To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Ellen Rachael Jacobs entitled "Sex Roles and Interpersonal Behavior in Marriage." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

Kenneth R. Newton, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the council:

Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

SEX ROLES AND INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR IN MARRIAGE

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

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Ellen Rachael Jacobs

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether interpersonal behavior in the marital relationship is related to the degree of sex-role typing that characterizes behavior in other context. A group of subjects married 2-5 years was compared with a group married 20+ years in order to assess the additional effects that the length of such a commitment (marriage) might have on behavior.

Each subject's sex-role category was based on responses to a bi-polar assessment of masculine and feminine characteristics. With this method, a separate score is obtained for each subject's level of masculine-typed characteristics (the instrumental, assertive domain) and feminine-typed characteristics (the expressive, receptive domain). The degree to which the subject (male or female) behaves in each domain then determines the sex-role category: masculine-typed, feminine-typed, androgynous, or undifferentiated.

Using a checklist of interpersonal variables, subjects indicated how they behave toward their spouses. These variables, which provide measures of power and affiliation, are related respectively to masculinity and femininity. Together they account for the full range of interpersonal behaviors: from dominance through submission (power) and from affection through hostility (affiliation).

The major finding of the study was that most subjects did not see themselves as bound in the marital relationship by the limits of the sex-role characteristics they reported in the other context of their lives. Marriage does provide a context for a different interpersonal experience and theoretically, a broader self-definition.

The specific findings indicate that this flexibility generally seems to be more related to the affiliation dimension than the power dimension, so that the frequency of masculine-typed behaviors is more consistent across relationships than feminine-typed behaviors. This pattern seems to reverse itself with increased length of marriage, however, which suggest changes in the importance and/or usefulness attributed to each dimension.

The system of sex-role classification may include too wide a range of behaviors in each group to assume within group similarities, and it is also criticized for the probability of errors in categorizing. However, it is a vast improvement over traditional measures of masculinity and femininty, and consequently deserve, further attention.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> The point should be made, however, that whatever the gratifications achieved in dyads, however lofty or fine the motives satisfied may be, the relationship may be viewed as a trading or bargaining one . . . every individual voluntarily enters and stays in any relationship only as long as it is adequately satisfactory in terms of his rewards and costs.
>
> (J. W. Thibaut and H. H. Kelley, 1959)

Human beings are affiliative. We group and regroup throughout a lifetime seeking various kinds of relationships. That we eventually look for mates is universally recognized, and the "primary" heterosexual relationship underscores the Western concept of family as we know it. Historically, economic concerns as well as familial and religious sanctions precluded the degree of questioning that presently threatens many marital relationships. Psychotherapists' offices are filled with disappointed, frustrated couples. The divorce and separation rates continue to rise as the individuals involved fail to resolve their questions and differences.

The notion of "bargaining" described by Thibaut and Kelley, while perhaps always a covert presence within a relationship, is a dominant feature in the attempts at conflict resolution we hear about today. Even the language system reflects a more businesslike approach to relationships. More and more couples "negotiate" their terms, many electing to formalize written "contracts" prior to or even instead of a more traditional marriage.

The need for warm intimate relationships has been amply discussed by numerous theoreticians and clinicians (Fromm-Reichmann, 1964; Fromm, 1956; Sullivan, 1953; Erikson, 1950; Horney, 1945). However, the specific dynamics of intimacy did not, in the past, receive as much systematic attention from researchers (Harlow, 1958; Oden, 1974). Perhaps there has been a reluctance on the part of scientists to quantify and measure what we call "love" for fear of destroying the illusions and romantic ideals common to all.

> Love is too ambiguous; we recognize this in our most intense relationships when we become aware of the mystery that always surrounds its meaning. But we cherish it for its very ambiguity, which allows us to say anything we want.
>
> (Nancy Friday
> My Mother/My Self)

More recently, behavioral scientists have been exploring this phenomenon. Since a marriage contract is a formal statement that a relationship does exist, those dyads provide good subjects for research. Blanck & Blanck (1968) discuss the relationship of individual development to marriage, for example, and there have been several attempts to understand the dynamics of mate selection (Byrne, 1971; Winch & Goodman, 1968). Swensen recently developed a Love Scale and a Marriage Problems scale, which have generated some research in the area of conflict resolution and satisfaction in marriage. However, the differences between an intimate relationship that "works" (that is, endures in a mutually satisfying way) and one that does not, have not been adequately demonstrated. Success and satisfaction are highly individualized judgements, and therefore

difficult to measure. However, cynicism notwithstanding, our culture maintains a certain respect and admiration for the couple celebrating their 20th or 25th (and upwards) wedding anniversary. A couple's ability to both fulfill a commitment to child-rearing and make the transition to being alone again draws special distinction.

The nature of a relationship is determined by the continuing interactions between the individuals. Many questions come to mind. What are the possibilities for behavioral expression between two people? What combinations of those will, in fact, "fit" closely enough to afford the individuals continuing satisfaction both with themselves and with each other? How, and under what conditions does the individual's range of interpersonal behaviors vary? Can the complex idea of "relationship" be measured in these terms?

Henry Stack Sullivan is generally credited with the earliest exploration of psychiatry in interpersonal, rather than individual, terms (1947). He defined personality as the "relatively enduring pattern of recurring interpersonal situations which characterize a human life." While he provided us with a wealth of theory and clinical case studies, Sullivan did not develop a methodology for measuring interpersonal behavior. Erik Erikson, however, did use his investigation of interpersonal relationships to create a system for classifying interpersonal behavior (1950). This system is rooted in the Freudian timetable of psychosexual adjustment. Erikson "socialized" the schema and identified eight sequential psychosocial

developmental stages, each based on the confrontation and resolution of a nuclear interpersonal conflict.

Timothy Leary (1957) drew heavily on the theories and clinical information Sullivan and Erikson offered. Leary and his associates then compiled extensive data on interpersonal behavior (see page 18). They concluded from their research that all interpersonal behavior can be characterized with respect to two orthogonal dimensions, power and affiliation. In other words, people basically behave (1) with regard to power, along a continuum from dominance to submission; and (2) with regard to affiliation, along a continuum from affection to hostility (see page 44). The interplay between the two dimensions, when quantified, creates a system of categorizing people according to their overall interpersonal styles.

