar basic resources to their marriages from their occupational participation. Similar resources are simple to evaluate in any equity judgments made by dual career marital partners than the markedly different resources contributed by partners in single career marriages. It is therefore a further prediction of the present study that dual career partners will perceive their relationship as more equitable than will single career marital partners.

Sex Role Orientation

Blood and Wolfe's (1960) resource theory has provided the basis for hypothesized differences between dual and single career marital dyads in the present study, since it is one of the few marital power theories to specify what variables may be identified as resources in a marriage. However, Gillespie (1971) suggests that Blood and Wolfe's listing of variables affecting the resource base of family power is incomplete in a major respect because it neglects to recognize that a person's sex influences the extent of

his or her participation in systems other than the family.

Gillespie (1971) suggests that structural variables, variables affecting an individual's status in society, comprise the resource base of marital power. Economic power sources, education, and organizational participation affect power, according to her model, but only in addition to variables such as age, race, socialization influences, the marriage contract, the possibility of using physical coercion, and time in the life cycle of one's family. Men and women, or husbands and wives, differ on a number of these social status variables. Gillespie would predict, therefore, that since "...women are structurally deprived of equal opportunities to develop their capacities, resources, and competence in competition with males" (1971, p. 454), wives in both dual career and single career couples are less likely to attempt to influence their husbands in conflict interactions than are the husbands to attempt to influence their wives.

There is considerable evidence to indicate that different patterns of socialization exist for men and women from early childhood, which promote attitudinal and behavioral characteristics reducing women's effectiveness in many spheres of activity in comparison to men. Women are apparently encouraged to develop or to enhance different cognitive skills than men, and to develop skills in different areas of activity than men (Macobby & Jacklin, 1974; Tavris & Offir, 1977). Many of the skills encouraged in women are not those that

lead to high status occupations or other high status activity. Women are also encouraged to be less ambitious than men in the development of their capacities, and to place the needs of their families, if they are married, above the concerns of their careers, a pattern Poloma and Garland (1971) found to be characteristic even of highly successful professional women.

The participation of women in spheres outside the family may also be hindered by direct impediments, such as prejudice and discrimination in education and employment (Hochschild, 1973). Some characteristics of women develop from socialization into a feminine sex role and the experience of discrimination, such as low self-concepts (Sears, 1970) and lower evaluation of women than of men (Goldberg, 1968), further reduce the likelihood of women's vigorous participation in occupational and other non-family activity.

Sex-based differentiation of roles within families tends to maintain attitudes and behaviors which earlier socialization has encouraged in women. Wives' functioning in an expressive role, in contrast to husbands' "instrumental" or providor role, involves domestic support activity and the maintenance of family morale, especially husbands' morale (Parsons & Bales, 1955).

Enactment of the expressive role exclusively promotes acceptance of a less participatory role in family activity than does exactment of the instrumental role, as well as

directly encouraging wives' submissive or non-dominant behavior toward their husbands (Laws, 1971). While there is some doubt among researchers that the instrumental and expressive role dichotomy characterizes a majority of North American families (Laws, 1971), family role theorists have recently suggested that any type of rigid role differentiation in marriage as a function of sex is likely to restrict the range of activities and the personal development of women more than of men (Rossi, 1967, 1972; Safilios-Rothschild, 1972).

It appears, then, that both traditional role socialization and traditional marital roles tend to restrict women's participation in the activities which provide a major resource base for marital and family power. Following the reasoning of Gillespie (1971) and of sex role and marital role theorists, wives' basis of power in their marriage relationships is more limited than their husbands not merely as a result of participation in occupational and other non-family activity. Rather, attitudes and behaviors into which women have traditionally been socialized may be more central determinants of family power relations than amount of activity outside the family, since even women participating in full-time careers demonstrate some behaviors and attitudes more reflective of their socialization as females than of their extra-family activity (Holmstrom, 1972; Poloma, 1972; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). While Blood and Wolfe's (1960) resource

theory of family power predicts similarity between the power relations of husbands and wives in dual career families, it appears more likely that differences may exist between dual career marital partners in their attempts to influence each other corresponding in extent with differences in their sex role socialization. In the present study's comparison of power relations between single and dual career marital dyads, it is, therefore, predicted that, in both single career and dual career couples husbands will attempt to exert influence over their wives to a greater extent than will the wives toward their husbands. As a function of the occupational participation of dual career wives, however, the discrepancy in influence attempts between husbands and wives of dual career marital dyads will be less than the discrepancy in influence attempts between the husbands and wives of single career dyads.

Since sex role socialization differences are predicted to affect marital power relations, deviations from traditional sex role socialization in the background of either husbands or wives are also likely to affect marital power. Bem (1974, 1975) has identified a set of behavioral and attitudinal characteristics of both males and females which differ from characteristics expected of each as a function of traditional sex role socialization. She has labelled these characteristics "masculine" and "feminine" for characteristics engaged in by traditionally

oriented males versus females, respectively, and has developed a scale to measure masculinity and femininity. In studying this pattern of characteristics, Bem presented male and female college students, each differing in their degree of sex role stereotypy, with two situations differing in the kinds of behavior required in each. One situation required "masculine independence" as the most appropriate response to the situation. The second situation required "feminine playfulness" as the most appropriate kind of response. Non-sex-typed individuals, those who demonstrated no greater endorsement of either traditionally male or traditionally female socially desirable characteristics on Bem's scale, behaved more appropriately in both of Bem's experimental situations. Non-sex-typed male and female subjects displayed a more restricted range of behavior consonant with sex role stereotypes in the two situations. Bem concludes from this research that non-sex-typed individuals behave more appropriately to situations, since they have a behavioral repertoire not limited by stereotypes of sex-appropriate behaviors. This conclusion suggests the possibility that non-sex-typed individuals may also behave in a sexually unstereotyped manner in their interpersonal relations with members of the opposite sex. The tendency of traditionally socialized males to attempt to dominate in their relations with females, and the tendency of traditionally socialized females to behave submissively toward males, would be

expected to be less typical of these sexually unstereotypical individuals. In the present study's analysis of power relations between husbands and wives, it is predicted, therefore, that the degree of non-stereotyped sex role orientation or androgyny of spouses will affect spouses' attempts to influence each other. Specifically, it is predicted that the more highly wives rate themselves as masculine the greater will be the frequency of their attempts to influence their partners. Similarly, the more highly husbands rate themselves as feminine, the less will they attempt to influence their partners.

Although consideration of the androgyny of marital partners affects the prediction of their marital power relations, the concept of sex-typed versus non-sex-typed behavior also lends support to the prediction of differences between the wives of dual and single career couples in the characteristics of their attempts to influence their husbands. According to sex role socialization theorists, women who develop successful careers in an essentially male-dominated economic system also tend to have developed behaviors traditionally considered to be more masculine than feminine (Hochschild, 1973). It is therefore an additional prediction of the present study that the wives of dual career marital dyads will rate themselves as more masculine and less feminine than the wives of single career couples.

The behaviors and attitudes which Bem (1974, 1975)

suggests are characteristic of androgynous individuals indicate that sex role stereotypy, in addition to couples' career orientation, will affect marital partners' perceptions of their degree of influence in marital conflict interactions. Olson (1969) has found that wives tend to underestimate and husbands tend to overestimate their respective degrees of influence in conflict interactions. Olson attributes this difference to cultural norms of husband dominance in families, which bias both husbands' and wives' perceptions of the actual influence exerted by each. Since androgynous individuals tend to consider the desirability of various kinds of behaviors without reference to sex (Bem, 1974, 1975), it is likely that they will have few expectations for sex-specific behaviors in marital relationships. It is therefore predicted that, in the present study the more highly wives view themselves as masculine, the more highly they will rate themselves as influential in marital conflicts. Similarly, the more highly husbands view themselves as feminine, the less they will view themselves as influential in marital conflict situations.

Hypotheses

A diagrammatic representation of the hypotheses is presented in Figures 1, 2, and 3.

From the conceptualizations developed above, the following are the hypotheses of the present investigation.

Hypotheses Specifying Relationships Between Independent and Dependent Variables

1. Partners in dual career marital dyads will perceive their relationship as more equitable than will partners in single career marital dyads.

2. Wives in dual career marriages will rate themselves as more masculine and less feminine than will wives in single career marriages.

3. Wives in dual career marriages will attempt to influence their husbands more than will wives in single career marriages.

4. Husbands of both dual career and single career marital dyads will attempt to influence their wives more than their wives will attempt to influence them.

5. Wives in dual career marriages will rate themselves more highly on perceived power than will wives in single career marriages.

6. Husbands of single and dual career marital dyads and wives of dual career marital dyads will report using means control to influence their spouses to a greater extent than will the wives of single career marital dyads.

7. Husbands of single and dual career marital dyads and wives of dual career marital dyads will report using credibility to influence their spouses to a greater extent than will the wives of single career marital dyads.

Hypotheses Specifying Relationships Between Dependent Variables

8. Marital partners who perceive themselves to be over-benefitted in judgments of marital equity will attempt to influence their partners to a lesser extent than will partners who perceive themselves as under-benefitted.

9. Marital partners who perceive themselves to be over-benefitted in judgments of marital equity will rate themselves lower on perceived power than will marital partners who perceive themselves to be under-benefitted.

10. The more highly wives rate themselves in masculine characteristics the higher will be the frequency of their influence attempts toward their husbands.

11. The more highly husbands rate themselves in feminine characteristics the lower will be the frequency of their influence attempts toward their wives.

12. The more highly husbands rate themselves on feminine characteristics the lower they will rate themselves on perceived power.

13. The more highly wives rate themselves on masculine characteristics the higher they will rate themselves on perceived power.

14. The more highly marital partners rate themselves on perceived power the greater will be the frequency of their attempts to influence their spouses.

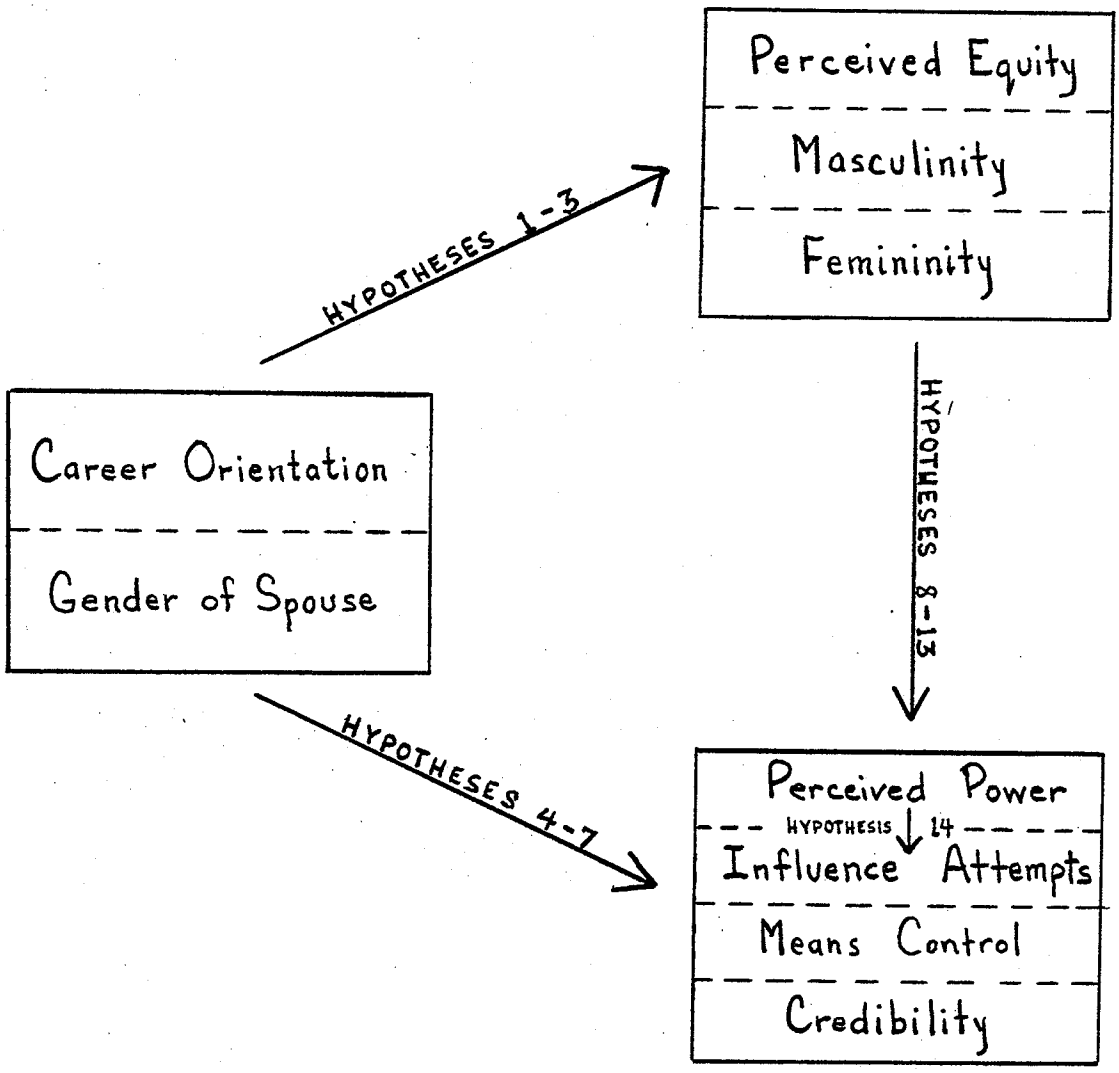
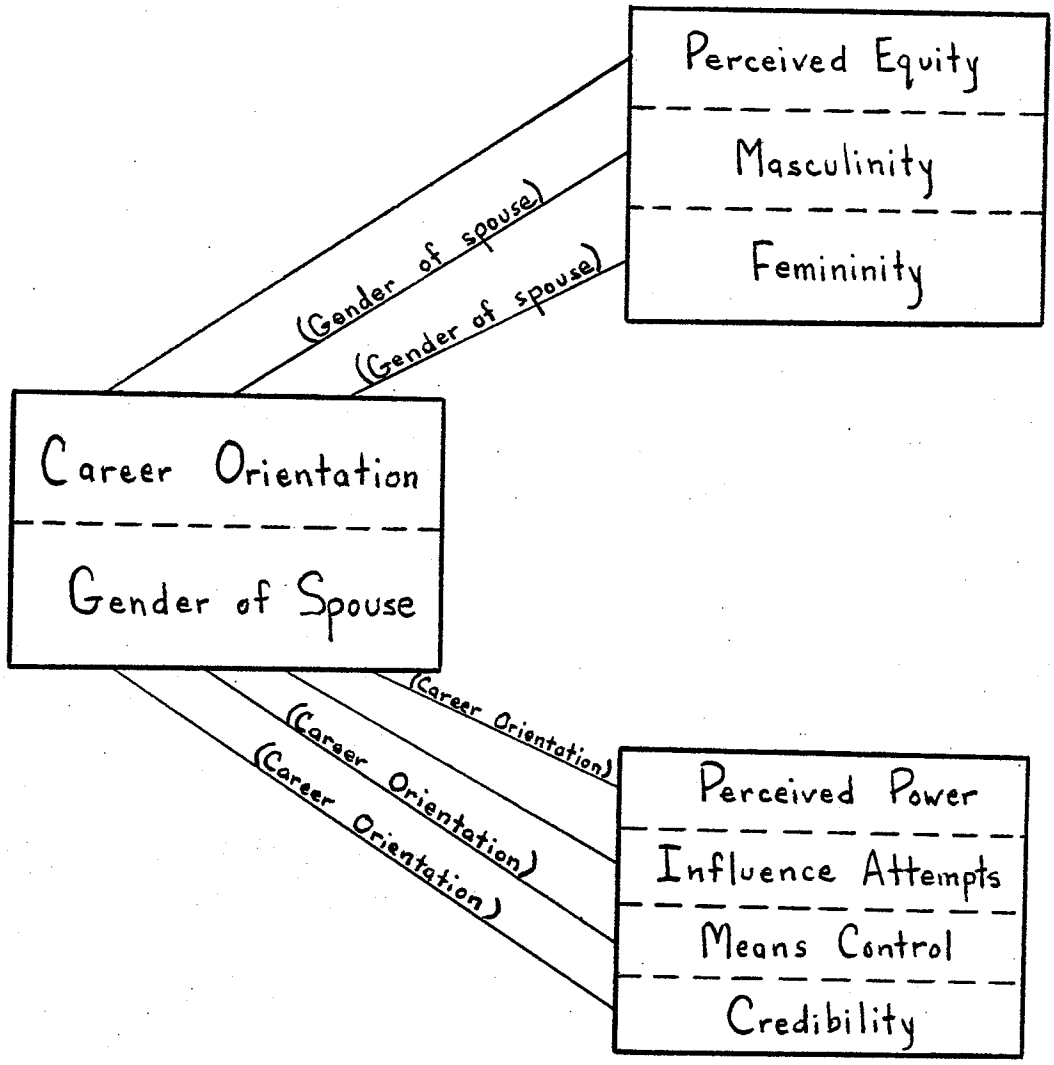