These dimensions of interpersonal behavior (power and affiliation) are also reflected in the current revisions of the masculinity-femininity constructs (Bem, 1974, 1976; Berzins, 1974; Constantinople, 1974). As both men and women have been questioning and changing their traditional images and functions, so has psychology attended to the restrictive nature of sex role stereotyping. This area of research has generated a system of classifying people according to four sex role categories. These categories reflect various combinations of masculine (agentic) and feminine (expressive) traits, values and behaviors. Berzins, Welling and Wetter (1976) demonstrated that there is a generally "good fit" between the four sex role categories they delineate:

1. Masculine-typed: high in masculine, low in feminine
2. Feminine-typed: high in feminine, low in masculine
3. Androgynous: high in both feminine and masculine
4. Undifferentiated: low in both feminine and masculine;

and the four interpersonal styles Leary describes, which are respectively:

1. Hostile-Dominant
2. Friendly-Submissive
3. Friendly-Dominant
4. Hostile-Submissive.

These were measured by the Interpersonal Disposition Inventory (IDI) and the Interpersonal Check List (ICL). See Methods section.

Since the sex role categories are largely grounded in interpersonal behavior (Lipps, 1977; Wiggins & Holzmuller, 1978), Berzins' et al. findings generate new questions for research. As they avow: "due to its recency, the present sex-role framework has generated no explicit theoretical or research-based propositions regarding interpersonal compatibility in dyadic or group situations."

The author has responded to that gap by designing a study of interpersonal behavior that is based in the consideration of subjects according to their sex-role categories. It is expected that this attempt will be useful in the continuing evaluation of the sex-role framework as a viable approach to a more thorough understanding of the complex nature of interpersonal dynamics.

Statement of Purpose

One of the more complex theories regarding interpersonal behavior is that it reflects the individual's intrapsychic needs. According to Goffman (1959), the individual acts so that he intentionally or unintentionally expresses himself. Furthermore, interpersonal behavior is seen as purposive (Carson, 1969). It is designed (consciously or unconsciously) to "pull" from the other those behaviors with which the individual is most comfortable. We can speculate, then, that changes in behavior are expressions of the varied nature of the individual's needs. In the final analysis, each structured human interaction and the patterns people establish over time, are rooted in the intrapsychic processes of the individuals. It is pertinent to the present study that, specifically, marital dynamics are seen as a function of the psychodynamics of the marital participants (Romano, 1960). Further, the success of the marital relationship is dependent on potentially conflicting interests: the needs of the individuals and the needs of the relationship. How the individuals resolve both is an empirically open question.

This study is designed to investigate one aspect of this phenomenon: what people perceive to be the range of interpersonal behaviors they express toward others. For this purpose, "power" and "affiliation" are the dimensions regarded as embodying the full range of interpersonal behaviors. Measures of an individual's interpersonal behavior directed specifically toward the spouse are related to measures of that person's sex-role orientation. A

review of the sex-role literature suggests that an individual's sex role orientation will determine the nature of his/her interpersonal style, since the degree of masculinity or femininity is seen as limiting the individual's self expression. This study will provide information as to whether or not the individuals experience themselves as having such limits. In addition, since sex role orientation subsumes the interpersonal dimensions, each sex role category is also considered to reflect a public interpersonal presentation. This is compared with the more private expressions towards the spouse.

The author does not purport to measure the intensity of the relationships, depth of love, marital satisfaction or other related issues. These are obviously important and must be objects of future research. An assumption is being made, however, that it is still in the nature of the marital contract that the individuals have a commitment unique to that relationship. Further, it is assumed that a marital couple develops a closeness that is not shared with the rest of the world.

As stated earlier, one premise of the study is that interpersonal behavior is a reflection or expression of how the individual wants or needs to be responded to, that is, what he/she needs from others. According to Leary et al. (1957) the continuum of power-directed behaviors is reciprocal (i.e.: dominance "pulls" submission), and the continuum of affiliation-directed behaviors is complementary (i.e.: affection "pulls" affection). This premise has implications both for the discussion of the present data, and in terms of future research in the area of interpersonal dynamics.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Theoretical Need for Attachment

> One wintry day, a couple of chilled porcupines huddled together for warmth. They found that they pricked each other with their quills; they moved apart and were again cold. After much experimentation, the porcupines found the distance at which they gave each other some warmth without too much sting.
>
> (Schopenhaeur)

The Porcupine Dilemma (Bellak, 1970) vividly illustrates the problems people encounter with intimacy. How much closeness do we need? How attached can we get without interfering with each other and our own sense of well-being? How can we live together without hurting each other? How much are we willing to risk to get that closeness and warmth?

That we do take risks and attempt to get close is clear. That we need interpersonal intimacy has been observed, recorded and discussed by social and natural scientists, and psychotherapists of various disciplines. Freud, Adler, Sullivan and Horney are some of those who acknowledge a biological need for contact and tenderness, and the anxiety that is attendant on the possibility of its absence.

The longing for and seeking out of such relationships stays with every human being from infancy throughout life. Children seek intimacy first with adults and then later with chums (Erikson, 1950). Men and women feel the need for friendship and intimacy jointly with

or independently of the sexual drive (Sullivan, 1953). How we approach relationships as adults is determined by our childhood experiences. It is part of normal childhood experience to be loved, feel understood and found worthwhile, and it is through this experience that we come to value ourselves and feel secure. If you do not experience this as a child, your adult life is spent trying to attain it from other relationships. You seek externally what should already be within you (Bellak, 1970).

So powerful is the need for attachment that many theorists talk about the fear of separation as a definition of anxiety. Sullivan (1953), for example, states that anxiety arises out of the apprehension of the disapproval of significant others, and the possibility of being cut off from them. Adler believed that anxiety could be dissolved solely by "bonding," or attachment. Fromm (1955) wrote that our deepest need is to overcome separateness--to leave the prison of aloneness. The absolute failure to do this means insanity. The individual who is unable to overcome the feeling of separateness achieves something similar by making the world outside disappear. When the pain of aloneness is unbearable, this individual withdraws totally into his/her inner experience. By losing touch with the world outside, the conscious experience of longing is altered, if not obliterated entirely.

The felt need to overcome or avoid separateness from others depends on the degree of individuation and autonomy an individual has attained (Sullivan, 1953). If one still remains symbiotically attached to Mother, that is experienced as sufficient. This individual

will not, however, achieve other developmentally more advanced attachments. That most primitive attachment (to Mother), rooted in a holding-on to early narcissistic need fulfillments, will disrupt other aspects of psychic well-being (Freud, 1924). Separation from Mother is essential to the success of other relationships.

Bellak (1973) points out that

> two major aspects of object relations (that is, the way one relates to others, which is viewed in his system as a major ego function) are the ability to form friendly and loving bonds with others with a minimum of inappropriate hostility, and the ability to sustain relationships over a period of time with little mutual exchange of hostility. Disturbances in object relations are reflected in emotional coldness and detachment, inability to fall in love or sustain love, self-centeredness, helpless dependency on others, need to dominate others, and perversions.

Again, these disturbances are rooted in childhood experiences.

Desmond Morris (1971) graphically describes the emotional and physical components of intimacy and individuation.

> We are born into an intimate relationship of close bodily contact with our mothers. As we grow, we strike out into the world and explore, returning from time to time to the protection and security of the maternal embrace. At last we break free and stand alone in the adult world. Soon we start to seek a new bond and return again to a condition of intimacy with a lover who becomes a mate. Once again we have a secure base from which to continue our explorations. Between a pair of adult human lovers there develops a relationship like that between Mother and child. A total trust develops, and with it, a total bodily intimacy.

Theoretically and ideally, then, adult human lovers potentially have a secure base with each other. However, genuine intimacy is difficult to achieve, and there are great risks involved in the search for it. What is risky for each of us reflects the early

Parent-Child relationship, as well as the quality of those relationships that came later. All of those help determine how we see ourselves and how we approach others.

Each person brings to relations of genuine mutuality (or intimacy) a sense of his own meaningful, positively-valued identity (Wynne, 1960). This requires the ability to fuse your identity with someone else's without fear (or desire) that you're going to lose something (particularly yourself). You do not, as is the case with pseudo-intimacy (Wynne, 1960) become absorbed "in fitting together, at the expense of the differentiation of the identities of the persons in the relation." Each person must overcome dependency, narcissistic omnipotence, and the wish to exploit or hoard (Erikson, 1950). Further, he/she has to acquire faith in his/her own human powers and the courage to rely on these powers in the attainment of goals. To the degree that these qualities are lacking, one will be afraid of giving him/herself--hence of intimacy. In other words, to be genuinely intimate, a rather firm identity has to be at least in the making (Fromm, 1956). To quote Erikson again:

> Body and ego must now be masters of the organ modes and of the nuclear conflicts, in order to be able to face the fear of ego loss in situations which call for self-abandon: in the solidarity of close affiliations, in orgasms and sexual unions, in close friendships, and in physical combat, in experiences of inspiration by teachers and of intuition from the recesses of the self.

The ability to enter into relationships of intimacy and mutuality opens the way to experiences in which the self expands beyond its own limitations in depth of feeling, understanding and insight. As we develop, the urge to share ourselves and be known is

contiguous. Theoretically, the development of a complete identity cannot be obtained in the absence of intimacy. However, the search for intimacy is complicated. The vicissitudes of our life circumstances often present their own hazards, and certainly can unleash those internal conflicts that have not been fully resolved. The next section discusses some of the variables that contribute to this complex phenomenon.

Conditions Affecting Affiliative Behavior

In order to have a relationship, we first have to be able to communicate that wish to an other. However, the need and search for affiliation is frequently not easily apparent to the observer. The variety of ways in which we present ourselves to others depends on many variables in addition to the motivation to give and receive warmth, love, and a sense of belonging. Some of these conditions will facilitate, and others will inhibit the possibility that a new relationship can develop, or the opportunity for a satisfying interaction within a relationship that already exists. Since this study looks at how people experience themselves with others, it is important that we understand as much as we can about what contributes to that experience.

Role theory, although historically grounded in a social appraisal of a setting, provides us with a paradigm that can be expanded to incorporate the psychological conditions as well. Basically, role theory suggests that "people do present different self-attributes to meet the functional demands of various social

settings" (Gergen, 1965). Upon entering a situation, the person defines it on the basis of his perception of the significant elements. He then chooses the most appropriate self-identity or role (Heiss, 1968). What these significant elements are, as well as their relative weight and importance, varies with differing social conditions.

These self-identities or roles are designed to convey and/or maintain a particular impression. "When an individual appears in the presence of others, there will usually be some reason for him to mobilize his activity so that it will convey an impression to others which it is in his interests to convey" (Goffman, 1959). Goffman thoroughly addresses the notion of impression management, particularly as reflected in various social systems. He maintains that social formats become institutionalized, and with that, expectations and behaviors become fixed also. In other words, social conditions "pull" particular self-presentations.

The "pull" for particular self-presentations is further complicated by psychological conditions, both within and between individuals. How we perceive the elements of a social condition, including the behavior of the individuals involved, significantly influences the acquisition and maintenance of roles. The "reality" of the social conditions and the possibilities for interaction vary with the psychological status of the individual.

Our behavior towards others is partially determined by our evaluation of their behavior towards us. The attitudes and motives we attribute to others contribute heavily to how we approach a

particular individual. Attribution theory is an aspect of the Psychology of Perception that deals with this phenomenon, and can be stated as follows: "The perception and evaluation of an individual is a function of the personality of the perceiver and the social situation in which the perception takes place" (Shaver, 1975). The attribution process consists of three elements (Heider, 1958; Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1967):

1. Observation of the action (first hand or through intermediaries).
2. A judgement (by the perceiver) that the action was the product of an intention.
3. An inference (by the perceiver) of an underlying disposition (within the actor) to account for the presence of the intention.

There are a variety of different theories about the way we search for meaning in the behavior of others, or the inferences referred to, but there is general agreement that the process of attribution does occur, and in turn, influences the way we present ourselves and behave with others.

The literature on the perception of others has grown, and of course creates new areas for research. Gergen (1965) and Jones & Davis (1965) discuss the concept of "personalism" as it relates to the presentation of self. "Personalism" is defined as the extent to which an individual perceives himself to be the direct target of another's behavior, and as such acts accordingly. Anxiety (Schachter, 1959; Mann, 1971) and perceived threats to self-esteem (Miller &

Zimbardo, 1966), for example, tend to disrupt affiliative behaviors. Perceived attitude similarity, partially determined by the status of the other (Lipetz & Ossorio, 1967), has been shown to have a great impact on interpersonal attraction and consequent affiliative behavior (Byrne, 1971).

Interpersonal attraction alone will of course not always lead directly to affiliative behaviors. The perceived availability of the other is involved at this point, and the evaluation of interpersonal risk is an additional variable. French & Chadwick (1956) and Conners (1960) suggest that the expectancy of attainment determines behavior. Affiliative behavior is thus related to the anticipation that the behavior will lead to affiliative satisfaction (Atkinson, 1958).

The anxiety generated by the anticipation that satisfaction will not be attained can be quite powerful, and is related to the individual's sense of security and self-worth. Each individual needs to protect his/her self-esteem. The degree of success we achieve in this determines our evaluation of others, as well as our perception of their evaluation of us. This in turn helps determine our behavior towards them (Low & Goldstein, 1970).