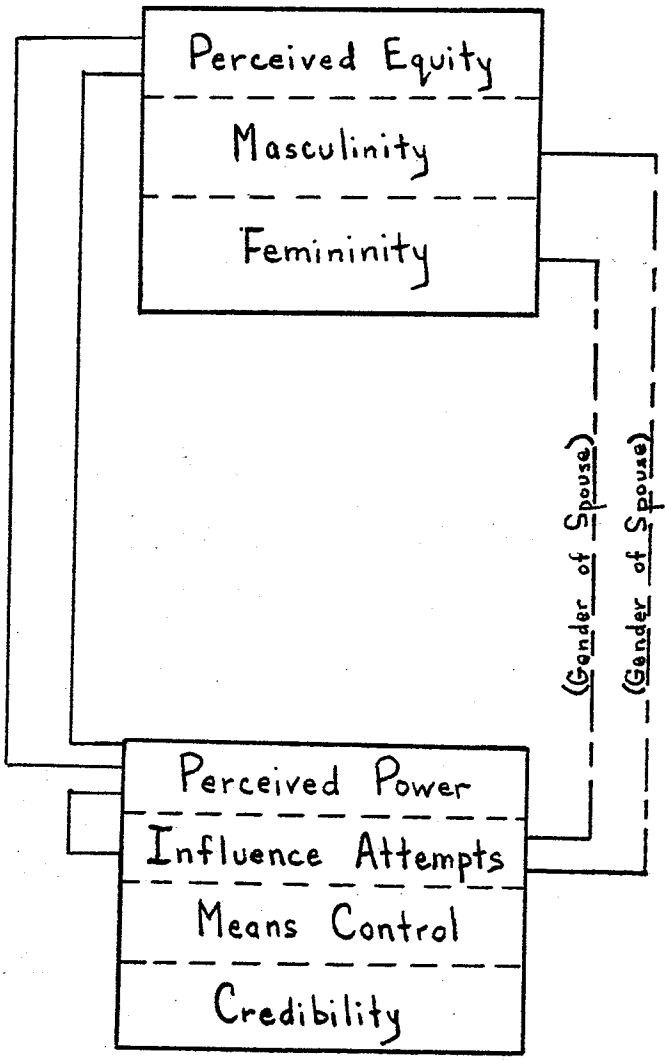
Figure 1. Overview of predicted relationships.



LEGEND

———	"DIRECT" RELATIONSHIP
(Career Orientation)	RELATIONSHIP CONTINGENT ON CAREER ORIENTATION
(Gender of spouse)	RELATIONSHIP CONTINGENT ON GENDER OF SPOUSE

Figure 2. Predicted effects of career orientation and gender of spouse on perceived equity, sex role orientation, and marital power variables.



LEGEND

——————— DIRECT RELATIONSHIP

(Gender of Spouse) DIRECTION OF RELATIONSHIP CONTINGENT ON GENDER OF SPOUSE

Figure 3. Predicted relationships among perceived equity, sex role orientation, and marital power variables.

METHOD

The design of this investigation is a 2 x 2 higher order repeated measures design, with career orientation of the marital dyad as the between groups factor and gender of spouse as the within groups factor. The marital couple is considered the basic unit of analysis, with husbands' and wives' responses considered repeated measures of the marital dyad unit (Page, 1975). The dependent measures are influence attempts, influence strategies, perceived marital power, perceived equity, and sex role orientation.

Potential subjects, located chiefly through the membership lists of professional associations, initially received letters describing the research which was presented as research on "the impact of work on marriage and family life among individuals working in professional careers." After a telephone call in which they were asked a few questions to determine their eligibility and willingness to participate, a time was scheduled for their participation. Each couple's participation occurred at the same location, a University counselling centre. Both experimenters in this research were female graduate students.

Before participating, each marital couple received the following instructions:

> We would like to have you each complete a questionnaire about the way you see yourselves and many aspects of your marriage and present life. The reason for the

> variety of questions about yourselves is that every marriage is very different depending on the people in it, so we need to know something about each of you as well as about your marriage. The first 45 minutes or so will be taken up by the questionnaire ....In (a) second 45-minute segment, we would like you to evaluate separately and then to discuss together some case descriptions of couples having some kinds of problems that can arise in marriages. We will be asking you your opinions about how to solve the problems.

Couples were also reminded that "all of the information you provide is absolutely confidential - we are not even going to have each of you see your spouse's questionnaire." The complete instructions given to subjects are contained in Appendix A.

In separate rooms, each of the marital partners then completed the following: a demographic questionnaire; a rating scale of personal characteristics (the Bem Sex Role Inventory, Bem, 1974); a rating scale of strategies used to influence the spouse (Davis Influence Scale, Davis, Note 1); a rating scale of spouses' relative influence in marital decision-making (Role Measure of Conjugal Power, Bahr, 1972); and a rating scale of relative contributions of each spouse to the marriage. Couples were also given two questionnaires not related to the present investigation: a questionnaire on division of household tasks and responsibilities; and a questionnaire concerning degree of

satisfaction experienced in the marital relationship. Couples were randomly assigned to one of three orders of presentation of the questionnaires.

The marital couples were then requested to read a number of brief stories about couples in conflict situations (the Inventory of Marital Conflicts, Olson & Ryder, 1970) and to complete a questionnaire of their opinions on the solutions to the conflicts reported in the stories. Two-thirds of the stories presented to the husbands differed slightly from the stories presented to the wives to ensure a conflict of opinion between the spouses in their subsequent discussion of the stories. Couples were prepared for the differences with the statement that: "As in any conflict situation, there are two points of view presented in the case descriptions. In some of the cases, one of you will learn about the conflict from the point of view of the husband. The other will learn the wife's point of view regarding the same situation. In each case, however, both of you will be given the same essential facts."

After these instructions, each partner read and replied to the questions on these stories separately in different rooms. The partners were then requested "to discuss fully the conflict each couple is having, decide who is primarily responsible for the problem ...and choose one of the (two) alternatives" as a solution to the problem. They were reminded again that "in some cases the descriptions you

each read represented different points of view. For example, if the two of you were involved in a disagreement, and subsequently you each tried to describe it, it is highly probable that each of you would present slightly different points of view in the issue." The marital partners were not given copies of the stories to refer to during this discussion. They did have available to them a copy of their original responses, which they were asked not to show each other, and a copy of the questionnaire on which to record their joint decision about each story. The marital partners were left alone together to discuss the items. An audio tape recorder recorded the content of the discussion. Couples were given approximately thirty minutes to complete their joint questionnaire, and were reminded of the time five minutes before the end. However, couples were permitted to finish the procedure if they had not completed it after thirty minutes. The average length of time of couples' discussions was 27.5 minutes.

Each partner completed a post-experimental questionnaire on completion of the procedure. The couple then jointly received debriefing information from the experimenter about the different versions of the marital conflict stories, and had the opportunity to comment and ask questions about their research participation. None of the participants indicated any awareness that the research involved a comparison of dual career and single career

couples in either the post-experimental questionnaire or the debriefing session.

Subjects

Subjects were 50 dual career and 50 single career marital couples. Couples were designated as "dual career" if both husband and wife were occupied in full-time professional careers, and if the wife's career had been continuous or almost continuous since she first completed her education. Couples were designated as "single career" couples if the husband was engaged full-time in a professional career, and if the wife was primarily a homemaker.

Potential participants were selected randomly from the membership lists of professional organizations (see Appendix B). Couples older than 55 years were not asked to participate. Single career couples in which the wife had a university degree were preferred to single career couples in which the wife had less than a University education. Couples with wives in professional careers were not asked to participate if their husbands were not engaged in a full-time occupation. The couples of each career orientation were matched as closely as possible for occupation of single career husbands and dual career wives, and for the presence or absence of children in the family. The matching was approximate rather than exact for two reasons. Firstly,

women were underrepresented in comparison to men on the organization membership lists obtained, in the occupational categories of medicine and teaching. Secondly, more dual career than single career couples were childless.

The careers represented in this sample of professional couples were: lawyers, physicians, physiotherapists, social workers, teachers, and University professors. An equivalent number of single career husbands and dual career wives were physiotherapists (two each), social workers (seven each), and University professors (eleven each). The remaining participant couples, again based on occupation of single career husbands and dual career wives, were: seven male lawyers and eight female lawyers; six male physicians and four female physicians; fifteen male teachers and eleven female teachers; and four males and three females in other professional occupations.

The average age of participants was 36.1 years. The couples had been married for an average of 11.2 years and had an average of two children.

Dual career and single career couples differed on several demographic characteristics. Family income and years of education of spouses were greater for dual career couples, as expected from the nature of the sample. Single career couples had an average of 2.6 children, compared to dual career couples' 1.4 children. More of the dual career couples were in a second marriage than single career couples.

Measurement of Dependent Variables

Influence Attempts in Conflict Interaction

A behavioral measure of spouses' attempts to exert influence in marital conflict interactions was obtained from the Inventory of Marital Conflicts (IMC), developed by Olson & Ryder (1970). The IMC is a series of 18 stories or vignettes of some kinds of conflict situations experienced by married couples. Of the 18 vignettes, 12 are presented to the husbands and wives of participating couples in slightly different versions. Spouses are required to read the series of vignettes individually at first and to record their conclusions concerning "who is responsible for the problem" in isolation from their spouses. Both members of a couples are then required to discuss each of the vignettes and to reach a joint conclusion on responsibility for the problem in each instance. The two versions of twelve of the vignettes are designed to create conflict between spouses, since they differ in minor details or in the emphasis given to different features of each situation. Both versions of the IMC vignettes presented to couples are included in Appendix C. The questionnaires presented to husbands and wives separately and to couples jointly are contained in Appendix D.

Analysis of the IMC is primarily accomplished through the application of a system of content analytic categories to recordings of couples' interaction. The content codes

of the Marital and Family Interaction Coding System (MFICS), also developed by Olson & Ryder (Note 2), are descriptive rather than theoretically based, and require minimal inference on the part of raters. Factor analysis of the Marital and Family Interaction Coding System has yielded three major dimensions of marital interaction coded by this system. One of these, labelled by Olson and Ryder (Note 2) as the dimension of Opinionated Struggle, codes disagreement between spouses, statements and reiteration of spouses' personal opinions on an issue when there is disagreement with the spouse, and discussion of relevant personal experiences used to elaborate a spouse's point of view on the conflicted issue. The Opinionated Struggle factor of the MFICS comprised the measure of marital partners' attempts to influence each other when there is conflict between them. The higher the value of the opinionated struggle score, the more often a subject has engaged in attempts to influence his or her spouse on issues of disagreement between them.

The factor loadings of the four descriptive codes of the Opinionated Struggle factor, and the description of the codes, are included in Appendix E.

The Opinionated Struggle score, or the frequency of attempts to influence the spouse, was obtained from audio tape recordings of couples' IMC discussion sessions. Tapes were rated statement by statement to conform with the Olson and Ryder (1970) method of analyzing IMC discussion sessions.

Two raters, blind to the research hypotheses, memorized the IMC coding schema and practiced rating IMC discussion tapes individually and jointly until a minimum reliability of .80 was achieved consistently. On one code, with the low average frequency of occurrence of two in any IMC discussion session, raters were unable to achieve the consistent reliabilities achieved with the remaining codes. However, this code was included in the subsequent ratings due to its factor loading on the Opinionated Struggle factor identified by Olson and Ryder (Note 2).

After training, the raters analyzed 100 IMC discussion tapes in random order. An equal number of dual career couples' and single career couples' discussions were included in each set of ten tapes to equalize the effects of rating order. Raters continued their training sessions regularly during the period of rating tapes to maintain reliability.

One tape from each set of ten tapes was selected randomly to be rated by both raters as a measure of reliability. The reliabilities obtained for each of the four categories representing attempts to influence were .79, .71, .63, and .96, compared to the Olson and Ryder (Note 2) reported reliabilities of .89, .95, .68, and .84, respectively. The reliabilities obtained in this study, are lower than the Olson and Ryder reliabilities on the two most frequent codes, and higher on the fourth code. This may be a function of the larger number of couples in

the Olson and Ryder sample for which reliabilities were obtained (n = 404) compared to the present study (n = 10). However, the inter-rater reliabilities of the present study compare favourably to those obtained in another sample reported by Olson and Ryder, a sample of 100 couples given the Inventory of Parent-Child Conflict. The reliabilities in that sample for the same four interaction codes as used in the present study were .79, .71, .67, and .76. The comparative reliabilities and frequencies of each code in the present study and Olson and Ryder's studies are reported in Appendix E.

Influence Strategies

As discussed earlier, Kelman's (1958, 1961) influence communication theory included a typology of strategies for interpersonal influence: means control, or influence due to provision of material goods and reinforcements; credibility, or influence due to trust in or the expertise of the communicator; and attractiveness, or influence due to satisfaction experienced in the relationship between the communicator and the receiver. Davis' self-report measure of influence strategies in relationships corresponding to Kelman's typology includes 10 items measuring the use of means control, 8 items measuring the use of attractiveness, and 6 items measuring the use of credibility. The reliability for each of these subscales, calculated for a subsample of 50 respondents from Davis' sample of 132

respondents including college students and their partners in intimate and friendship relationships, was .71 for the means control subscale, .85 for the attractiveness subscale, and .85 for the credibility subscale. The reliability of the Total Influence Scale was .89, for intimate and friendship relationships. All reliabilities are calculations by means of Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1970).

Although scores on the means control and credibility subscales are of primary interest to the present study, Davis' Total Influence Scale was administered, since it was decided that subjects would feel they have given a more accurate representation of bases of influence in their relationship if they have the opportunity to respond to the attractiveness subscale also. A sample item of the means control subscale is the following: "I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I am always doing things for him/her." A sample item of the credibility subscale is: "I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she trusts what I tell him/her." Items of the Total Influence Scale and instructions to be presented with the Scale are included in Appendix F.

Subjects were required to reply to each item of the Influence Scale on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 for "not at all true" to 7 for "absolutely true". The 1 to 7 range of subjects' ratings was selected for consistency with the Bem Sex Role Inventory in responses required of

subjects. Davis' original version of the scale also required 7-point discriminations in replies to each item (Davis, Note 1). Scores for the means control subscale can range from 10 to 70. Possible scores for the credibility subscale range from 7 to 42. The higher a respondent's score on either subscale, the more he or she has endorsed the corresponding basis of influence as descriptive of his or her marital relationship.

Perceived Equity

Measures of the equity or balance between contributions of each marital partner to the marriage were based on a nine-item scale evaluating: (a) spouses' general perception of their contributions to family life and their benefits from family life in comparison to those of their marital partners; and (b) spouses' perception of their own and their partners' contributions to specific family functions. The two general items required evaluations of spouses' comparative contributions and benefits, respectively. A sample of the items evaluating contributions to specific family functions of this scale is: "describe your own and your spouse's contribution toward understanding the problems and feelings of family members." The equity scale is contained in Appendix G.

The general items of the perceived equity scale developed for the present study were suggested directly by equity theory, while the items assessing equity in specific

family functions were adapted from Bahr's (1972) measure of the division of family functions between marriage partners. The family functions on which Bahr's measure is based were selected to comprise an exhaustive set including the functions of financial provider, housekeeper, child care, child socialization, recreation, kinship, and therapeutic and sexual functions.[2] Items on child care and child socialization were omitted for couples without children.