The psychologically integrated person sees his environment (people) as generally warm and safe. This person is less easily threatened, and appears to have access to a more extensive repertory of responses. He/she is able to describe, for example, a larger number of differentiated interpersonal dimensions than the less integrated individual (Cartright, 1956; Seeman, 1963; Hearn & Seeman,

1971). These individuals will structure close, non-conflictual relationships. Moreover, they express affect easily, and talk about others in relational, rather than control concepts.

The next section provides a discussion of some of the dimensions of interpersonal behavior and the dynamics that contribute to the creation of a relationship.

Interpersonal Behavior and Compatibility

> A relationship represents more than the sum of the two personalities. A new level of organization creates new qualities. The psychological principles that govern the behavior of an individual and those that govern the behavior of a relationship are not the same.
>
> (Ackerman, 1958)

This new level of organization has been referred to and discussed by various theorists with a variety of labels for what is essentially the same phenomenon. Sullivan (1953) called it interpersonal integration or reciprocal emotion, such that:

1. Complementary needs (e.g., dominance and submission) are resolved, or aggrevated.
2. Reciprocal patterns of activity are developed, or disintegrated.
3. Foresight of satisfaction, or rebuff, of similar needs is facilitated.

Leary (1957) frames this concept in terms of the complementarity of certain behaviors and the "purpose" of interpersonal behavior. We induce from the other person behavior that is complementary to the behavior proffered, the purpose being to maximize our own (at least momentary) security. Thibaut & Kelly (1959) and Carson (1969)

have elaborated on this theme, investigating the system of rewards and costs between people. Lederer and Jackson (1968) refer to the reciprocity of behavior as the "quid pro quo."

The behavior of persons in relation to other persons is purposive (Carson, 1969). Whether conscious or unconscious, we behave as though we have a Plan--a strategy for determining events. According to Leary (1957), all the social, emotional, interpersonal activities of an individual can be understood as attempts to avoid anxiety or to establish and maintain self-esteem. How effective our behavior is reflects a level of competence that can enhance or detract from feelings of self-worth.

> Every interaction with another person can be said to have an aspect of competence. Acts directed toward another are intended to have an effect of some kind, and the extent to which they produce this effect can be taken as the measure of competence. Sometimes, interpersonal acts have virtually no purpose beyond the testing or display of competence.
>
> (R. White, 1963)

Sullivan (1953) also hypothesized an innate need to exercise one's capacities maximally, as a condition of growth. His description of the need for power, as he labels it, is all but synonymous with White's effectance motive. Henry Murray (1938) was also an early investigator of the idea of interpersonal competence. He suggested that there are four fundamental needs relevant to this phenomenon:

1. Dominance: to influence or direct the behavior of others.
2. Aggression: to overcome opposition forcefully; to belittle.
3. Deference: to admire and support a superior; to praise, emulate and yield to the influence of such a person.
4. Abasement: to submit passively to an external force.

This power or competence motive, combined with the innate need for tenderness and attachment, form the two basic dimensions in which all our interpersonal behavior is grounded. In the development of a system for understanding and classifying personality, Timothy Leary and his associates at the Kaiser Foundation, began by gathering extensive data on interpersonal behavior--from observations of interactions, verbal self-descriptions, dreams and fantasies, projective tests, psychological inventories, etc. (1957). A list of several hundred terms for describing interpersonal behavior was assembled, and from these, 16 generic interpersonal motives were determined. All of the original terms, when overlaps and repetitions were eliminated, could be expressed as differentiated varieties of the sixteen interpersonal themes. Further, it became clear to them that all sixteen had reference to a power or affiliation factor. Dominance-submission characterized one dimension, and hostility-affection the other. All the other generic interpersonal factors can be expressed as combinations of these four nodal points. When plotted on two axes, we find four basic quadrants in which to identify interpersonal styles:

1. Friendly, helpful dominance: advise, direct, give support and affection.
2. Friendly submission: agree, ask help, conform, obey.
3. Hostile submission: be modest, be skeptical, complain, criticize.
4. Hostile dominance: withhold, punish, compete, boast.

Since Leary's investigations, there has been considerable support and further precedent for defining the universe of interpersonal behavior with reference to such a two-dimensional circumplex of variables (Becker & Krug, 1964; Benjamin, 1974; Carson, 1969; Foa & Foa, 1974; Lorr & McNair, 1963; Swenson, 1973). Central to this framework is the concept of the complementarity and purpose of behavior. That is, complementarity is said to occur on the basis of reciprocity in respect to the dominance-submission axis (dominant behaviors induce submissive behaviors and vice versa), and on the basis of correspondence in respect to the hostility-affection axis (hostile behaviors induce hostile behaviors).

If we agree that we behave in order to maximize (as best as we can) our security operations, then our interpersonal behavior would be designed to "pull" (through either reciprocity or correspondence) from the other those behaviors with which we are most comfortable. This would be true for both the healthy and the neurotic relationship.

> In some instances neurotic conflict destroys the marriage; in others it seems to save the marriage. It is common knowledge that the neurotic tendency of one marital partner often complements that of the other.
> (Ackerman, 1958)

How, then, is all this ever balanced? If love (which we all need) is "being psychically wide-open to another, a total emotional vulnerability," (Firestone, 1970), how are we, at the same time, undefended and maintaining the security operations that attenuate anxiety? Who is able to do both?

Logic suggests that the more flexible you are in the range of behaviors you are able to comfortably display towards and with a

loved one, the greater the likelihood of developing and sustaining a genuine, loving, intimate relationship. That is, if you are secure in a variety of behavioral expressions, you will not sacrifice openness for security.

Love (Rubin, 1970) is an interpersonal attitude, which has three components: an affiliative and dependent need, a predisposition to help, and an orientation of exculsiveness and absorption. According to Erikson (1959): "Intimacy is the capacity to commit himself to concrete affiliations and partnerships, and to develop the ethical strength to abide by such commitments." And from Sullivan (1953):

> Intimacy is that type of situation involving two people which permits the validation of all components of personal worth. Validation of personal worth requires a type of relationship which I call collaboration, by which I mean clearly formulated adjustments of one's behavior to the expressed needs of the other person in pursuit of increasingly identical--that is, more and more nearly mutual satisfactions, and in the maintenance of increasingly similar security operations.

Attitudes--commitments--adjustments--there is nothing very esoteric or magical about those requisites.

The possibility for long term compatibility seems rooted in:

1. The maintenance of complementary pathological needs, which give rise to and perpetuate a phenomenologically satisfying, albeit symbiotic relationship; or
2. the development of an individual sense of identity and autonomy, such that needs and demands can be freely stated and negotiated.

This second alternative presents an arduous, frequently frightening, and sometimes lonely route. However, it is when one comfortably

maintains a continuous sense of self that risks can be taken, and the fusion and separation requisite for intimacy dared. To achieve a psychologically healthy union between people, such that the relationship and the individuals have room to grow and thrive, we must first achieve a union within ourselves. Without this, the relationship as well as the individuals will stagnate in order to survive.