Subjects were required to choose one of the following responses to each of the items evaluating specific functions: "contributes much more than me," "contributes somewhat more than me," "contributes slightly more than me," "contributes as much as me," "contributes slightly less than me," "contributes somewhat less than me," and "contributes much less than me." Scores assigned to these responses range from 7 for "contributes much more..." to 1 for "contributes much less than me." Total equity scores were obtained by averaging the responses to all items, with the exception of the item beginning "describe the benefits you receive..." This item correlated negatively and not significantly with most other items of

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[2]The item referring to the kinship role also refers to a general social role, in the adaptation of Bahr's division of function items composed for the present study. In addition, the sexual role is omitted from the perceived equity scale due to the difficulty of wording an item measuring perceived equity in this role.

the scale and was therefore omitted from the equity score.

On the perceived equity scale, high scores represent perceptions of greater contribution by the self, where the respondent views himself as under-benefitting from the relationship. Low scores represent perception of greater contribution of the spouse, where the respondent views himself as over-benefitting from the relationship. Equity between marital partners is represented by a score of 4.0, the midpoint between 1 and 7.

Factor analysis of equity scale items, using principal components analysis with iterations, indicated two major factors in both the husbands' and wives' responses. The principal two factors accounted for 66.2% of the variance in husbands' responses and 76.7% of the variance in wives' responses, as shown in Appendix H. Estimated communalities among the items for husbands ranged from .39 to .88 and for wives ranged from .28 to .88.

Inter-item correlations for equity scale items are shown in Appendix I.

Perceived Power

Marital partners perceptions of influence in their marital conflict interactions over a long-term period were measured by the Role Measure of Conjugal Power developed by Bahr (1972). This inventory consists of nine questions, each concerning a different major area of family life. Seven of these items were included in the version of Bahr's

measure used in the present study.[3] Childless couples were not given the two items concerned with parental roles. A sample item in the questionnaire is the following: "If there is a disagreement concerning recreation, who makes the final decision?" Respondents are asked to choose one of the following responses: "husband always," "husband more often than wife," "husband and wife exactly the same," "wife more often than husband," "wife always," or "absolutely no disagreement." The Role Measure of Conjugal Power to be used in the present study is contained in Appendix J.

In scoring the Role Measure of Conjugal Power, items for which respondents check the category "absolutely no disagreement" are omitted from the analysis, since these represent uncontested decisions. The remaining response categories are assigned the following scores: husband always = 1; husband more than wife = 2; husband and wife exactly the same = 3; wife more than husband = 4; wife always = 5. A respondent's score on the Role Measure is the mean of his or her responses to all items excluding those reported as uncontested decision areas. The Bahr scale may be interpreted as representing the dimension of

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[3]The two items omitted were items referring to sexual roles. These items have also been omitted in some of Bahr's (1972) applications of his scale, since they have a low intercorrelation with other items of the scale, and thereby lower the internal consistency of the scale from .73 to .69 for husbands' responses, and .68 to .62 for wives' responses.

wives' influence, with higher scores representing greater influence of wives.

Bahr (1972) developed the Role Measure of Conjugal Power to provide a self-report measure more consistent with conjugal power theories of conflict interaction than other available measures, according to the following criteria: inclusion of contested decisions only; representation of decision-making in major areas of family life; balanced representation of both traditionally masculine and traditionally feminine areas; and emphasis on pattern of decision-making as it occurs for issues of importance to the respondents. The internal consistency of the Role Measure of Conjugal Power (α = .73 for husbands; α = .68 for wives) was determined from Bahr's comparison of the two measures on two separate samples: American Mormons and a representative sample of the population of an American county approximating the United States population in its demographic characteristics (combined N = 266 for husbands and 304 for wives).

Sex Role Orientation

Sex role orientation or psychological androgyny was measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), developed by Bem (1974). The BSRI is a series of 60 personality characteristics, of which 20 are traits judged more desirable for women than for men (the Femininity scale), 20 are traits judged more desirable for men than for women

(the Masculinity scale), and 20 are items indicative of the social desirability response set of respondents. Respondents are required to rate themselves on each of the 60 traits on a 7-point scale, from 1 for "never or almost never true" or 7 for "always or almost always true". Items of the BSRI and instructions presented with the scale are contained in Appendix G of the present proposal.

Psychometric characteristics of the BSRI were determined by administration of the 60 scale items to two normative samples of male and female undergraduate college students (n_1 = 723, n_2 = 194). The internal consistency values obtained were α = .86 in each sample on the Masculinity Scale, α = .82 for the Femininity Scale, and α = .75 and α = .70 for the Social Desirability scale. The reliability of the androgyny difference score, which represents the differences between the Masculinity and Femininity scale scores, was .85 and .86 in the two normative samples. The t ratio for the difference between the Masculinity and Femininity scale scores, correlated with the Social Desirability scale score at a level near zero. Test-retest reliabilities of the Masculinity, Femininity, and Social Desirability scores were .90, .90, and .89, respectively. The Masculinity and Femininity scale scores, which were constructed to be independent, do appear to be independent, as the correlations between the two scales were .11 and -.02 for the males of the two normative samples, and -.14 and -.07 for the females of

the two normative samples.

Initial research on the Bem Sex Role Inventory used a combination of masculinity and femininity scores yielding an androgyny score, or reflection of the extent of balance between a respondent's masculine and feminine characteristics (Bem, 1974). However, more recently Bem has recommended that data from the Bem Sex Role Inventory be analyzed without classifying subjects in any way by using multiple regression analyses, with masculinity and femininity scores as separate variables (Bem, 1977; Bem, Martyna & Watson, 1976). Consequently, masculinity and femininity scores are treated as separate variables in the present investigation.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed in several stages to provide each of the following: (a) analysis of the effects of career orientation and gender of spouse on the dependent variables; (b) analysis of the effects of perceived equity and sex role orientation as mediators of career orientation and gender effects on marital power; and (c) analysis of the interdependence among all dependent variables.

The effects of career orientation and gender of spouse were analyzed by univariate repeated measures

analysis of variance separately for each of the dependent variables of perceived equity, sex role orientation, influence attempts, influence strategies and perceived power. The selected error rate per hypothesis was .05. For these analyses, the marital couple was considered the basic unit of analysis, with husband and wife measures treated as repeated measurements of the marital dyad.

Two methods were used to analyze the effects of perceived equity and sex role orientation as mediators of the effects of career orientation and gender on marital power. The first method was the use of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients of perceived equity, masculinity and femininity with marital power variables. Correlations between these variables were obtained separately for husbands, wives, dual career partners, and single career partners, and for each gender x career orientation subgroup. The second method used to test the role of perceived equity and sex role orientation as mediating variables was canonical correlation analysis. In these analyses, sex of spouse, perceived equity, and sex role orientation (masculinity and femininity) were treated as predictor variables for the criterion variables of influence attempts, perceived power, means control, credibility. Separate canonical correlation analyses were performed for each type of couple.

Canonical correlation analysis is a procedure that attempts to account for the maximum amount of variance in

the relationship between two sets of variables (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973). In this procedure, the dimensions within each set of variables which maximally account for the relationship with the other set of variables are selected. These basic dimensions of the relationship between the two variable sets are termed canonical variates. Canonical correlation analysis gives the proportion of shared variance between the variable sets (the eigenvalues), the square roots of the shared variance (the canonical correlations), the statistical significance of the canonical correlations, and the canonical variate coefficients (the amount of contribution of each variable to the relationship between the two variable sets).

Analysis of the interdependence among the dependent variables was accomplished by the use of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. The correlation coefficients were calculated for relationships between all dependent variables for dual career and single career partners separately, and for husbands and wives separately, as well as for each of the subgroups of dual career husbands, single career husbands, dual career wives, and single career wives.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics of the measures of each variable are presented in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4.

As shown in Table 1, the mean response of wives on the scale of perceived marital equity was 4.243. As the mid-point of the perceived equity scale indicating equal contribution of both spouses is 4.0, this average of wives' responses indicates wives' views of themselves as slightly greater contributors to their marriages than their husbands. The mean response of husbands was 3.197, indicating husbands' view of themselves as contributing less to their marriages than their wives do.

The mean responses of husbands and wives to masculinity and femininity scales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974), shown in Table 2, indicate that wives rated themselves more highly on femininity than husbands, and husbands rated themselves more highly on masculinity than wives. Differences between mean masculinity self-ratings were greater between the subgroups of husbands and wives of differing career orientations than were the differences in mean self-ratings of femininity.

As Table 3 indicates, variation in mean scores in perceived power and influence attempts between husbands and wives in marriages of dual and single career orientations was not extensive. Both husbands and wives' perceptions of marital power were close to the mid-point rating of 3.0

Table 1

Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Perceived Equity Scale Scores For All Subgroups

Subgroup	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Wives[a]	2.875	4.243	0.535
Husbands[a]	2.834	3.197	0.617
Single Career Partners[a]	4.000	3.702	0.809
Dual Career Partners[a]	3.667	3.737	0.751
Single Career Wives[b]	2.875	4.267	0.624
Dual Career Wives[b]	2.167	4.219	0.433
Single Career Husbands[b]	2.500	3.138	0.533
Dual Career Husbands[b]	2.834	3.255	0.692

[a] $n = 100$.

[b] $n = 50$.

Table 2

Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of

Masculinity and Femininity Scale Scores For All Subgroups

Subgroup	Masculinity			Femininity		
	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Wives[a]	73.0	91.970	13.467	55.0	96.810	10.347
Husbands[a]	65.0	102.270	12.294	52.0	92.080	10.315
Single Career Partners[a]	76.0	96.120	14.340	51.0	96.380	9.972
Dual Career Partners[a]	65.0	98.120	13.358	60.0	92.510	10.851
Single Career Wives[b]	64.0	90.080	14.254	38.0	99.600	8.588
Dual Career Wives[b]	55.0	93.860	12.488	55.0	94.020	11.255
Single Career Husbands[b]	52.0	102.160	11.741	51.0	93.160	10.296
Dual Career Husbands[b]	65.0	102.380	12.942	48.0	91.000	10.323

[a] $n = 100$.

[b] $n = 50$.

Table 3

Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of

Perceived Power Scores and Influence Attempts For All Subgroups

Subgroup	Perceived Power			Influence Attempts		
	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Wives[a]	3.00	3.096	0.406	62.0	25.260	11.843
Husbands[a]	4.00	2.996	0.614	60.0	26.150	12.377
Single Career Partners[a]	4.00	3.053	0.571	55.0	24.020	10.451
Dual Career Partners[a]	4.00	3.039	0.471	61.0	27.390	13.374
Single Career Wives[b]	3.00	3.065	0.478	44.0	23.220	9.386
Dual Career Wives[b]	1.50	3.127	0.322	61.0	27.300	13.667
Single Career Husbands[b]	4.00	3.040	0.655	54.0	24.820	11.458
Dual Career Husbands[b]	4.00	2.951	0.574	60.0	27.480	13.213

[a] $n = 100$.

[b] $n = 50$.

which represents equal power of husbands and wives in marital decision-making. The mean frequency of attempts to influence spouses was slightly lower for single career husbands and wives than for dual career husbands and wives.

Respondents' mean ratings of their use of means control and credibility as strategies for influencing their marital partners reflected greater use of credibility than of means control, as shown in Table 4. The mid-point of responses on the Means Control subscale of the Davis Influence Scale (Davis, Note 1) is 45. The mean of responses obtained was in the range of 20 for all subgroups, corresponding to a low rating for use of means control as an influence strategy. The mid-point of responses on the Credibility subscale of the Davis Influence Scale is 19. The mean ratings for credibility were in the range of 25, showing that respondents perceive themselves to use credibility frequently as an influence strategy with their marital partners.

The major statistical analyses of the findings of this investigation will be presented in the following sequence: (a) tests of career orientation hypotheses; (b) tests of gender of spouse hypotheses; and (c) tests of interdependence of dependent variables.

Table 4

Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of

Means Control and Credibility Scores For All Subgroups

Subgroup	Means Control			Credibility		
	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Wives[a]	22.0	19.250	5.151	31.0	26.060	5.929
Husbands[a]	30.0	20.660	5.679	27.0	24.860	5.646
Single Career Partners[a]	23.0	19.690	5.312	31.0	24.930	6.175
Dual Career Partners[a]	30.0	20.220	5.606	25.0	25.990	5.391
Single Career Wives[b]	19.0	18.480	4.696	31.0	25.220	6.575
Dual Career Wives[b]	22.0	20.020	5.509	20.0	26.900	5.132
Single Career Husbands[b]	23.0	20.900	5.654	27.0	24.640	5.799
Dual Career Husbands[b]	30.0	20.420	5.750	22.0	25.080	5.540

[a] $n = 100$.

[b] $n = 50$.

Tests of Career Orientation Hypotheses

Career orientation hypotheses are addressed to the questions of differences between dual career marriages and single career marriages on perceived equity of the marital relationship, sex role orientation of the marital partners, and marital power. Analyses are based on the marital couple as the unit of analysis, with husbands' and wives' scores treated as repeated measures on the marital dyad unit. Univariate repeated measures analyses of variance for all dependent variables are summarized in Table 5.

Perceived Equity

Partners in dual career dyads were expected to perceive their marriage relationships as more equitable than partners in single career marriages (Hypothesis 1). As indicated in Table 5, the main effect of career orientation on perceived equity was not significant. The interaction of career orientation with gender of spouse similarly was not significant.

Sex Role Orientation

Wives in dual career marriages were expected to rate themselves as more masculine and less feminine than wives in single career marriages (Hypothesis 2). As shown in Table 5, dual career dyads differed significantly from single career dyads on femininity, F (1, 98) = 6.64,

Table 5

Analyses of Variance For Career Orientation and Gender of Spouse on Dependent Variables

Source	df	MS	F	p
Between groups				
Career Orientation				
Perceived equity	1	.05972	0.32	.571
Masculinity	1	199.77734	1.12	.292
Femininity	1	749.24609	6.64	.011
Influence attempts	1	567.80469	2.26	.136
Perceived power	1	0.00940	0.02	.877
Means control	1	14.04004	0.44	.509
Credibility	1	56.16968	1.56	.214
Error				
Perceived equity	98	.18523		
Masculinity	98	177.62231		
Femininity	98	112.88747		
Influence attempts	98	251.34789		
Perceived power	98	.38832		
Means control	98	31.92889		
Credibility	98	35.91295		
Within groups				
Gender of Spouse				
Perceived equity	1	55.78032	117.59	.0001
Masculininity	1	5304.42188	34.31	.0001
Femininity	1	1118.63672	11.95	.001
Influence attempts	1	39.60474	1.01	.316
Perceived power	1	.50501	3.22	.076
Means control	1	99.40454	3.71	.057
Credibility	1	71.99927	2.32	.131

Table 5 (cont'd)

Source	df	MS	F	p
Career Orientation x Gender				
Perceived equity	1	.25986	0.55	.461
Masculinity	1	158.42188	1.02	.314
Femininity	1	146.20313	1.56	.214
Influence attempts	1	25.20459	0.65	.424
Perceived power	1	.28501	1.82	.181
Means control	1	51.00415	1.90	.171
Credibility	1	19.21948	0.62	.433
Error				
Perceived equity	98	.47437		
Masculinity	98	154.62189		
Femininity	98	93.61758		
Influence attempts	98	39.61758		
Perceived power	98	.15681		
Means control	98	26.78645		
Credibility	98	31.02818		

$p < .011$, but not on masculinity. The difference between the dyad types on femininity self-rating was due to single career wives rating themselves more highly on femininity ($M = 99.6$), than did dual career wives ($M = 93.2$), $F\ (1,98) = 7.54$, $p < .01$. Husbands of dual and single career marriages did not rate themselves differently on femininity. The interaction effect of career orientation with gender of spouse was not significant for masculinity or for femininity.

Marital Power

The four dependent power measures of influence attempts, perceived power, means control as an influence strategy, and credibility as an influence strategy are presented separately.

Influence attempts. Hypotheses concerning influence attempts predicted the following: (a) that wives in dual career marriages would attempt to influence their husbands more than would single career wives (Hypothesis 3); and (b) that both dual career and single career husbands would attempt to influence their wives more than their wives would attempt to influence them (Hypothesis 4). As shown in Table 5, the main effect of career orientation on influence attempts was not significant. The interaction effect of career orientation with gender of spouse was also not significant.

Perceived power. Wives in dual career marriages

were expected to rate themselves more highly than wives in single career marriages on perceived power (Hypothesis 5). As Table 5 indicates, there were no significant differences between dual and single career marital dyads in perceived power. The interaction effect of career orientation with gender of spouse was also not significant.

Means control. Husbands of both dual and single career marriages and wives of dual career marriages were expected to rate themselves more highly on use of means control as an influence strategy than were wives of single career marriages (Hypothesis 6). Analysis of main effects of career orientation demonstrated no significant effects of career orientation, as did analysis of the interaction between career orientation and gender of spouse.

Credibility. It was predicted that husbands of dual and single career marriages and wives of dual career marriages would rate themselves more highly on use of credibility as an influence strategy than would wives of single career marriages (Hypothesis 7). As Table 5 indicates, the main effect of career orientation on credibility ratings was not significant, nor was the interaction effect of credibility with gender of spouse.

Tests of Gender of Spouse Hypotheses

Hypotheses concerning the effects of gender of spouse

predicted husband and wife differences on some dimensions of marital power. However, effects of gender on perceived equity and sex role orientation will also be described, although no hypotheses were formulated for these effects. As with career orientation hypotheses, analyses were based on the marital dyad as the basic unit of measurement, with husbands' and wives' responses as repeated measures of the unit. Results of univariate analyses of variance for repeated measures are summarized in Table 5.

Perceived Equity

Although differences between couples of differing career orientation were predicted in this investigation, no predictions were made for the effects of gender of spouse on perceived equity of marital relationships. However, husbands and wives were found to differ significantly on their perceptions of equity, F (1, 98) = 117.59, $p < .0001$, as Table 5 shows. Wives rated their marriages as only slightly inequitable, rating themselves as contributing more than their husbands. The mean equity score for single career wives was 4.26 and for dual career wives was 4.22. Husbands viewed their marriages as moderately inequitable, with their wives contributing more than themselves. The mean equity score for dual career husbands was 3.25 and for single career husbands was 3.13. As discussed earlier, the interaction effect of career orientation with gender of spouse was not significant.

Sex Role Orientation

No hypotheses were advanced in the present investigation regarding differences in sex role orientation of husbands and wives. As expected, however, husbands differed from wives in their self-ratings of masculinity, F (1, 98) = 34.31, $p < .0001$, and in self-ratings of femininity, F (1, 98) = 11.95, $p < .001$. Husbands' mean ratings on masculinity were 102.3 compared to wives' mean ratings of 91.8. Husbands' mean ratings on femininity were 92.08, while wives' mean femininity ratings were 96.8. As discussed previously, interaction effects of gender of spouse with career orientation were not significant for either masculinity or femininity.

Marital Power

The dependent measures of marital power, influence attempts, perceived power, means control, and credibility, will again be discussed separately.

Influence attempts. Husbands in both types of marriages were expected to attempt to influence their wives more than their wives would attempt to influence them (Hypothesis 4). The analysis of variance summarized in Table 5 indicates, however, that no significant differences were found between husbands and wives in influence attempts. As described earlier, no interaction effects of gender with career orientation on influence attempts were found.

Perceived power. No specific predictions were made of the effects of gender of spouse on perceived marital power. Main effects of gender on perceived power were not significant, F (1, 98) = 3.22, $p > .076$, as indicated in Table 5. However, the results indicated a trend for wives to rate themselves as more powerful than husbands rated themselves. It was previously mentioned that the interaction effects of gender of spouse with career orientation on perceived power were also not significant.

Means control. The hypothesis regarding means control was an interactional hypothesis: that husbands of single and dual career couples and wives of dual career couples would perceive themselves as using means control to a greater extent than would wives of single career couples (Hypothesis 6). As can be seen from Table 5, the effects of gender of spouse on means control ratings was not significant, F (1, 98) = 3.71, $p > .057$. This finding does indicate a trend, however, with both dual and single career wives rating themselves lower in their use of means control than their husbands did. The non-significant interaction effects of gender with career orientation have been presented earlier.

Credibility. The hypothesis regarding credibility as an influence strategy was also an interactional hypothesis of gender and career orientation effects jointly: that husbands and dual career wives would perceive themselves as using credibility to influence their spouses to a greater

extent than would single career wives (Hypothesis 7). Table 5 indicates that the main effect of gender of spouse on credibility was not significant. As discussed earlier, the interaction effect of gender and career orientation on credibility was also not significant.

Test of Hypotheses of Interdependence Among Dependent Variables

Hypotheses of interdependence among dependent variables were concerned with two issues: (a) analysis of the role of perceived equity and sex role orientation as mediators of the effects of career orientation and gender of spouse on marital power; and (b) the specific relationships predicted between equity and the power measures of influence attempts and perceived power; between sex role orientation and the same two power measures; and between influence attempts and perceived power.

It will be recalled that the mediating role of perceived equity and sex role orientation was analyzed by canonical correlation analyses and by Pearson product-moment correlations for all subgroups of the sample. Canonical correlation analyses indicated that gender, perceived equity and sex role orientation contributed significantly to the prediction of marital power variables

for dual career couples, but not for single career couples. The first set of canonical variates accounted for 17.9% of the variance between the two sets of variables for dual career couples, $p < .027$, with no other significant canonical correlations. For single career couples, the first canonical correlation accounted for 10.9% of the variance between the predictor variables and the power dependent variables, a value which was not significant, $p > .237$. A summary of the canonical correlation analysis is contained in Appendix L. The contribution of specific variables to the significant canonical correlation for dual career marriages will be presented for each variable separately.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for the analyses of the mediating effect of perceived equity and sex role orientation for the effects of career orientation and gender of spouse on marital power, and for analysis of the hypothesized relationships between specific dependent variables are presented for dual and single career marital partners separately, for husbands and wives separately, and for each career orientation - gender subgroup. The correlations for single career and dual career partners require caution in their interpretation, since the husbands' and wives' responses within each couple type are from the same marriages and are therefore not independent observations. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients of the relationships

among all dependent variables are presented in Tables 6 to 9 and in Appendix M. In addition to the predicted relationships, significant unpredicted relationships among the dependent variables will be described in the discussion to follow.

Perceived Equity

It was hypothesized that marital partners who perceived themselves as contributing more to their marriage relationship than their spouses do would attempt to influence their spouses more (Hypothesis 8) and would perceive themselves as more powerful (Hypothesis 9) than partners who viewed themselves as contributing less than their spouses. As indicated in Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9, equity did not correlate with influence attempts for dual career partners, single career partners, husbands, or wives. However, equity did correlate significantly and negatively with husbands' perceived power ratings $r = -.2363$, $p < .009$, and significantly positively with wives' perceived power ratings, $r = .1974$, $p < .024$. As Bahr's Role Measure of Conjugal Power (Bahr, 1972) indicates wives' power with high values and husbands' power with low values, these relationships are in the predicted direction. These significant correlations are due to single career husbands, $r = -.3624$, $p < .005$, dual career wives, $r = .2222$, $p < .060$, and single career wives, $r = .1920$, $p < .091$, rather than to dual career husbands

Table 6

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables For Wives

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	.1075 (.144)	.0385 (.352)	.0069 (.473)	.1974 (.024)	.0592 (.279)	.0132 (.448)
Masculinity		1.00	.1246 (.108)	-.0101 (.460)	.1939 (.027)	.0544 (.295)	.3536 (.001)
Femininity			1.00	.0731 (.235)	-.0892 (.187)	-.0848 (.201)	.0231 (.410)
Influence attempts				1.00	.0374 (.356)	.1726 (.043)	.0744 (.231)
Perceived power					1.00	.2964 (.001)	.2643 (.004)
Means control						1.00	.2092 (.018)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations n = 100, df = 98.

Table 7

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables For Husbands

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	.0428 (.336)	.2276 (.011)	.0810 (.212)	-.2363 (.009)	.0334 (.371)	.0739 (.232)
Masculinity		1.00	.1367 (.088)	-.1396 (.083)	-.0064 (.475)	.0349 (.365)	.2187 (.014)
Femininity			1.00	.0450 (.328)	-.0150 (.441)	-.1439 (.077)	.0609 (.274)
Influence attempts				1.00	.0418 (.340)	.1992 (.023)	.0359 (.362)
Perceived power					1.00	.0809 (.212)	-.1755 (.040)
Means control						1.00	.3151 (.001)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations $n = 100$, $df = 98$.

Table 8

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables

For Single Career Marital Partners

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	-.2976 (.001)	.2855 (.002)	-.0731 (.235)	-.0590 (.280)	-.1777 (.038)	.0052 (.479)
Masculinity		1.00	-.0089 (.465)	.0611 (.273)	.0414 (.341)	.1222 (.113)	.2108 (.018)
Femininity			1.00	.0982 (.166)	-.0749 (.229)	-.1371 (.087)	.1130 (.132)
Influence attempts				1.00	.0970 (.169)	.1873 (.031)	.0024 (.491)
Perceived power					1.00	.0952 (.173)	-.1066 (.146)
Means control						1.00	.2500 (.006)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations $n = 100$, $df = 98$.

Table 9

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables

For Dual Career Marital Partners

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	-.0922 (.181)	.2363 (.009)	.0748 (.230)	.0956 (.172)	.0689 (.248)	.2195 (.014)
Masculinity		1.00	.1053 (.149)	-.1723 (.043)	.0263 (.397)	.0494 (.313)	.2421 (.008)
Femininity			1.00	.0615 (.272)	.0331 (.372)	-.1317 (.096)	.0503 (.309)
Influence attempts				1.00	-.0162 (.437)	.1849 (.033)	.0726 (.236)
Perceived power					1.00	.2067 (.020)	.1854 (.032)
Means control						1.00	.2367 (.009)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations n = 100, df = 98.

(shown in Appendix M).

No relationships were hypothesized between perceived equity and influence strategies. However, perceived equity was significantly and negatively correlated with means control for single career partners, $\underline{r} = -.1777$, $\underline{p} < .038$ (Table 8), and significantly but positively correlated for dual career wives, $\underline{r} = .3289$, $\underline{p} < .010$ (Appendix M). In addition, perceived equity was significantly related to use of credibility as an influence strategy for dual career partners, $\underline{r} = .2195$, $\underline{p} < .014$ (Table 9).

Canonical correlation analysis revealed that equity contributed least among the criterion variables to the prediction of marital power for dual career couples, with a canonical variate coefficient of -.029, shown in Appendix L.

Equity was also found to correlate significantly with masculinity for single career partners, $\underline{r} = -.2976$, $\underline{p} < .001$ (Table 8), and significantly with femininity for husbands, $\underline{r} = .2276$, $\underline{p} < .011$ (Table 7), for single career partners, $\underline{r} = .2855$, $\underline{p} < .002$ (Table 8) and for dual career partners, $\underline{r} = .2363$, $\underline{p} < .009$ (Table 9), particularly for dual career husbands, $\underline{r} = .3347$, $\underline{p} < .009$ (shown in Appendix M).

Sex Role Orientation

For wives, higher self-ratings of masculinity were

expected to correlate with greater frequency of influence attempts and higher self-ratings of perceived power (Hypotheses 10 and 13). For husbands, higher self-ratings of femininity were expected to correlate with lower frequency of influence attempts and lower self-ratings of perceived power (Hypotheses 11 and 12). As Table 6 indicates, higher masculinity self-ratings for wives were associated with greater perceived power, $\underline{r} = .1939$, $\underline{p} < .027$, but not with greater frequency of influence attempts. This relationship between masculinity and perceived power was due to its significance in responses of single career wives, $\underline{r} = .2258$, $\underline{p} < .057$. As shown in Table 7, lower femininity self-ratings of husbands were not correlated with either influence attempts or with perceived power. Canonical correlation analyses indicated that for dual career couples only, masculinity is the major variable predicting responses on marital power measures, having a canonical variate coefficient of -.943. The canonical variate coefficient for femininity, again for dual career couples, was .135, indicating its very slight contribution to the relationship between power variables and predictor variables.

Two unpredicted relationships between masculinity and power variables were also found. Among dual career partners, masculinity is significantly and negatively related to influence attempts, $\underline{r} = -.1723$, $\underline{p} < .043$, as Table 9 indicates. In addition, masculinity is significantly

and positively correlated with credibility for wives, $r = .3536$, $p < .001$ (Table 6); husbands, $r = .2187$, $p < .014$ (Table 7); single career partners, $r = .2108$, $p < .018$ (Table 8); and dual career partners, $r = .2421$, $p < .008$ (Table 9). The relationship between masculinity and credibility is significant at the .05 level or beyond for all career orientation - gender subgroups, except for dual career husbands, $r = .2000$, $p > .082$, as shown in Appendix M.

Marital Power

Each of the marital power variables of influence attempts, perceived power, and influence strategies (means control and credibility) will be discussed separately.

Influence attempts. It was predicted that influence attempts would be highly and positively related to perceived marital power. As Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9 indicate, no significant relationship emerged between these two variables for wives, husbands, single career partners, or dual career partners. The hypothesized relationship between influence attempts and perceived power did not occur in any of the career orientation - gender subgroups, as shown in Appendix M. Influence attempts also correlated significantly with means control, a finding that will be described in the section on means control. In canonical correlation analyses, influence attempts contributed moderately, for dual career couples only, to

the relationship between sex, perceived equity, and sex role orientation and marital power measures, having a canonical variate coefficient of .455 (see Appendix L).

Perceived Power. As described earlier, perceived power was not related to influence attempts. In canonical correlation analyses, perceived power contributed only slightly to the strength of the relationship between sex, perceived equity, and sex role orientation with marital power variables, for dual career couples only, with a canonical variate co-efficient of -.2467, shown in Appendix L. Although no relationships were predicted between perceived power and the influence strategies of means control and credibility, perceived power was significantly correlated with both these variables. These correlations will be described in the sections on means control and credibility.

Means control. Relationships between means control and other power variables were not predicted. However, means control was correlated with all other marital power variables.

Correlations between means control and influence attempts were .1726, $p < .043$, for wives (Table 6); .1992, $p < .023$, for husbands (Table 7); .1873, $p < .031$, for single career partners (Table 8); and .1849, $p < .033$ for dual career partners (Table 9). The correlations between means control and influence attempts were not significant at the .05 level for any of the subgroups of single

career and dual career husbands or single career and dual career wives, as Appendix M indicates.

Means control and perceived power were correlated positively for wives, $r = .2964$, $p < .001$, and for dual career partners, $r = .2067$, $p < .020$. These relationships were due to the positive correlation of these variables for single career wives, $r = .3209$, $p < .012$, and for dual career wives, $r = .2720$, $p < .028$. As shown in Appendix M, perceived power and means control did not correlate significantly for husbands of either career orientation.

Means control and credibility were significantly related to each other, a correlation that will be discussed in the section on credibility.

In canonical correlation analyses, the contribution of means control to the relationship between the variables of sex, perceived equity, and sex role orientation with marital power variables for dual career couples was negligible, as shown by its canonical variate coefficient of .077 (Appendix L).

Credibility. No specific relationships were predicted for credibility with other marital power variables. However, credibility was significantly correlated with both perceived power and means control.

Credibility correlated significantly and positively with perceived power for wives, $r = .2643$, $p < .004$ (Table 6), and for dual career partners, $r = .1854$, $p < .032$

(Table 9). Higher ratings on use of credibility as an influence strategy were associated with lower perceived power scores, and vice versa, for husbands, $\underline{r} = -.1755$, $\underline{p} < .040$ (Table 7). Since lower perceived power scores reflect husbands' rather than wives' power, use of credibility as an influence strategy correlated with husbands' power, in husbands' self-ratings. Credibility and perceived power were not significantly related for single career partners. As shown in Appendix M, the highest correlations between credibility and perceived power were for dual career wives, $\underline{r} = .3499$, $\underline{p} < .006$, and for single career husbands, $\underline{r} = -.3743$, $\underline{p} < .004$. The two variables were not significantly related to each other for single career wives and dual career husbands.

Credibility and means control were positively correlated with each other in almost all sub-groups of the sample. The following correlations were obtained: for wives, $\underline{r} = .2092$, $\underline{p} < .018$ (Table 6); for husbands, $\underline{r} = .3151$, $\underline{p} < .001$ (Table 7); for single career partners, $\underline{r} = .2500$, $\underline{p} < .006$ (Table 8); and for dual career partners, $\underline{r} = .2367$, $\underline{p} < .009$ (Table 9). The correlations between these two measures of influence strategy were significant and positive at the .05 level or beyond for dual career husbands, single career husbands, and single career wives, but not for dual career wives, as shown in Appendix M.