The research on complementary needs and mate selection was pioneered by Robert Winch (1950, 1958, 1967, 1968). He initially concluded that complimentariness may be stated in terms of two psychological dimensions:

1. Nurturance-receptivity, or the tendency to give or receive.
2. Dominance-submission.

These are believed to operate on both the overt behavioral level and the covert, or unconscious, level. Winch's studies stimulated a great deal of research which both supported (Schutz, 1958; Hilkevitch, 1960; Kerchoff & Davis, 1962) and refuted (Tharp, 1963; Murstein, 1961; Katz, Cohen, & Castiglione, 1963) his early allegations.

Abraham Maslow's theory of a hierarchy of needs has important implications for the study of relationships. He asserts that at the lower (less mature) end of the psychological spectrum, people are attracted to each other strictly because they meet each other's needs. At the higher (mature and healthy) end, people are attracted to and love each other because they are loving people.

Maslow (1954) questioned his "self-actualizing" subjects about love. The general characteristics described were:

1. The desire to be together in a variety of settings, including work, play, and aesthetic and intellectual pursuits.
2. A desire for psychological and physical intimacy.
3. A feeling of generosity and wanting to give to and please the other.

Their relationships were, indeed, characterized by sponteneity and lack of defenses and roles. They did not assume, for example, that the female is passive and the male active. These individuals were secure enough in their "maleness" or "femaleness" to take on cultural aspects of the opposite sex, both sexually and otherwise. In the context of the relationship, the individuals bespoke attitudes that were both self-centered and self-effacing, selfish and unselfish. Flexibility seems to distinguish the observable behaviors between these individuals, as well as the attitudes and feelings they expressed.

The final section of the literature reviews one particular vision and definition of the psychologically healthy and flexible individual. The comparatively recent reappraisal of sex roles provides a framework for exploring patterns of behavior. It is this framework that is utilized in the present study to assess the different ways people see themselves behaving in relation to others.

Sex Roles

Our cultural tradition encompasses three distinct visions of reality: the patriarchal (masculine), the feminist (feminine) and

the androgynous. The image of the androgyne seems to eliminate what is seen by many as the false dichotomy between males and females. Coleridge said that a great mind must be androgynous--that is, a combination of masculine and feminine qualities; and Virginia Woolf: "We are all man-womanly and woman-manly." As translated by Appignanesi, Otto Weininger wrote:

> Man and woman are like two substances which are distributed among living individuals in varying mixed properties, without the coefficient of one substance ever vanishing. In experience, one might say, there is neither man nor woman, only masculine and feminine.

Jung, in turn, explores the capacity for assertion (masculine) and receptivity (feminine) in all of us. He strongly believed that every person must confront both forces within the individual psyche. Moreover, it is incumbent upon a culture to maintain a harmonious balance between both modes of its collective experience. Western civilization, according to Jung, has failed in this regard (Singer, 1976).

Robert Ornstein has explored the various scientific investigations of the split-brain phenomenon, and, in The Psychology of Consciousness (1972), he eloquently relates the "hard science" involved in the study of the brain and physiology to the concomitantly labelled "soft sciences" and humanities. He makes a plea for creating a dialogue within the individual with the hope of reuniting the divergent functions for which we all have the capacity: "Knowledge acquired through study and disputation is pitted against the earthy wisdom that comes from shrewd observation of nature and the reflection of the mind upon experience deeply lived." Ornstein notes

again and again the complementarity of the two modes of consciousness, and points out that the integration and the polarity of the two underlie some of the highest achievements of mankind. He illustrates in a chart, from which I have selected several examples, the ways in which various people have described the two modes of consciousness.

The Two Modes of Consciousness

A Tentative Dichotomy

Who Proposed It?	Masculine	Feminine
Many sources	Day	Night
Blackburn	Intellectual	Intuitive
Oppenheimer	Time, History	Eternity, Timelessness
Deikman	Active	Receptive
Levy, Sperry	Analytic	Gestalt
Luria	Sequential	Simultaneous
Bacon	Argument	Experience
I Ching	Heaven	Earth

The image of the androgyne is reflected whenever the opposites come together--the new contains a seed of the old, and the old carries within it the seed of the new. June Singer (1976) describes her reaction to a discovery during her journey to the Far East:

> T'ai Chi would be the ritual dance for the androgyne--a combination of lightness and weight, the strength of a great tree and the yielding fluidity of a forest stream. Although in continuous movement, the body is always in balance. Change is the only constant, from one movement to another, from initiation to completion, to rest, to

> initiation again. The Yin and Yang flow in and out; the thrusting of one is met with the yielding of the other.

And then: "The Primordial Androgyne is not only polarized as masculine and feminine, but also as day and night. Yet the reality is that there is no day without night, and no night without day."

Perhaps the oldest and clearest expression of the harmonious relationship that should exist between masculine and feminine principles can be found in Taoism. The Yin (feminine) and Yang (masculine) signify the two archetypal poles of nature. The Tao (defined as the middle way) is the undivided unity which lies behind all earthly phenomena, and which gives rise to the Yin and Yang. The Chinese philosophers teach that it is only when we completely perceive and accept the implicit interdependence of the two principles that we can find wholeness and peace: The Yin (the receptive earth, death, darkness, the invisible world) and the Yang (the creative heaven, life, light, and the visible world). Unfortunately, an understanding and acceptance of gender identity has become almost inextricably intertwined with sex roles in our culture. As Jung has pointed out, we have aligned the masculine with men and the feminine with women, polarized these essentially complementary concepts, and gotten stuck.

Jeanne Block (1973), in a longitudinal study of sex stereotypes across six countries, learned that there is a significantly greater emphasis placed on early and clear sex typing of behaviors in America than in any other country. Block refers to Bakan (1966) as a theoretical point of departure for her research. Bakan postulates the duality in terms of agency, or the individual and its

strivings for self-protection, self-assertion, and self-expansion; and communion, or the individual as it exists being one with other organisms. The fundamental task of the Organism is then "to try to mitigate agency with communion." In examining "ideal-self" descriptions of samples of male and female university students across six countries, Block found cross-cultural stability in male and female ideals with distinct differential emphases on agency and communion. Additionally, she determined that the effects of sex role socialization, which she considers to be the internalization of values, are also different for males and females. For males, the socialization process tends to enhance experiential options and to encourage more flexible sex-role definitions. However, she found that for women, socialization tends to reinforce the nurturant, docile, submissive characteristics and concomitantly tends to discourage personality qualities conventionally defined as masculine (self-assertiveness, achievement orientation, independence, etc.).

Recent models have been proposed which view optimal psychological development in terms of greater androgyny, or an increased integration of agency and communion (Bem, 1974; Rebecca et al., 1976). This school of thought asserts that

> by the time of the highest level of ego functioning, when the individual has evolved for him/herself an identity consonant with history and aspiration, this idenity will ideally represent an integration of masculine and feminine traits and values.

This ideal sex-role definition is called "androgynous," and it will reveal itself in the display of sex-role flexibility across situations, without regard for stereotyping behaviors as more appropriate

for one sex or another. This is assumed to represent a psychologically healthier, as well as developmentally more advanced, orientation to sex-role identity, in that the individual will have thus earned a sense of self in which there is a recognition of gender secure enough to permit him/her to manifest human qualities which our society has labeled as "unmanly" or "unwomanly."

Jeanne Block views the individual's attempt at sex-role definition as necessitating a synthesis of biological and cultural forces as they are mediated by cognitive and ego functions (1973). She is interested in examining the relationship between personal ego maturity and less traditional definitions of sex roles. Utilizing Loevinger's (1966, 1970) Milestones of Ego Development, she has extrapolated from them to sex-role development. She points to the lack of gender identity of the infant at one end, and the integration of masculinity and femininity (an androgynous sex-role definition) at the other end. This integration is borne out of a cherishing of individuality and a sense of comfort with one's identity as a man or a woman.

Rebecca, Hefner and Oleshansky (1976) also postulate a model of sex-role development. They divide the process into three stages:

1. Undifferentiated sex-role, such that the infant is global and diffuse (a la Piaget).
2. Polarized sex-roles, when we are learning to make discriminations.
3. Transcendence, when the individual evolves to move freely across situations, and to behave flexibly.

Using an open-ended interview, Dorothy Ullian conducted a developmental study (1976), using subjects who ranged from childhood through adolescence (ages 6-18). The study was designed to examine beliefs about men and women along four dimensions: competence, power, nurturance and activity level. The data supported her hypothesis that there are, indeed, developmental levels in an individual's conceptualizations of males and females. Six distinct levels emerged from an analysis of the interviews. The most primitive was a strictly biological orientation. Masculine and feminine traits were reportedly based almost exclusively on external body differences. Conformity to the dichotomy by both men and women was seen by subjects at that level as necessary. The most highly developed level was indicated by an awareness that masculinity and femininity exist independent of conformity to traditional standards, roles and behaviors. The subjects at this level proposed principles of equality and freedom as standards for behavior. Ullian concludes from her study that the end-point of sex-role development proceeds beyond the mere acceptance of conventional notions of male and female. Rather, an attempt is made to construct a set of ideal standards, which are consistent with principles of equality and freedom.

A serious problem emerges for the scientist: Can we agree on what is masculine and what is feminine? Can we define these concepts in a way that will enable us to measure them? Psychologists have attempted to do so, but the results have been far less than satisfying. Anne Constantinople (1973) has reviewed the most frequently

used tests and scales of masculinity and femininity, and she finds them to be severely lacking. Most definitions are too vague to be valid measures of anything other than circularity: masculinity and femininity are notoriously defined as that which M-F test measure. Most test omit the critical link between item response and a construct of masculine and feminine. Rather, for example, a masculine item is generally considered to be that which more men endorse than do women. This reliance on sex differences in item response encourages the notion of masculinity--femininity as a bi-polar trait. Constantinople rejects this idea. There are multiple qualities of masculinity and femininity within an individual, and she finds support for this multidimensionality in her criticism of the traditional M-F scales (which nonetheless maintain their bipolarity).

Further, Constantinople suggests that a strict empirical approach has just not been constructive. That which allegedly distinguishes men from women is frequently unique to a particular point in time in a particular culture.

Sandra Bem (1974) has also rejected the conventional definitions employed in the study of masculinity and femininity. She argues that these characteristics are not opposite ends of a continuum, and that individuals should be assessed both in terms of their masculine-assertive-instrumental dispositions, and their feminine-expressive-yielding natures. Bem has submitted two hypotheses, and she is currently involved in a great deal of research in their regard:

1. Individuals might be androgynous: that is, both masculine and feminine, assertive and yielding, instrumental and

expressive, depending on the situational appropriateness of the behavior.

2. Strongly sex-typed individuals might be seriously limited in the range of behaviors available to them.

Bem began by creating what is called the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). It is composed of three scales of 20 personality characteristics each--masculine, feminine and neutral (not sex-typed) qualities. These characteristics were selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability (unlike, as noted previously, the other M-F scales, which were created on the basis of differential endorsement by males and females). For example, an item qualified as masculine if it was judged (by both males and females) to be more desirable in American society for a man than for a woman. Masculinity is generally characterized by an orientation toward "getting the job done." The focus is cognitive and instrumental. Femininity is reflected in an affective concern for others and the expressive mode of behavior. Those items that qualified as neutral were not adjudged sex-typed in terms of social desirability. A small sample of the items is suggestive of the inventory:

Masculine	Feminine	Neutral
aggressive	affectionate	truthful
athletic	commpassionate	friendly
self-reliant	understanding	conscientious
forceful	yielding	reliable

The final masculine and feminine items were pared down from approximately 200 personality characteristics that were positive in value and either masculine or feminine in tone. The Masculinity and Femininity scores are independent dimensions, and indicate the extent to which a person endorses masculine and feminine characteristics as self-descriptive. The Androgyny score reflects the relative amounts of masculinity and femininity that the person includes in his/her self-description. This score best characterizes the nature of the person's total sex-role definition.

In validating the use of the BSRI, Bem found that:

1. The dimensions of masculinity and femininity are empirically as well as logically independent ($r = -.03$).
2. The concept of psychological androgyny is a reliable one ($r = .93, \alpha = .86$).
3. Highly sex-typed scores do not reflect a general tendency to respond in a socially desirable direction, but rather a specific tendency to describe oneself in accordance with sex-typed standards of desirable behavior for men and women ($r = -.02$).

Seeking to demonstrate that traditional sex-roles do restrict behavior in important human ways, Bem posed her next questions:

1. Do masculine men and feminine women actively avoid activities just because they are stereotyped as more appropriate for the other sex?
2. If they perform "cross-sex" activity, does it cause them discomfort?

Bem found that, in a series of simple exercises requiring a choice for a particular behavior (for which there were differential rewards), sex-typed subjects were more stereotyped in their choices than either androgynous or sex-reversed subjects (who responded similarly). The sex-typed subjects felt significantly worse performing cross-sex activity as well.

After this determination, Bem inquired further: Is the masculine male deficient in expression and communion? Is the feminine female deficient in agency and instrumentality?