Canonical correlation analyses for dual career

couples indicated that credibility contributed substantially to the relationship between the predictor variables of sex, perceived equity, and sex role orientation and the power dependent variables. The canonical variate coefficient for credibility was -.853, as indicated in Appendix L.

Results Summary

Tests of career orientation hypotheses. Dual and single career couples were not found to differ on perceived equity or marital power variables. The two types of couples differed in sex role orientation, however, with single career wives rating themselves as more feminine than did dual career wives. Gender, perceived equity, and sex role orientation were significantly related to marital power in dual career but not single career couples, with gender and masculinity as the main predictor variables and influence attempts and credibility the main criterion variables in this relationship.

Tests of gender of spouse hypotheses. Husbands and wives differed in perceived equity and self-ratings of masculinity and femininity. Wives rated themselves as contributing slightly more than their husbands did and husbands rated themselves as contributing slightly less than their wives did. Husbands viewed themselves as more

masculine than wives did, and wives viewed themselves as more feminine than husbands did. Trends were evident for differences in perceived power and in use of means control as an influence strategy between husbands and wives, with husbands rating themselves as higher in use of means control and lower in perceived power than wives rated themselves.

Tests of hypotheses of interdependence among dependent variables. For all subgroups, influence attempts correlated positively with means control, masculinity correlated positively with credibility, and means control correlated positively with credibility. Other relationships among perceived equity, sex role orientation, and marital power variables depended on career orientation and gender of spouse. Perceived equity was positively related to perceived power for both husbands and wives, to credibility use for dual career partners, and to femininity for dual career husbands, while having a negative relationship with use of means control for single career partners. Masculinity was positively related to perceived power for wives, and negatively related to influence attempts for dual career husbands. Perceived power correlated positively with means control for wives, and with credibility for dual career wives and single career husbands.

DISCUSSION

The present investigation was concerned with predicting perceived equity, sex role orientation, and marital power in dual and single career marital couples, and with determining the effects of equity and sex role orientation on marital power. Single career husbands and dual career husbands and wives were expected to be higher than single career wives in perceived equity, masculinity, influence attempts, perceived power, means control, and credibility, and lower than single career wives in femininity. Several predictions concerning equity, masculinity and femininity were supported by the data. However, career orientation and gender of spouse proved to be less contributory than perceived equity and sex role orientation to the prediction of marital power. In addition, some unexpected interrelationships among marital power variables were found. These findings and their implications will be presented in detail for each of the dependent variables in the following discussion.

Perceived Equity

Equity is the outcome of the comparison by each spouse of the costs contributed and the rewards obtained from the marriage by each partner. Due to the similarity

of major contributions to marriage by dual career partners, it was predicted that dual career husbands and wives would view their marriages as more equitable than single career partners, whose major contributions differ more markedly between husband and wife. The difference in some types of contributions to marriage as a function of participation or non-participation in a professional career were not influential, while gender of spouse did influence perceived equity. The data indicated that wives viewed their marriages as more equitable than their husbands did. Wives also viewed themselves as contributing slightly more to their marriages than their husbands do. Husbands perceived themselves as contributing less to family functioning than they perceived their wives to be contributing. This finding suggests the strength with which areas of contribution to family functioning are associated with spouses' gender, overriding other salient features of a marital situation such as differing occupational and career orientations of the couples in the present sample.

Mean responses to individual items of the perceived equity scale (shown in Appendix N) indicated that husbands perceived themselves as contributing less than their wives did to all family functions, with the exception of financial provider functions. In addition, for all family functions wives saw their husbands as contributing more to their marriages than their husbands saw themselves as

contributing. The discrepancy between husbands' and wives' equity judgments suggests that comparison of respective contributions to family functioning is not a subject about which spouses communicate to a great extent. If it were otherwise, spouses would presumably share their partners' view more closely than is indicated by the present data.

In addition to differences due to gender of spouse, perceived equity responses were notable for the relative equity of the marriage relationships, as perceived by spouses. Although husbands' mean equity perceptions deviated more from equity than the mean of wives' perceptions, even the husbands' rated their relationships as only "slightly" inequitable. These perceptions indicate respondents' positive views of their marital partner and of their marriages. The basic assumption of equity theory, that relationships persist as long as participants believe they are receiving equal benefits from the relationship (Walster, Utne, & Traupmann, 1975), thus receives some support from these findings.

The finding that wives of both career orientations are similar to each other, just as dual and single career husbands are similar, allows further conclusions substantiating some and contradicting other elements of the literature on dual career marriages. Marital theorists have speculated that the dual career form of marriage allows both partners to actualize themselves without the

constraints of a gender-determined division of roles (Bernard, 1972; Gass, 1974; Osofsky & Osofsky, 1972; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975; Rossi, 1964). The flexibility of roles for each partner and the sharing of roles is predicted by these theorists to lead to greater satisfaction with marriage. Yet the husbands and wives of both dual and single career marriages in the present study shared the perception that wives contributed slightly more than husbands. This shared perception of spouses in both types of marriages suggests more similarities than differences between single and dual career couples in their views of wives' marital roles. Other marriage theorists and researchers have indicated that dual career marriages suffer more stresses than single career marriages, since both partners must perform more of the family functions in time away from their jobs (Bryson, Bryson, Licht & Licht, 1975; Poloma & Garland, 1971; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). Dual career wives have been presented by these theorists as stressed more than their husbands, since some traditional ascription of homemaker roles occurs even to women engaged full-time in professional careers. Respondents in the present study substantiated this view to a small degree in that dual career wives rated themselves and were rated by their husbands as contributing more than their husbands. However, this same view was evident in single career husbands' and wives' equity ratings. It is possible, therefore, that in both types of

couples wives take on more of the functions needed within a family.

The significant differences between husbands and wives within each type of marriage in perceived marital equity suggests that the individual circumstances of each marriage alone do not account for marital partners' perceptions of equity. Marital partners' judgments must reflect a standard of comparison outside their marriage for this discrepancy between husbands' and wives' judgments to occur. Osmond's (1978) concept of a referential structure, defining the nature of equitable exchanges and resources exchanged by others in similar relationships, as well as by the history of one's own relationship, is thus supported by the present data. Presumably, husbands and wives look to what they know of other marriages to evaluate the equity balance of their own marital relationships.

Perceived Equity and Marital Power

Marital partners who viewed themselves as contributing less than their partners to their marriage were expected to attempt to influence their spouses less and to perceive their marital power as less than partners who contribute more than their spouses. Influence attempts were not related to perceived equity but were related to perceived

power for both husbands and wives.

The finding that the more partners perceive their relationship to be equitable the more they view themselves as powerful in influencing their spouses confirms an hypothesis of the present study derived from recently developed theories of marital power (Olson, Cromwell, & Klein, 1975; Osmond, 1978; Rollins & Bahr, 1976). Spouses apparently perceive themselves to have the capability of influencing each other to the extent that they contribute more to their marriage than their spouses do. Differences between spouses in perceived marital power thus appear to be one means for the restoration or maintenance of equity in marital relationships.

The lack of evidence for the prediction that perceived inequities will be positively associated with attempts to influence marital partners contradicts equity theorists (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978) and marital power theorists (Osmond, 1978), who suggest that partners will try to equalize each of their contributions by dominating or by allowing the partner to dominate marital decisions under conditions of inequity. Given the assumption of equity theorists that individuals will strive to restore and to maintain equity in their relationships (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978), it appears that marital partners in inequitable relationships look to other mechanisms than regulation of dominance levels during conflict interactions as a means of regaining equity.

The measure of perceived equity developed for the present study has several characteristics which lend confidence to the equity ratings obtained. The measure is based on a comprehensive listing of basic family roles (Bahr, 1972), excluding sexual roles. Therefore, the measure reflects respondents' judgments of the roles of provision of finances, housekeeping and household maintenance, physical care and teaching and disciplining of children, understanding feelings and problems of family members, maintaining social contact with friends and relatives, and organizing recreational activities. A further advantage of the present measure is that it requires a number of judgments, including both specific and global judgments, from responders.

However, the equity measure used in this investigation has not been used prior to its application to the present sample. The assumption that evaluation of contribution to family roles may be a basis of equity judgments has similarly not been considered previously in marital equity theory. As noted by Walster, Walster, & Berscheid (1978), few research investigations of marital equity and few measures of marital equity have been completed. The present research may be considered one contribution to the measurement and investigation of marital equity. However, further attempts at the investigation and measurement of marital equity are required to validate the findings of the present study that husbands and wives differ

in perceived marital equity.

Sex Role Orientation

The predicted effect of career orientation on self-ratings of sex role orientation was that dual career wives would rate themselves more highly on masculinity and less highly on femininity than single career wives. It was expected that dual career wives' self-concepts would reflect their participation in predominantly male professional occupations by augmenting the importance of masculine characteristics and diminishing the importance of feminine characteristics in their self-concepts. However, dual career wives differed from single career wives only in self-ratings of femininity. It appears therefore that participation in professional occupations has less effect on acceptance of traditionally masculine characteristics in dual career wives' self-concepts than on reducing their self-attributions of feminine characteristics. The fact that single career wives rated themselves almost as highly on masculinity as dual career wives suggests that homemaker roles provide as much support for traditionally masculine personality characteristics as the professional occupational world does, or that masculine personality traits are almost as accepted and valued among homemakers as are feminine characteristics.

Husbands' and wives' ratings of their masculine and feminine characteristics conformed to the expected gender distinctions, indicating that even in dual career families the transcendence of gender-related characteristics predicted by some sex role theorists (Bem, 1976; Rossi, 1972) is not yet a reality. Dual career wives came closest of all the subgroups to displaying the balance of masculinity and femininity idealized by sex role theorists.

Sex Role Orientation and Marital Power

It was hypothesized that the more highly husbands in both dual career and single career marriages rated themselves on femininity the less frequently they would attempt to influence their wives in conflict situations. For wives, it was hypothesized that the more highly they rated themselves in masculinity the higher would be the frequency of their attempts to influence their husbands. Hypotheses concerning perceived power were parallel to the hypotheses concerning influence attempts. The more highly husbands rated themselves on femininity the lower they were expected to rate themselves on perceived marital power. The more highly wives rated themselves on masculinity the more highly they were expected to rate themselves on perceived marital power.

Masculinity, but not femininity, was found to be

related to marital power, although more strongly for wives than for husbands. Masculinity was positively related to perceived power for wives, particularly for single career wives. For dual career couples, masculinity contributed significantly to the prediction of frequency of influence attempts and extent to which credibility was used as an influence strategy. In addition, two unpredicted relationships were found between masculinity and marital power. For single career husband and wives and for dual career wives, masculinity was significantly and positively related to the use of credibility as an influence strategy. Contrary to hypothesis, masculinity was found to be negatively correlated with influence attempts for dual career partners, particularly for dual career husbands. Thus, although masculinity self-ratings of spouses affect influence attempts, perceived power, and credibility, the nature of the relationship depends on the gender of spouse and career orientation of the couple.

Several characteristics are listed as items in the masculinity subscale of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) which predict behaviors conducive to influencing one's spouse in a marital conflict situation. These include characteristics such as the following: "defends own beliefs", "assertive", "forceful", and "willing to take a stand". Self-ratings such as these were positively related to perceived marital power for single career wives. However, these masculinity self-ratings did not

correspond to assertive behavior in marital conflict situations. In fact, the more dual career husbands and wives described themselves as masculine, the less did they attempt to influence their partners during marital conflicts. Whether this unexpected negative relationship is specific to the interaction patterns developed between the particular dual career husbands and wives of this sample, or whether masculinity is more complexly related to behavior than the present hypotheses suggest remains to be determined in further research.

The relationship between credibility and masculinity was strongest for dual career wives; significant for single career husbands and wives; and showed a trend toward significance for dual career husbands. It appears that only on attitudinal, as compared to behavioral measures, does the predicted positive relationship between masculinity and marital power hold. Since credibility is the appeal to one's own areas of expertise and knowledge in trying to influence someone, this finding corresponds to theoretical predictions that masculinity is related to self-perceptions of competence (Bem, 1974, 1976).

Marital Power

Career orientation and gender were hypothesized to affect influence attempts, influence strategies, and

perceived power. For each of these dependent variables, dual career husbands and wives and single career husbands were expected to rate themselves more highly or to behave more frequently in ways consistent with greater power in their marital relationships than single career wives. Contrary to these predictions, neither career orientation nor gender alone demonstrated significant differences between groups. However, the presence or absence of relationships between marital power variables differed depending on the career orientation and gender of marital partners.

For husbands, wives, and both dual career and single career partners, influence attempts were associated with self-reports of use of means control as an influence strategy. Means control differs from self-reports of both credibility and perceived power in its reference to behaviors more active than merely verbal statements. If influence attempts as observable behavior are accepted as stronger predictors of influence behavior than are self-report power measures, the relationship between influence attempts and means control may be interpreted as a reflection of the degree of marital partners' willingness to act on desires to influence spouses.

Career orientation and gender of spouse also determined the extent to which strategies of influence and perceived marital power were related to each other. Husbands, wives, and dual career partners perceived

themselves as using credibility to influence their spouses to the extent that they perceived themselves as powerful in their marital relationships. Wives also reported themselves to use means control as an influence strategy the more they perceived themselves as powerful in their marital relationships. This positive relationship between use of influence strategies and perceived marital power may simply indicate greater use of influence strategies the more marital partners view their strategies as effective in influencing their spouses. However, wives report greater use of influence strategies under conditions of perceived marital power than husbands do. Consequently, wives appear to be either more aware of their use of influence strategies than husbands or they tend to use both credibility or material means of influence more frequently than their husbands do.

In addition to the predictive role of couples' career orientation and gender of spouse for relationships between marital power variables, career orientation and gender are moderators of the extent to which spouses' sex role orientation and perceived equity predict marital power. Masculinity is either positively or negatively related to influence attempts, to perceived power, and to the use of credibility as an influence strategy depending on marital partners' career orientation and gender. Similarly, career orientation and gender predict the presence or absence of relationships between marital

equity and perceived power; and they predict the type and direction of relationships between marital equity and the influence strategies of means control and credibility.

The relationships discovered among marital power variables, and the differential relationships of perceived equity and sex role orientation with some but not all measures of marital power, support marital power theorists who describe power as a multi-dimensional construct (Olson, Cromwell & Klein, 1975; Rollins & Bahr, 1976; Sprey, 1971, 1972). The only relationship predicted among marital power measures was a positive relationship between influence attempts and perceived marital power, which did not occur. The lack of relationship between these two variables contradicts a theoretical proposition of Rollins' and Bahr's model of marital power, which states that the greater the perceived power the greater will be the frequency of influence attempts. Previous research and research reviews have criticized marital power questionnaires for requesting judgments on routine marital decision-making rather than only on conflicted marital issues; for imbalancing the number of issues asked about traditionally male or traditionally female decision areas; or for sampling too few areas of marital life (Bahr, 1972; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). Bahr's (1972) Role Measure of Conjugal Power, used in the present study, avoids these difficulties, yet still fails to correspond with a behavioral measure of marital power, influence attempts.

The conclusion is inescapable that phenomenological measures of family power which correspond to actual behaviors are difficult to develop.

However, phenomenological power measures corresponding with actual behavior are not impossible to develop, as the significant relationship found for husbands between influence attempts and use of means control as an influence strategy shows. Husbands who rated themselves highly on use of means control as an influence strategy also attempted to influence their wives more frequently in the conflict negotation task. It appears therefore that when individuals are asked to report on an element of power corresponding directly to a behavior, in this case strategy of influence compared to influence attempts, then self-report predicts behavior. When the attitudinal measure asks quite different questions than the behavioral measure, such as the questions of "who makes the final decision" in Bahr's (1972) perceived power scale in comparison to influence attempts, the self-report fails to predict the behavior.

Among the relationships found between marital power variables was the significant correlation between the two kinds of influence strategies for all subgroups of the research sample. Whether this correlation reflects method similarity in the measurement of the two constructs, a self-awareness or ability to report on influence strategies common to individuals rating themselves highly on both

measures, or an actual tendency to use both types of influence remains to be determined in future research.

The findings of the present investigation concerning spouses' self-reports of influence strategies were obtained with the Davis Influence Scale (Davis, Note 1). Although the manner of development of the scale appears to have been rigorous, and its validity and reliability as a self-report influence measure have been demonstrated by Davis, the scale has not yet been used extensively. Further research use of this scale, particularly in marital power research, would be an asset in assessing the consistency of the present study's findings that means control and credibility are related to other dimensions of marital power, to sex role orientation, and to perceived equity.

Theoretical, Research, and Clinical Implications

Several major findings are apparent from the present investigation. These include marital partners' differences in perceived equity by gender; differences in self-reports of marital power as a function of perceived equity; differences in marital power as a function of sex role orientation, and particularly of masculine sex role orientation; and differences in the relationship between components of marital power as a function of career

orientation and gender of spouse.

The differences in perceived equity strongly suggest the relevance of gender as a determinant of this variable. The magnitude of the differences is striking and indicates the importance of equity as a subjective variable in individuals' perceptions of their marriage relationships. The differences obtained between equity perceptions of spouses in the same marriage support Osmond's (1978) view that cultural expectations and comparisons to reference groups help to determine equity perceptions. These within-marriage differences also require a new element in equity theory: a framework for understanding different perceptions between spouses and the consequences of these differences for attaining or restoring equity. The assumption that relationships last only when both partners perceive themselves as obtaining similar benefits (Walster, Utne & Traupmann, 1975) apparently requires revision and elaboration before the equity concept can be applied to understanding marriages.

Several major results of this research have implications for further research and theory development on marital power. The first is the finding that masculine sex role orientation, as defined by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974), is significantly related to several dimensions of power. This research is unique in identifying sex role orientation variables as relevant to marital power. The possibility exists that cultural changes, such

as value changes in cross-gender relationships, have resulted in changes in marital power for some subcultural groups to the point where marital authority and basic resources are less predictive of marital power relations now than earlier in the history of marital power research. In addition, the predictiveness of masculinity for marital power suggests that some traditionally psychological measures rarely applied to marital power research may help to clarify marital power relations.

A second result of the present study with implications for theory development and future research in marital power is the finding that perceived marital equity is a predictor variable for perceived marital power and for self-reported strategies of influence in marital relationships. The present study therefore provides support for marital power theorists such as Heer (1963a, 1963b), and Osmond (1978) who postulate that the comparison of resources exchanged between marital partners is a determinant of marital power relations.

A further result of this research having theoretical and research implications for marital power is the finding that, although career orientation and gender of spouse are not strong predictors of power, the relationships among dimensions of power differ as a function of these variables. Thus, although it may no longer be relevant to treat wives' occupational participation as a highly significant influence on marital power for some

types of couples, research on marital power is likely to be more interpretable if subjects are matched on working/non-working and occupational status of wives. In addition, if recent reviews on marital power have left any doubt concerning the need for both partners in a couple to participate jointly in power research (Olson, Cromwell & Klein, 1975; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970), the differences between husbands and wives on the power measures in this research again emphasizes that need.

Several features of this research have implications for preventive mental health and for marital psychotherapy and counselling. Equity theory applied to marriage relationships suggest that deviations from an equitable balance of contributions between marital partners is likely to lead to subjective psychological distress of partners (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). The average of husbands' and wives' ratings of marital equity in this study suggests that the respondents were aware of some inequities in their marriages. In addition, the mean ratings indicated that perceived inequity is a common state of marital relationships. The extent to which perceived inequity contributes to psychological distress becomes all the more important as an issue if most marital partners believe there are inequities in their relationships. Since husbands viewed their relationships as more inequitable than wives did, husbands may be more likely to experience distress in marital relationships than wives,

if the findings of the present study generalize to other marriages. Thus, the prevalance of perceived marital inequity, and consequences of marital inequities for the subjective distress or comfort of marital partners, for marital satisfaction, and for continuation of marital relationships are research questions likely to provide important information for preventive mental health and for marital counselling in the future.

Two other results of this research have implications for cultural expectations of male and female roles and interpersonal behavior in cross-gender relationships. The notable similarities rather than differences in marital power, and the lack of any extreme imbalance in husbands' and wives' self-ratings of masculinity and femininity, may indicate decreasing constraints of traditional sex role socialization on interpersonal relationships between men and women.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

INITIAL INSTRUCTIONS TO SUBJECTS

As you know from our letter and phone call, this research is for a doctoral dissertation in the Department of Psychology of the University of Manitoba. The research is concerned with what marriage and family life is like for marriage partners in the families of professionals, and from this research we hope that more will be known about social changes occurring in marriage and family life. We will be interested in finding out about your perceptions of your marriage and family life, and about decision-making in your marriage.

This session will be broken down into two segments. In the first part, we would like to have you each complete a questionnaire about the way you see yourselves and many aspects of your marriage and present life. The reason for the variety of questions about yourselves is that every marriage is very different depending on the people in it, so we need to know something about each of you, as well as about your marriage. The first 45 minutes or so will be taken up by the questionnaire, and then there will be time for you to get a cup of coffee before continuing into the second part of the study. In this second 45-minute segment, we would like you to evaluate separately and then to discuss together some case descriptions of couples having some kinds of problems that can arise in marriages. We will be asking for your opinions about how to solve the problems. As soon as we have finished, I will be happy to discuss with you any further questions you may have about this research in more detail.

I would like to remind you that all of the information you provide is absolutely confidential - we are not even going to have each of you see your spouse's questionnaire - and that it will be used only in a general report on the results of the research. There will be no way of anyone knowing you participated in the research, unless of course you mention it to them.

The professional ethics of the Canadian Psychological Association specify that you may omit any question that you may find objectionable to you. However, we have tried to omit such questions, and it would help in the research very much if you would answer all the questions. We would appreciate your considering your responses very carefully, and recording them accurately.

If there are any questions for which the responses provided don't completely fit your situation, please choose the answer that is best suited to your situation, and then explain the answer in the margins of the questionnaire, or bring it to our attention later.

Are there any questions that you have about anything I have said, or about the procedure that we are going to follow?

INTRODUCTION TO THE IMC PROCEDURE

Now I'd like your opinions on some real cases where couples are having various types of marital conflicts. The case descriptions I am going to show you are part of a series called the "Inventory of Marital Conflicts."

This inventory was developed from information provided by approximately 2,000 couples from various walks of life. The creators of the inventory found certain things that have frequently caused disagreements or conflicts among couples. The types of disagreements selected for the Inventory from these couples' experiences were, in all cases, serious problems for some couples. Descriptions of couples having some of these conflicts have been written up to form a test of your ability to resolve disagreements between spouses. Your task is to read each of these case descriptions and decide which spouse is primarily responsible for the conflict. The last set of questions you answered a few minutes ago, about some kinds of problems couples have, are the kinds of problems described in this Inventory.

As in any conflict situation, there are two points of view presented in the case descriptions. In some of the cases, one of you will learn about the conflict from the point of view of the husband. The other will learn the wife's point of view regarding the same situation. In each case, however, both of you will be given the same essential facts.

It's very important that for every case you decide who is at fault in the conflict even though this might be difficult at times. Please do not indicate that both are to blame or leave any question blank.

I am going to leave these materials with each of you so that you can read and evaluate these cases. These are the case descriptions and these are the answer sheets for you to record your opinions. When you have each finished evaluating the cases, I'd like you to discuss the case descriptions together.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE IMC DISCUSSION SESSION

Now I would like you to fully discuss the conflict each couple is having and decide who is primarily responsible for the problem. As I mentioned before, in some cases the descriptions you each read represented different points of view. For example, if the two of you were involved in a disagreement and subsequently you each tried to describe it, it is highly probable that each of you would present slightly different points of view on the issue. In these case descriptions, though, Please don't be distracted by such differences, for in every case each point of view contains all the essential facts, and my primary concern is how you resolve the conflict each couple is having.

In discussing these cases it's important that you use only the information provided. Also, it's important that you resolve each disagreement before going on to the next case.

I will have a tape recorder on so that no one will have to be present in the room while you are discussing these items.

These are your individual response sheets (GIVE TO EACH SPOUSE) to help you recall your answers to each item. However, while discussing these cases, do <u>not</u> show you spouse your answer sheet. You will <u>not</u> have the case descriptions to refer to, so do the best you can remembering the details of the cases.

These are the sheets for each of you to keep track of your joint answers (GIVE TO EACH). The brief sentence for each item should help you recall the cases. As you can see, on Part A you must decide which spouse is primarily responsible for the problem and on Part B you must choose one of the two alternatives.

On both Part A and Part B do not leave any question blank and do not answer "both."

You will have about 30 minutes to discuss the cases and come to a solution for each. I will let you know five minutes before the time is up.

Appendix B

Comparison of Numbers of Participant Couples Versus Couples Declining to Participate For Each Occupational Category

Career Category	Letters sent	Participating Couples	Number of Ineligible Subjects	Reasons Given by Couples Declining to Participate: Too busy	Not interested	Moving away	Other	No reason given	Never Reached[2]	Over Quota[3]
Academicians, single career	79[1]	12	36	12	3			10	5	1
Academicians, dual career	40	12	9	7	4			1	4	3
Lawyers, single career	59	7	26	12	6	3	2	2	1	
Lawyers, dual career	14	8	3				1	2		
Physicians, single career	38	6	15	11	3				3	
Physicians, dual career	20	4	7	3	2	2	1	1		
Physiotherapists, single career	10	2	4		1		1		2	
Physiotherapists, dual career	19	2	4	6	2				1	
Social Workers, single career	29	7	17	3	1	1				
Social Workers, dual career	26	7	11	6				2		
Teachers, single career	88	15	34	18	9		2	5	4	1
Teachers, dual career	35	12	5	12	3			2	1	
Other, single career	1	4	1							
Other, dual career	7	3	3		1					

[1]Numbers represent number of couples in each category.

[2]Refers to couples who could not be contacted either due to a change of residence or to lengthy absences.

[3]Refers to couples who were willing to participate, but who were not asked to participate to minimize over-representation of their occupational or career orientation category.

Appendix C

Husbands' Form

1. Bob and Frank are good friends. Janis, Bob's wife, likes Frank but is becoming increasingly annoyed with his unannounced and excessively long visits to their apartment, especially at mealtimes. She has suggested to Bob that he ask Frank to please phone before visiting, but her husband feels this would be insulting to his friend. Janis suggests that she might ask Frank to please phone before visiting, but this only makes her husband angry. After accusing his wife of interfering with his friendship, he refuses to discuss the matter further.

2. Cora doesn't really enjoy sexual relations. When she was first married she would avoid love making by telling her husband it was painful. More recently she has pretended to be tired when her husband has approached her. Now she has resorted to retiring earlier than her husband. Cora believes sex is an unpleasant subject that one does not discuss unless absolutely necessary, and she becomes furious when Jack insists they should talk about this problem.

3. When Don finally gets home from work he takes off his jacket, tie and shoes, and makes himself comfortable with a can of beer. After dinner Don has a little more energy, so he goes back and puts away the various articles of clothing he has taken off. One day Francine tells Don he is sloppy and lazy and demands that he not leave clothes lying around, even for a short period of time. Two days later, Don forgets to do as his wife had demanded, and she angrily repeats her complaint. An argument develops.

4. Nina has been looking for a pair of shoes to wear with her favorite dress. Upon finding a pair of shoes on sale. Nina just cannot resist and purchases them. Later that evening she shows her new purchase to Peter. He remembers that she already has many pairs of shoes and asks about the necessity of such a purchase at this time. Nina becomes outraged and accuses him of being cheap and inconsiderate.

5. Mark and Elaine have both been working since their marriage in order to live at a level which they feel to be comfortable. Occasionally, Elaine becomes depressed because she wants to have a child but knows that on Mark's salary alone this would be extremely difficult. Elaine's emotions get the best of her and she accuses Mark of not being aggressive enough, implying that he is an inadequate provider. Mark was advised not to go to college because of scholastic difficulties and has done as well as could reasonably be expected, but his wife continually compares him unfavorably to his college-educated friends. Mark's self-esteem is injured and an argument begins.

6. A conflict has arisen between Jack and Colleen following a party with friends. During the party, Jack talked to another woman, resulting in his wife becoming very angry. Following the party, Colleen angrily accuses Jack of intentionally ignoring her for the entire evening and becomes argumentative.

7. Betty and Phil have been having marital difficulties for the past year. One of the problems has been Betty's extravagance. Now Betty insists on immediately seeking costly professional counseling. Phil points out that there simply is no money to pay for such an expensive venture until they can cut down their expenses some place else. Betty will not hear of waiting until money is available, and many arguments arise in the weeks to come.

8. Jim routinely arrives home from work at 5:00 PM and enjoys his dinner soon after his arrival. Susan has been a full-time housewife since the birth of their first child one year ago but still leaves her domestic chores undone. Jim has asked Susan if she would have the house clean and dinner prepared when he returns home. Upon arriving home, Jim again finds the ironing board with a pile of clothes in the living room, a dining table that has not been set, and his wife sitting on the sofa reading a magazine. Upon viewing the situation Jim appears discouraged, whereupon Susan accuses him of always finding fault with her and angrily storms into the kitchen.

9. It's Friday evening and the Carter family have a dinner engagement, which had been made the previous week. Frank comes home a half hour early so he can be sure to be ready on time. He showers, shaves and is dressed and ready to leave on time. But when it is time to go, Mary is still in the bathroom combing her hair and putting on makeup. Since Mary almost always makes them late this way, Frank becomes upset. Mary retorts that she isn't very concerned about being late since they always get where they are going sooner or later.

10. Linda and Steve plan to take a weekend trip by car. While Linda is driving Steve to work on Friday morning, Steve hears a "pinging" noise and realizes that the spark plugs should be changed along with other minor adjustments. Since they plan to leave Friday evening and Steve has to work, he has to ask his wife to take the car to the garage. Linda complains about the other preparations she says she has to make for them and their two children but says she will have time to take the car to the garage, and agrees to do so. Later on the trip, Steve hears the "pinging" noise and realizes the spark plugs have not been changed. It turns out that Linda took the car to the garage but did not bother to mention the spark plugs. Linda says that if Steve doesn't like the way she does things he can do them himself. Steve points out that he was unable to take the car to the garage and that when she agrees to do something she should do it.

11. When Charlotte and Richard were living with Charlotte's family, a lot of ill will developed between Richard and his in-laws. Charlotte told her parents just about everything that happened, and when Richard told her to stop, his mother-in-law said she was hurt and told Charlotte to keep Richard in his place. Richard and Charlotte now have their own home, but the situation continues. Richard will rarely visit his in-laws, but whenever he is not around Charlotte is on the phone with her mother, passing on information and receiving advice. When Richard tells Charlotte again that she should stop telling things to her mother, Charlotte becomes enraged.

12. Each night Larry promises Judy that he will throw the garbage out after they finish dinner. Invariably, Larry forgets and leaves the kitchen without doing what he has promised. Judy has felt that the best thing to do is to throw the garbage away by herself and has been doing this later in the evening. When he notices this, Larry becomes angry with Judy, stating that this is his job. As Larry continues to follow his old habits, Judy begins to do the chore herself, only to be angrily criticized by her husband.

13. At parties that Bob and Nancy attend, Nancy spends most of her time with the men present and obviously enjoys being with them. Bob is very concerned and has tried to tell Nancy that her behavior is interpreted as flirtatious and could lead to a romantic involvement with another man. Nancy denies this, but Bob knows from his own experience that this type of thing does frequently happen and feels that she is being inconsiderate of his feelings by not giving up this behavior.

14. When Jerry comes home from work in the evening he is tired and likes to relax over a pleasant meal. After dinner he prefers to be alone with his wife. However, Betty does not understand Jerry's unwillingness to go out after a hard day's work, and she is after him to go out partying in the evenings. She tells Jerry he is a lazy do-nothing.

15. Dick and Diane have been married for three years. Dick likes his job and is anxious to get ahead. For the past year he has been voluntarily spending a great deal of extra time at his work. Diane has repeatedly accused Dick of caring more about his job than he cares for her. Dick explains that his career is important to both of them and that it is necessary for him to work additional hours if he expects to get promoted. Diane refuses to listen to Dick's explanations and unreasonably demands that he substantially cut down his hours of over-time work.

16. Tom is very concerned about his wife's smoking habits. Betty is a very heavy smoker and has a severe cough. Although Tom used to be a heavy smoker himself, he has now quit completely, so he is convinced that Betty could at least cut down. He has told her in detail about the health hazards involved in smoking and he has asked her to stop or at least cut down, if not for herself then because of her love for him. Betty's usual reaction has been to get sarcastic. She says she is trying but doesn't change. As a result there has been a series of arguments.