In 1975, she conducted a study on independence and nurturance. She tested the tendency to conform to the judgement of a cartoon as being funny. Bem found that the masculine and androgynous subjects (male and female) were more independent than the feminine subjects. Then, using a kitten as a stimulus, she found that:

1. Feminine and androgynous men were more responsive to the kitten than were the masculine men, as was expected.
2. Feminine women were less responsive than androgynous women, and masculine women fell in-between.

In summary:

1. Only the androgynous subjects (male and female) displayed a high level of masculine independence when under pressure to conform, as well as a high level of feminine playfulness when given the opportunity to interact with a tiny kitten.
2. The non-androgynous subjects show a behavioral deficit of one sort or another.

3. The feminine women were the most restricted in their behavior. It is possible that, contrary to conventional wisdom, their inhibition may extend beyond the instrumental to the expressive domain as well.

Bem has conducted further studies (1975, 1976, 1977), which were designed to be interpersonal in nature, putting the subjects in situations where nurturant sympathies would be likely to be aroused. One study involved interacting with a human baby, and the other, with an unhappy fellow student. The results were that all the women responded to the baby similarly (the feminine women were no more nurturant), and that the feminine and androgynous men were more responsive than the masculine men. Finally, the only time the feminine females stood out was in their significantly greater responsiveness to the unhappy student. The masculine males were significantly less responsive than anyone else.

Bem has drawn several tentative conclusions from her work:

1. Threshholds for tender emotionality in masculine men are higher than for everyone else.
2. Androgynous men and women function effectively in both the instrumental and expressive domains.
3. Masculine-typed women also function effectively in both domains.
4. Feminine-typed men only perform well in the expressive domain, and masculine-typed men only in the instrumental.
5. Feminine-typed women do not perform cross-sex behavior, nor are they always "feminine." They seem to be inhibited whenever the "appropriate" behavior is left ambiguous.

Theoretically, a secure gender identity is vital to a psychologically healthy or ideal personality. This sense of maleness or femaleness is a prerequisite for becoming fully developed. What Bem views as the "artificial constraints of gender" are shown to interfere with the individual's flexibility of response, and for that reason, must be eliminated.

Berzins and Welling (1974, 1975, 1977) developed and validated a measure of masculinity and femininity (the Interpersonal Disposition Inventory--IDI) and a system of sex role classification (the PRF ANDRO Scale). The measures have been shown to be closely related to Bem's BSRI in rationale, such that:

1. Masculinity and femininity scales are empirically independent.
2. Items are selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability.
3. Items are generally positive in value.

The items were derived from Jackson's Personality Research Form, Form AA (PRF-1967). The PRF is a multitrait instrument based on Murray's need theory. The scales are bipolar, balanced for acquiescence, and exhibit unusually good reliability and validity (Jackson, 1971).

The PRF ANDRO scale classifies individuals into four sex role categories: masculine-typed, feminine-typed, androgynous and undifferentiated. Cross-validation studies showed the scales to be substantially related to the corresponding scales of the BSRI. Masculinity and femininity are multidimensional constructs, and each

scale contains different themes, most of them interpersonal.

Masculinity is characterized by:

1. Social ascendency--assertive, acts as a leader, dominant.
2. Intellectual ascendency--makes decisions easily, defends own beliefs.
3. Autonomy--independent, self-reliant, individualistic.
4. Orientation towards risk--athletic.

Femininity is characterized by:

1. Nurturance--compassionate, eager to soothe hurt feelings.
2. Affiliative-expressive concerns--affectionate, warm.
3. Self-subordination--childlike, yielding.

Berzins et al. took advantage of their access to previous samples' responses to the rest of the Personality Research Form. They analyzed the data and offer us some discussion as to the relationship between sex roles and personality dimensions (Berzins et al., 1978). Although masculine and feminine-typed persons emerged as opposites on some dimensions, such as dependence and defensiveness, they were relatively indistinguishable on others. On those other dimensions, including social poise and intellectuality, it was the androgynous and undifferentiated subjects who emerged as opposites. Those kinds of differences would not be detected by the traditional Masculinity-Femininity scales.

Other attempts to determine the personality correlates of sex roles have raised questions about the present measures and definitions of psychological androgyny. Bem (1977), Spence (1975), and Wetter (1975) found that self esteem varies with the degree of

masculinity in the individual, and they could not use self esteem to differentiate between androgynous and masculine-typed individuals. Kelly & Worrell (1977) explain this in terms of masculine-typed behaviors leading more frequently to positive outcomes in our society and hence higher self esteem. In other words, it may be the value of the behaviors available to an individual that predicts their self esteem, rather than the range of behaviors.

This assertion was supported by the results of a study by Jones, Chernovetz & Hanson (1978). Their investigation into five areas of psychological functioning revealed that the androgynous group was no more adaptable than sex-typed males or cross sex-typed females (masculine-typed males and females). They concluded that adaptability varies as a linear function of masculine attributes. Again, the value of behaviors is seen as more significant than the range.

Wiggins and Holzmuller's data (1978) suggests that the flexibility associated with androgyny is specific to a pattern of interpersonal flexibility. Their sex role groups endorsed 1,710 trait descriptive adjectives, and it was primarily the interpersonal adjectives that distinguished among the groups. Adjectives denoting temperamental, characterological, attitudinal or intellectual characteristics did not differentiate among the groups.

The present study will add to this particular aspect of the literature. The subjects, who have been grouped in sex-role categories according to their descriptions of themselves as measured by the Interpersonal Disposition Inventory (IDI), are further asked to

describe their behavior toward their spouses. It is expected that the sex-role groups will vary in their interpersonal styles, and that the expression of dominant and affiliative behaviors will be determined (respectively) by the degree of masculine and feminine-typed characteristics reported by these subjects.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I: The expression of dominant behaviors toward the spouse is independent of the degree of masculine-typed characteristics.

Hypothesis II: The expression of affiliative behaviors toward the spouse is independent of the degree of feminine-typed characteristics.

Hypothesis III: Interpersonal style toward the spouse is independent of sex-role category, such that:

1. Friendly-dominance is independent of an androgynous sex-role.
2. Hostile-dominance is independent of a masculine-typed sex-role.
3. Friendly-submission is independent of a feminine-typed sex-role.
4. Hostile-submission is independent of an undifferentiated sex-role.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Procedure

The nature of the study was briefly explained to the subjects when they were initially approached. At that time, they were asked to read and sign the informed consent (Appendix A, p. 78).

The subjects were then told to complete each inventory separately from their spouses and without collaboration. They were given separate addressed envelopes in which to return the inventories, thereby ensuring privacy from each other, as well as anonymity. The subjects' names were not on any of the information retunred to the author.