17. Chuck is a football fan who likes to watch the pro games on Sunday afternoons. His wife Betty is upset at this, so she plans a series of activities for them together on Sundays and tells him he will have to give up the football games. Chuck feels that this is an unreasonable demand. He points out that he works all week and should be entitled to a couple of hours of relaxation watching TV on Sunday. He reminds her that she watches many hours of soap operas during the week when he is at work. Chuck also reminds Betty that the other wives they know do not get so upset just because their husbands watch football. Betty, however, continues to be annoyed and insists that he stop watching games.

18. John has been out of college for three years and is able to provide a modest but adequate income for himself and his wife, Jean. They have been planning a vacation, which Jean has been enthusiastically anticipating. John has always been a stereo enthusiast and presently feels that he wants to improve his stereo by buying new speakers. If John proceeds with his plan, the vacation they have planned would be impossible. John states that he is the bread-winner in the family and deserves a luxury. He insists that as the man in the family, he should make the decision.

Wives' Form

1. Bob and Frank are good friends. Janis, Bob's wife, likes Frank but is becoming increasingly annoyed with his unannounced and excessively long visits to their apartment, usually at mealtimes. She has suggested to Bob that he ask Frank to please phone before visiting, but her husband feels this would be insulting to his friend. Janis suggests that she might ask Frank to please phone before visiting, but this only makes her husband angry. After accusing his wife of interfering with his friendship, he refuses to discuss the matter further.

2. Cora doesn't really enjoy sexual relations. When she was first married she would avoid love making by telling her husband it was painful. More recently she has pretended to be tired when her husband has approached her. Now she has resorted to retiring earlier than her husband. Cora believes sex is an unpleasant subject that one does not discuss unless absolutely necessary, and she becomes furious when Jack insists they should talk about this problem.

3. When Don finally arrives home from work he immediately sits down and makes himself comfortable with a can of beer and scatters his jacket, tie and shoes on the furniture and/or floor, where they stay until some time after dinner. After putting up with this sloppiness for a while, Francine asks Don to stop tossing his clothes around the apartment, even if he does eventually pick them up. Two days later, Don repeats his usual performance as if Francine had said nothing. When she mentions it again, an argument develops.

4. Nina has been shopping around carefully for some time to find a pair of shoes she can afford that will go with her favorite dress. She finally finds a satisfactory pair of shoes and is happy to discover that they are on sale. She purchases the shoes and takes them home to show her husband, Peter. He does not care whether or not the shoes are satisfactory. He doubts that they are necessary at all and fails to understand their importance to her or how much trouble she has gone to in order to save money.

5. Mark and Elaine have both been working since their marriage in order to live at a level which they feel to be comfortable. Occasionally, Elaine becomes depressed because she wants to have a child but knows that on Mark's salary alone this would be extremely difficult. Elaine's emotions get the best of her, and she accuses Mark of not being aggressive enough, implying that he is an inadequate provider. Mark was advised not to go to college because of scholastic difficulties and has done as well as could reasonably be expected, but his wife continually compares him unfavorably to his college-educated friends. Mark's self esteem is injured and an argument begins.

6. A conflict has arisen between Jack and Colleen following a party with friends. During the party, Jack becomes involved with another woman and ignores his wife. Colleen feels hurt and attempts to discuss her feelings of being neglected but feels like she is not understood.

7. Betty and Phil have been having marital difficulties for the past year. Betty is no longer reassured by having her husband minimize her unhappiness and wants to seek professional counseling. Phil, on the other hand, insists on holding off indefinitely before spending money on counseling. He says she is far too extravagant. In the weeks to come, many arguments arise because of their differing opinions.

8. Jim routinely arrives home from work at 5:00 PM and enjoys his dinner soon after his arrival. Susan has been a full-time housewife since the birth of their first child one year ago but still leaves her domestic chores undone. Jim has asked Susan if she would have the house clean and dinner prepared when he returns home. Upon arriving home, Jim again finds the ironing board with a pile of clothes in the living room, a dining table that has not been set, and his wife sitting on the sofa reading a magazine. Upon viewing the situation Jim appears discouraged, whereupon Susan accuses him of always finding fault with her and angrily storms into the kitchen.

9. It's Friday evening, and the Carter family has a dinner engagement, which had been made the previous week. Frank surprises his wife by getting home from work a half hour early and uses the bathroom continuously until it is almost time to leave. Since it takes Mary more than the few minutes Frank has left her to wash, comb her hair, and put on her makeup, it becomes obvious that they will be late for their appointment. Frank raises his voice and accuses her of always making them late. Mary tries to calm Frank down by saying that being a little late is not all that serious, but Frank just becomes more enraged and an argument develops.

10. Linda and Steve plan to take a weekend trip by car. While Linda is driving Steve to work on Friday morning, Steve decides that the spark plugs need changing and that other minor adjustments should be made. He tells his wife to get the work done in time for them to leave that evening. Linda also has all the other preparations to manage for them and their two children but she manages to get the car to the garage and asks for a tuneup. On the trip, Steve hears a "pinging" noise, discovers that the spark plugs are the same ones he had been using, and blames his wife for the spark plugs not being changed. Linda feels that if he is going to be so picky about how things are going to be done, he should assume some responsibility for doing them himself. Steve tells her he was too busy.

11. When Charlotte and Richard were living with Charlotte's family, a lot of ill will developed between Richard and his in-laws. Richard told his wife to stop talking so much with members of her family. When Charlotte's mother found out how Richard felt, she was hurt and said she thought Richard was out of place to make such a demand. Richard and Charlotte now have their own home but the situation continues. Richard will rarely visit his inlaws, so Charlotte's only regular contact with them is by phone. Charlotte usually speaks only to her mother and only phones her mother when her husband is not around, but Richard is still not satisfied. Richard insists that Charlotte stop speaking with her mother.

12. Each night Larry promises Judy that he will throw the garbage out after they finish dinner. Invariably, Larry forgets and leaves the kitchen without doing what he has promised. Judy has felt that the best thing to do is to throw the garbage away by herself and has been doing this later in the evening. When he notices this, Larry becomes angry with Judy, stating that this is his job. As Larry continues to follow his old habits, Judy begins to do the chore herself, only to be angrily criticized by her husband.

13. At parties Nancy prefers the company of men to the other women and spends much of the evening with them because she finds them intellectually stimulating and shares many of their interest. Nancy finds at parties that the women's conversations are limited to housekeeping, children, etc. Nancy is upset by Bob's accusations that her behavior may lead to involvement in an affair or, at the very least, misinterpretation of her behavior by other people, which would cause gossip. She is deeply hurt by his lack of trust since she is a devoted wife and would not consider an involvement with another man.

14. Jerry regularly comes home from work, eats, and sits down in front of the television screen for the entire evening. Betty is cooped up in the house all day and feels that she will go crazy if she can't get out and have some sort of contact with other human beings. Jerry refuses to go out and so there is a disagreement between Betty and Jerry.

15. Dick and Diane have been married for three years. Dick likes his job and is anxious to get ahead. For the past year he has been voluntarily spending a great deal of time at his work. Diane feels that their marital relationship is deteriorating due to the lack of time they are able to spend together. She attempts to explain to Dick that financial success will be meaningless if their marriage is destroyed in the process. Dick cooly tells his wife that her response is so immature that it is pointless to discuss the subject further.

16. Tom claims to be worried about Betty's health because she smokes so much and has a cough. He gives her endless detailed lectures about health hazards and is always demanding that she stop or cut down. Betty realizes that she smokes too much and is trying to cut down, but Tom's continued badgering is no help. Tom apparently feels that because he stopped smoking without any difficulty, everybody else should quit too and should have no trouble doing so. He seems unable to understand that it is difficult for her to change her smoking habits and he says that if she really loved him she would quit. Betty has tried to control herself and not get angry at Tom's continuous comments, but Tom goes right on lecturing to her and eventually there are a series of arguments.

17. Chuck is an ardent sport fan who spends every Sunday afternoon glued to the television screen watching football. His wife Betty is getting tired of being left by herself every Sunday, so she asks him to give up this part of his football watching and plans some Sunday activities for them together. Chuck not only refuses to give up any football, but he launches into a whole series of arguments to defend himself. He tells Betty that no one else's wife is as unreasonable as she is. He accuses her of spending her time watching soap operas while he is at work. He also tells her that since he works hard he should be able to watch football games if he wishes. Betty is upset by his attitude but continues to want him to spend Sunday with her.

18. John has been out of college for three years and is able to provide a modest but adequate income for himself and his wife, Jean. They have been planning a vacation, which Jean has been enthusiastically anticipating. John has always been a stereo enthusiast and presently feels that he wants to improve his stereo by buying new speakers. If John proceeds with his plan, the vacation they have planned would be impossible. John states that he is the bread-winner in the family and deserves a luxury. He insists that as the man in the family, he should make the decision.

Appendix D

INVENTORY OF MARITAL CONFLICT (IMC)
ANSWER SHEET

INSTRUCTIONS: It is very important that for EACH case you decide which spouse, either the husband or wife, is primarily responsible for the problem. You should make ONE response for both PART A and PART B. *Do not leave any questions unanswered.* Complete each case before going on to the next ite

Case	PART A: Who is primarily responsible for the problem? Check One: Husband	PART A: Wife	PART B: Which of the following would be a better way to to resolve the conflict? Check Only One
1. Conflict over frequent visits by husband's friend and wife's annoyance.			☐ Should Bob ask Frank to phone before visiting? OR ☐ Should Janis stop interfering in her husband's friendship?
2. Conflict regarding satisfaction during sexual relations.			☐ Is Cora being reasonable in refusing to discuss the problem of sex? OR ☐ Is Jack justified in suggesting they discuss the problem of sex?
3. Conflict concerning husband's distributing his shirt, tie, jacket and shoes around the apartment when he gets home from work.			☐ Should Don be able to relax this way before dinner? OR ☐ Should Don be more considerate of Francine by not scattering his clothes around?
4. Conflict about wife's purchase of a pair of shoes to wear with new dress.			☐ Is it reasonable for Peter to question the necessity of Nina's purchase? OR ☐ Should Peter try to understand Nina's well-planned purchase of these particular shoes?
5. Conflict between Mark and Elaine stemming from their desire to have a child but recognizing the financial burden.			☐ Is Elaine justified in accusing Mark of being an inadequate provider? OR ☐ Should Elaine be more understanding concerning Mark's ability and achievements?
6. Conflict caused by wife feeling ignored by husband while at a party.			☐ Should Jack be permitted to talk to another woman at a party without Colleen becoming upset? OR ☐ Should Jack be more attentive to his wife at parties?
7. Conflict over when to seek professional help for the marital difficulties between Betty and Phil.			☐ Is Phil justified in worrying about starting counseling without being able to afford it? OR ☐ Is Betty justified in feeling that their marriage is more important than any financial considerations?
8. Conflict concerning wife's inability to have house clean and dinner ready upon husband's arrival.			☐ Should Susan be reading a magazine when her household duties are not completed and dinner is not prepared? OR ☐ Should Susan try to be a better housekeeper?
9. Conflict over wife's lateness for dinner engagement.			☐ Should Mary make a greater effort to be ready on time? OR ☐ Should Frank have a greater understanding of why she i late?
10. Conflict over car breakdown while taking a short weekend trip.			☐ Should Linda thoroughly carry out her responsibilities once she has accepted them? OR ☐ Is Steve being unreasonable in blaming his wife for the work not getting done?

Case	PART A: Who is primarily responsible for the problem? Check One: Husband	PART A: Who is primarily responsible for the problem? Check One: Wife	PART B: Which of the following would be a better way to resolve the conflict? Check Only One
11. Conflict over wife's conversations with her mother.			☐ Is Richard justified in becoming upset with Charlotte discussing matters with her mother? OR ☐ Should Charlotte be able to speak freely with her mother?
12. Conflict about the responsibility for throwing the garbage away.			☐ Is Larry neglecting his responsibility by not carrying out the garbage? OR ☐ Is Judy expecting too much by asking her husband to carry out the garbage?
13. Conflict over wife's conversations with men at parties.			☐ Should Nancy realize that her behavior can be interpreted by other men as flirtatious and could unintentionally lead to further involvements OR ☐ Should Bob trust his wife and not be upset that she is enjoying the company of other men?
14. Conflict regarding evening entertainment.			☐ After working hard all day should Jerry be allowed to spend a quiet evening at home with his wife? OR ☐ Should Jerry understand and respond to Betty's boredom by going out in the evening?
15. Conflict over husband spending time at the office.			☐ Should Dick continue to devote the time that he knows is necessary to obtain advancement in his career? OR ☐ Should Dick spend more time with his wife?
16. Conflict over wife's smoking.			☐ Should Tom feel he has the right to concern himself with his wife's health? OR ☐ Should Tom leave Betty alone and quit pressuring her?
17. Conflict over TV football games.			☐ Should Chuck be able to watch football on Sunday afternoons? OR ☐ Should Chuck spend more time on Sundays with his wife?
18. Conflict of vacation vs. stereo speakers.			☐ Is it John's prerogative to decide how the family money will be spent? OR ☐ Should financial expenditures be a joint decision?

PLEASE TAKE A MINUTE TO RECHECK YOUR ANSWERS ON EACH QUESTION.
YOU SHOULD HAVE ONE CHECK FOR PART A AND ONE CHECK FOR PART B.

Appendix E

IMC OPINIONATED STRUGGLE CODES

Partisan Opinions

This refers only to statements that define or defend one's own position regarding the item or topic being discussed. It is usually implicitly or explicitly preceded by a comment such as "I think" or "I believe." The difference between a statement being coded as opinion or information is that in the latter there is little personal commitment. Most agreement statements are never coded as partisan, but as general opinion.

Example:
I think the parents should never hit their child.

Relevancy Opinions

These are opinions that relate the problem or issue to their own personal experience. It could involve referring to how it relates to themselves, their friends, or relatives.

Examples:
I am really glad that our in-laws live four hundred miles away.
You should not have started work when Mary was so young.
You should be able to wait differ until I get home.

Reiteration

This category is used only after a person has actually stated their opinion or choice on a given issue. Reiteration can be double coded if they also elaborate another reason why they feel they are right, i.e. partisan opinion. Reiteration is used anytime they restate or repeat their position before, but not after, a decision is made on that item. Can be implicit or explicit.

Examples:
I still think that the husband is responsible.
I must still say that the wife is wrong.
Mothers have to be loving.

Outcome Disagreements

This category describes the initial disagreement between the couple in regard to which alternative decision to make on a given item. It is, therefore, only used once per issue, and occurs after one person has disclosed their position on the topic. It is important to know the two alternative choices for each item in order to properly code this category.

Examples:
W - "I put the first choice (a) " Self disclosure (31)
H - "I disagree, I think (b) " Outcome disagreement (61)

No, I think they should let the baby cry.

IMC OPINIONATED STRUGGLE FACTOR:

COMPONENT CODES AND CODE RELIABILITIES

	Factor Loading[2]	Average Frequencies			Inter-rater Reliability[1]		
		IMC[2]	IPPC[3]	Present Study[4]	IMC[2]	IPCC[3]	Present Study
H Partisan Opinion	79	19	19	15			
W Partisan Opinion	81	20	20	17	89	79	79
H Relevance[5]	60	9	11	2			
W Relevance[5]	58	11	15	2	95	71	71
H Reiteration	53	2	4	3			
W Reiteration	48	2	3	1	68	63	63
H Disagreement[6]	42	4	5	3			
W Disagreement[6]	44	4	7	4	84	89	96

[1]Average of reliability for husband and wife codes combined, decimals omitted.

[2]Based on analysis of 404 couples who took the Inventory of Marital Conflicts (IMC) (Olson & Ryder, 1975) (n = 18 items discussed per couple).

[3]Based on analysis of 100 couples who took the Inventory of Parent-Child Conflict (IPCC) (Olson & Ryder, 1975) (n = 14 items discussed per couple).

[4]Based on 10 couples, randomly sampled from the 100 couples of the present study (n = 18 items discussed per couple).

[5]Relevance is the sum of Information Relevance plus Opinion Relevance.

[6]Disagreement is the sum of Outcome Disagreement plus Process Disagreement.

Appendix F

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE DAVIS INFLUENCE SCALE

In any two-person relationship there is always a certain amount of mutual influence occurring. Over time within a relationship, each partner affects the other's behavior and/or thinking. This questionnaire is part of a research project attempting to determine what means are used by people to influence others. I would like you to think about how you influence your spouse as you go about answering this series of questions.

Some of the statements in this questionnaire may cause you to immediately respond with "that type of influence is never used by either of us!" But before jumping to this conclusion, please think about each statement very carefully. Even though nobody enters a relationship consciously thinking about how they are going to get their partner to do things for them, this influence does occur. It is <u>that</u> process I am asking you to consider.

As you can see in the example below, after each statement there will be a series of numbers ranging from 0 to 6, with 0 labelled "Not at all true" and 6 labelled " Absolutely true." Circle that number which best reflects how true that statement is for you.

Example

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she likes the way I sing.

Not at all true Absolutely true

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

<u>Note 1</u>. The subscale to which each item belongs is denoted by the initial following each item. (A) refers to the Attractiveness Subscale, (C) to the Credibility subscale, and (M) to the Means Control subscale. These initials were not present on the forms given to subjects.

<u>Note 2</u>. The actual forms given to subjects were printed with only the relevant form of the possessive pronouns, not both.

TOTAL INFLUENCE SCALE

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I often give gifts to him/her. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I stop sharing my money with him/her. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I care about my partner as a person. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she knows he/she might want my cooperation sometime in the future. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I am always doing things for him/her. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she is my partner. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I can appeal to his/her values or morality. (C)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because we are alike and therefore hold each other in esteem. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Absolutely true

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I own things which he/she enjoys using. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because our relationship has been satisfying in the past. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she knows I am quite knowledgeable. (C)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because of my ability to give clear instructions when asking him/her to do something. (C)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I can persuade him/her with logical arguments and reasoning. (C)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I can explain to him/her why it would be the right thing for him/her to do. (C)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I have a lot of money. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 Absolutely true 6 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she trusts what I tell him/her. (C)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 Absolutely true 6 7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I help him/her with his/her work. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she believes I am a fine person. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she likes me. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I earn a lot of money. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because we have a comfortable and satisfying sex life together. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because he/she wants to avoid my disapproval. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because only being with me can make him/her so happy. (A)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I would take things away from my partner were he/she to refuse. (M)

Not at all true
1 2 3 4 5 6 Absolutely true
7

REVISED SCALE ITEMS

Original	Revision
I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I help him/her with his/her schoolwork or other work.	I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I help him/her with his/her work.
I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I will potentially be able to earn a lot of money.	I am able to get my partner to do what I want him/her to do because I earn a lot of money.

Appendix G

Every family goes through different stages in its history. For example, a newly married couple has different concerns from a couple with young children, which in turn has different concerns from a couple whose children are adults. Because of these changes in families, each family member contributes differently and benefits differently from family life at different times. Although general judgment of how much someone contributes to or and benefits from family life is a difficult judgment to make, I would very much appreciate your trying to make this judgment about yourself and your spouse <u>at this time</u> in your family life.

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution to your marriage and family life. (Check one).

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe the benefits you receive and the benefits your spouse receives from your marriage and family life.

___ benefits much more than me
___ benefits somewhat more than me
___ benefits slightly more than me
___ benefits as much as me
___ benefits slightly less than me
___ benefits somewhat less than me
___ benefits much less than me

Now I would like you to assess the specific contributions made by yourself and your spouse at this time in your family life. As such judgments are difficult ones to make, I would appreciate your careful consideration of each of the following items.

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution as financial providers for your family. (Check one).

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe your own and your spouse's contributions toward the housekeeping in your family.

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution toward the physical care of your children.

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution towards teaching and disciplining your children.

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution toward organizing or starting your family's recreational activities.

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution toward understanding the problems and feelings of family members.

___ contributes much more than me
___ contributes somewhat more than me
___ contributes slightly more than me
___ contributes as much as me
___ contributes slightly less than me
___ contributes somewhat less than me
___ contributes much less than me

Describe your own and your spouse's contribution to keeping in touch with family friends and relatives.

____ contributes much more than me
____ contributes somewhat more than me
____ contributes slightly more than me
____ contributes as much as me
____ contributes slightly less than me
____ contributes somewhat less than me
____ contributes much less than me

Appendix H

Factor Analysis of Husbands' Responses to the Perceived Equity Scale

Factor Matrix Using Principal Factor With Iterations

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Financial	-.12495	-.29581
Housekeeping	.37410	.11640
Children: Physical Care	.69909	-.43904
Children: Socialization	.73279	-.53833
Recreation	.23931	.47572
Understanding	.63482	.27706
Social Contacts	.34264	.25160
General Contribution	.60731	.40336

Item	Communality
Financial	.39208
Housekeeping	.64083
Children: Physical Care	.78329
Children: Socialization	.87510
Recreation	.50926
Understanding	.68464
Social Contacts	.35320
General Contribution	.66129

Factor[a]	Eigenvalue	Percentage of Variance
1	2.12775	43.5
2	1.11268	22.7

[a]Factors with eigenvalues less than 1.000 are not listed.

Factor Analysis of Wives' Responses to the Perceived Equity Scale

Factor Matrix Using Principal Factor With Interations

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Financial	-.53703	.16138
Housekeeping	.11218	-.03621
Children: Physical Care	.87759	-.28027
Children: Socialization	.87504	-.27694
Recreation	.43628	.48107
Understanding	.30230	.55670
Social Contacts	.05118	.02455
General Contribution	.31919	.62534

Item	Communality
Financial	.44728
Housekeeping	.29229
Children: Physical Care	.87604
Children: Socialization	.87675
Recreation	.51576
Understanding	.49427
Social Contacts	.27570
General Contribution	.58040

Factor[a]	Eigenvalue	Percentage of Variance
1	2.22308	51.1
2	1.11561	25.6

[a]Factors with eigenvalues less than 1.000 are not listed.

Appendix I

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Perceived Equity Scale Items For Husbands

Theme of Item	Financial	House-keeping	Physical Care of Children	Socializ-ation of Children	Recreation	Under-standing	Social Contacts	General Contri-bution	Total Perceived Equity[a]
Financial	1.000	-.3033 (.001)	-.0229 (.411)	.0912 (.183)	-.1314 (.096)	-.0523 (.303)	-.1008 (.159)	-.0909 (.184)	.0636 (.265)
House-keeping		1.000	.2536 (.005)	.1120 (.134)	-.0848 (.201)	.0921 (.181)	.2045 (.021)	.2488 (.006)	.3839 (.001)
Physical Care of Children			1.000	.7054 (.001)	.0220 (.414)	.1989 (.024)	.1760 (.040)	.2202 (.014)	.2799 (.002)
Socializ-ation of Children				1.000	-.0410 (.343)	.3855 (.001)	.0834 (.205)	.2161 (.015)	.2519 (.006)
Recreation					1.000	.2533 (.005)	.2238 (.013)	.2962 (.001)	.5530 (.001)
Under-standing						1.000	.2326 (.010)	.5168 (.001)	.6663 (.001)
Social Contacts							1.000	.2204 (.014)	.5647 (.001)
General Contribution								1.000	.6606 (.001)
Total Perceived Equity[a]									1.000

Note: For all correlations $n = 100$, $df = 48$.

[a]Total perceived equity is the mean of the eight scale items.

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Perceived Equity Scale Items For Wives

Theme of Item	Financial	House-keeping	Physical Care of Children	Socializ-ation of Children	Recreation	Under-standing	Social Contacts	General Contri-bution	Total Perceived Equity[a]
Financial	1.000	-.1368 (.087)	-.4722 (.001)	-.4620 (.001)	-.1843 (.033)	-.0454 (.327)	-.0974 (.167)	-.0654 (.259)	.0300 (.384)
House-keeping		1.000	.0490 (.314)	.0907 (.185)	.0266 (.396)	.1139 (.130)	-.0546 (.295)	-.0700 (.244)	.4989 (.001)
Physical Care of Children			1.000	.8539 (.001)	.2423 (.008)	.1066 (.146)	.0392 (.349)	.1126 (.132)	.2467 (.007)
Socializ-ation of Children				1.000	.2167 (.015)	.1245 (.109)	-.0326 (.374)	.1251 (.107)	.2424 (.008)
Recreation					1.000	.3579 (.001)	.1538 (.063)	.3907 (.001)	.6084 (.001)
Under-standing						1.000	-.0151 (.441)	.4000 (.001)	.6318 (.001)
Social Contacts							1.000	-.0467 (.322)	.3172 (.001)
General Contribution								1.000	.3872 (.001)
Total Perceived Equity[a]									1.000

Note: For all correlations $n = 100$, $df = 48$.

[a]Total perceived equity is the mean of the eight scale items.

Appendix J

ROLE MEASURE OF CONJUGAL POWER

1. If there is a disagreement concerning the teaching and disciplining of your children, who makes the final decision?

   1 husband always
   2 husband more often than wife
   3 husband and wife exactly the same
   4 wife more often than husband
   5 wife always
   6 absolutely no disagreement

2. If there is a disagreement concerning the physical care of your children who makes the final decision?

   1 husband always
   2 husband more often than wife
   3 husband and wife exactly the same
   4 wife more often than husband
   5 wife always
   6 absolutely no disagreement

3. If there is a disagreement on matters concerning your occupations, who makes the final decision?

   about your occupation

   1 husband always
   2 husband more than the wife
   3 husband and wife exactly the same
   4 wife more than husband
   5 wife always
   6 absolutely no disagreement

   about your wife's occupation

   1 husband always
   2 husband more than the wife
   3 husband and wife exactly the same
   4 wife more than husband
   5 wife always
   6 absolutely no disagreement

4. If there is a disagreement concerning housekeeping, who makes the final decision?

   1 husband always
   2 husband more than wife
   3 husband and wife exactly the same
   4 wife more than husband
   5 wife always
   6 absolutely no disagreement

5. If there is a disagreement concerning your relatives, who makes the final decision?

1 husband always
2 husband more often than wife
3 husband and wife exactly the same
4 wife more often than husband
5 wife always
6 absolutely no disagreement

6. If there is a disagreement concerning recreation, who makes the final decision?

1 husband always
2 husband more often than wife
3 husband and wife exactly the same
4 wife more often than husband
5 wife always
6 absolutely no disagreement on this role

Appendix K

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS

On the next page you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characterisitcs are. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Example: sly

Mark a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.
Mark a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.
Mark a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sl
Mark a 4 if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.
Mark a 5 if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.
Mark a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.
Mark a 7 if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly", never or almost never true that you are "malicious", always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible", and often true that you are "carefree", then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3
Malicious	1

Irresponsible	7
Carefree	5

DESCRIBE YOURSELF

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE	USUALLY NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE	OCCASIONALLY TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	USUALLY TRUE	ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE

Self-reliant	
Yielding	
Helpful	
Defend own beliefs	
Cheerful	
Moody	
Independent	
Shy	
Conscientious	
Athletic	
Affectionate	
Theatrical	
Assertive	
Flatterable	
Happy	
Strong personality	
Loyal	
Unpredictable	
Forceful	
Feminine	

Reliable	
Analytical	
Sympathetic	
Jealous	
Have leadership abilities	
Sensitive to the needs of others	
Truthful	
Willing to take risks	
Understanding	
Secretive	
Make decisions easily	
Compassionate	
Sincere	
Self-sufficient	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
Conceited	
Dominant	
Soft-spoken	
Likable	
Masculine	

Warm	
Solemn	
Willing to take a stand	
Tender	
Friendly	
Aggressive	
Gullible	
Inefficient	
Act as a leader	
Childlike	
Adaptable	
Individualistic	
Do not use harsh language	
Unsystematic	
Competitive	
Love children	
Tactful	
Ambitious	
Gentle	
Conventional	

Appendix L

Canonical Correlation Analysis for

Dual Career Couples

Canonical Variate	Eigenvalue[a]	Canonical Correlation	df	p
1	.17880	.42284	16	.027
2	.06163	.24826	9	.351
3	.03229	.17970	4	.409
4	.00921	.09595	1	.350

Canonical Variate Coefficients In

First (Significant) Canonical Variate

Co-efficients for Canonical Variables of the First Set:

Gender of spouse	-.76792
Masculinity	-.94318
Femininity	.13478
Perceived equity	-.02886

Co-efficients for Canonical Variables of the Second Set:

Means Control	.07694
Credibility	-.85267
Perceived Power	-.24665
Influence Attempts	.45495

[a]Proportion of variance accounted for.

Canonical Correlation Analysis for

Single Career Couples

Canonical Variate	Eigenvalue[a]	Canonical Correlation	df	p
1	.10965	.33113	16	.237
2	.04899	.22133	9	.469
3	.03528	.18782	4	.418
4	.00549	.07407	1	.471

Appendix M

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables For Dual Career Husbands

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	.1303 (.184)	.3347 (.009)	.1570 (.138)	-.1237 (.196)	-.0003 (.499)	.1553 (.141)
Masculinity		1.00	.1066 (.231)	-.2293 (.055)	.0833 (.283)	.0033 (.491)	.2000 (.082)
Femininity			1.00	.0200 (.445)	.0193 (.447)	-.2242 (.059)	.0589 (.342)
Influence attempts				1.00	-.0844 (.280)	.2028 (.079)	.1439 (.159)
Perceived power					1.00	.1992 (.083)	.0663 (.324)
Means control						1.00	.3289 (.010)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations $n = 50$, $df = 48$.

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables For Single Career Husbands

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	-.0836 (.282)	.1215 (.200)	-.0562 (.349)	-.3624 (.005)	.0884 (.271)	-.0325 (.411)
Masculinity		1.00	.1738 (.114)	-.0298 (.419)	-.0919 (.263)	.0713 (.311)	.2392 (.047)
Femininity			1.00	.1001 (.245)	-.0600 (.340)	-.0730 (.307)	.0717 (.310)
Influence attempts				1.00	.1871 (.097)	.2089 (.073)	-.0913 (.264)
Perceived power					1.00	-.0294 (.420)	-.3743 (.004)
Means control						1.00	.3064 (.015)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations $n = 50$, $df = 48$.

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables For Dual Career Wives

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	.2139 (.068)	.0030 (.492)	.0291 (.420)	.2222 (.060)	.3289 (.010)	.1377 (.170)
Masculinity		1.00	.2114 (.070)	-.1393 (.167)	.1198 (.204)	.0798 (.291)	.4494 (.001)
Femininity			1.00	.1013 (.242)	-.0122 (.467)	-.0365 (.401)	-.0039 (.489)
Influence attempts				1.00	.1026 (.239)	.1669 (.123)	.0031 (.492)
Perceived power					1.00	.2720 (.028)	.3499 (.006)
Means control						1.00	.1538 (.143)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations $n = 50$, $df = 48$.

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Among Dependent Variables For Single Career Wives

	Equity	Masculinity	Femininity	Influence attempts	Perceived power	Means control	Credibility
Equity	1.00	.0562 (.349)	.0524 (.359)	.0025 (.493)	.1920 (.091)	-.1424 (.162)	-.0440 (.381)
Masculinity		1.00	.1316 (.181)	.0946 (.257)	.2258 (.057)	-.0125 (.466)	.2668 (.031)
Femininity			1.00	.1753 (.112)	-.1325 (.179)	-.0614 (.336)	.1393 (.167)
Influence attempts				1.00	-.0475 (.179)	.1249 (.194)	.1110 (.221)
Perceived power					1.00	.3209 (.012)	.2091 (.073)
Means control						1.00	.2345 (.051)
Credibility							1.00

Note. For all correlations $n = 50$, $df = 48$.

Appendix N

Mean Scores on Perceived Equity Scale Items For Dual and Single Career Husbands and Wives

	Dual Career Husbands	Dual Career Wives	Single Career Husbands	Single Career Wives
1. financial provider	4.40	3.26	6.72	1.04
2. housekeeping/ household maintenance	2.66	4.58	1.60	5.40
3. physical care of children	1.30	3.00	1.64	5.52
4. teaching/ disciplining children	2.04	2.48	2.80	4.70
5. recreational activities	3.48	4.02	3.26	4.32
6. problems & feelings	3.42	4.24	3.26	4.30
7. friends & relatives	2.88	4.78	2.46	4.66
8. general contribution	3.34	4.00	3.24	4.04
MEAN SCORE	3.26	4.22	3.14	4.26

Note. Means are based on $n = 50$, $df = 48$.