See appendices for instructions specific to each inventory.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were recruited from among the author's acqaintances and personal contacts, and there were no rewards or incentives for agreeing to participate. The author made an informal effort to recruit the subjects from a variety of income levels, occupations, and educational levels, but did not attempt to match them. This decision was made because the PRF ANDRO Scale (used to group the subjects) differentiates samples varying in age and socioeconomic status (Berzins, Welling & Wetter, 1978). The sample does represent a varied cross-section of the populations, and

includes such occupations as nurses, physicians, clergy, homemakers, clerical workers, businessmen and students. Most of the subjects are presently living in and around Knoxville, a city of approximately 200,000 residents in East Tennessee.

The decision to survey married people was primarily based on the lack of agreement among psychologists as to how intimacy can be measured or even defined. Marriage is unique in that it is a public statement that a private relationship exists between two people, neither of whom has that same relationship to anyone else. Further, it is the author's belief that the initial decision to marry has special significance in terms of such powerful issues as commitment and change of life style, and so all the subjects are involved in their first marriage.

It is assumed that the amount of time people devote to each other would certainly affect their interpersonal behavior. Swensen (unpublished paper, 1978) claims, for example, that over time and the growing commitment that time represents, couples report an increase in their ability to resolve conflicts. With this in mind, the author is comparing two groups of subjects, according to how long they have been married. One group has been married for 2-5 years, and the other for 20 years of longer.

The criterion for "young marrieds" is based on the supposition that is takes some time for the individuals to settle into their life as a couple. The upper limit (5 years) creates a group that is likely to be more similar than people married for about ten years, and also provides a significant contrast with the "older marrieds."

The criterion for "older marrieds" is a consideration of the years and concerns involved in raising children, and the changes that confront the couple once the children begin to leave home. It is also by this time that vocational and financial goals are more clearly being realized or frustrated. In sum, there are tangible results of the couples' commitment to their union, as well as the possibility for a refocusing on the relationship as external demands change.

Of the 60 subjects who initially consented to participate, 51 returned the completed inventories. 26 subjects are females, and 25 are males. 26 subjects have been married for between 2 and 5 years; 25 have been married for 20 years or longer.

Subjects are classifed into sex-role categories on the basis of their responses to the Interpersonal Disposition Inventory (Appendix B, p. 79). The categories themselves are formed (Berzins, Welling and Wetter, 1977) by performing median splits of the Masculinity and Femininity score distributions for the sexes combined. By this procedure, "high" and "low" scores on the Masculinity Scale are indicated by scores of 16 (and greater) and 15 (and less) respectively. On the Femininity Scale, the comparable values are 17 (and greater) and 16 (and less). The four sex-role categories are designated Androgynous (high Masc, high Femin), Masculine-typed (high Masc, low Femin), Feminine-typed (low Masc, high Femin), and Undifferentiated (low Masc, low Femin).

Of the 51 subjects participating: (a) 10 are classified as Androgynous; (b) 12 are classified as Masculine-typed; (c) 13 are

classified as Feminine-typed; and (d) 16 are classified as Undifferentiated.

Instrumentation

Interpersonal Disposition Inventory

For the assessment of sex-role orientations, the Interpersonal Disposition Inventory (IDI) was selected for its conceptual merit and validity (Appendix B, p. 79). The IDI was derived in 1974 from the item pool of Jackson's (1967) Personality Research Form (PRF). It contains two subscales: Masculinity (29 items) and Femininity (27 items). The theoretical definitions of masculinity and femininity constructs evolved from a conceptual analysis of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). Accordingly, the masculinity construct was held to depict a dominant-instrumental content domain, and the femininity construct a nurturant-expressive domain.

The items were selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability. This differs significantly from traditional Masculinity-Femininity scales, which were created on the basis of differential endorsement by males and females. For example, an item qualified as masculine if it was judged (by both males and females) to be more desirable in American society for men than for women.

The items of the IDI scale were demonstrated to be consistent with Bem's rationale, such that:

1. The masculinity and femininity scales are independent and orthogonal dimensions.

2. Items are selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability.
3. Items have generally positive content.

The questionnaire is comprised of 27 femininity items, 29 masculinity items, 4 fillers, and 5 items from the PRF infrequency scale. The infrequency scale controls for subjects who respond without reading the statement. An example of this is statement number 27: I try to get at least some sleep every night. If more than one infrequent item is answered in the keyed direction, the respondent is excluded from the analyses.

Subjects respond to 65 statements, indicating which ones are self-descriptive (True) and which ones are not self-descriptive (False). The results of the IDI are interpreted in terms of the PRF ANDRO Scale. This classifies the respondents into four sex-role categories: Masculine-typed, Feminine-typed, Androgynous, and Undifferentiated.

The Masculinity and Femininity subscales of the PRF ANDRO Scale have been shown to be independent ($r = -.05$ for men and $-.16$ for women); reliable (test-retest: $r = .81$ for both the Masculinity and Femininity scales); and minimally related to socially desirable responding (r ranging from .00 to .29). Additionally, the scales are capable of meaningfully differentiating samples varying in age and socioeconomic status (Berzins, Welling and Wetter, 1978).

Interpersonal Check List

For the assessment of interpersonal behavior towards the spouse, the Interpersonal Check List (ICL) was chosen on the basis of its

construction, and the selection and arrangement of items (Appendix C, p. 84). The ICL provides a circumplex of interpersonal behaviors with reference to two dimensions: power and affiliation. This approach has ample support and precedent. The ICL has 128 descriptive, self-referent items. The variables can be appropriately combined into quadrants. Each quadrant is related to every other in such a way that a subject having a high score in one sector normally has progressively lower scores in the others (see Figure 1). The vertical axis of the circle represents a dominance-submission dimension (managerial, forceful, etc. through modest, dependent, etc.). The horizontal axis represents an affection-hostility dimension (cooperative, warm, etc. through critical, hard-boiled, etc.). Additionally, each item has an intensity dimension such that the range of over-reactivity through absence of behavior is considered within the inventory (frank and honest--able to doubt--critical--constantly complaining) (Figure 2).

The pattern of scores is converted into two numerical indices, one representing the individual's position on the power axis (dominance-submission), and the other on the affiliation axis (affection-hostility). The individual's interpersonal personality is then located on the circular grid (Figure 3). The personalities can be grouped into 4 quadrants, which are roughly defined as: Hostile-Dominant, Friendly-Dominant, Friendly-Submissive and Hostile-Submissive (Figure 4). The calculations of the indices are derived from the consideration of the circle as a two-dimensional array in Euclidean space. As such, conventional trigonometric and analytic

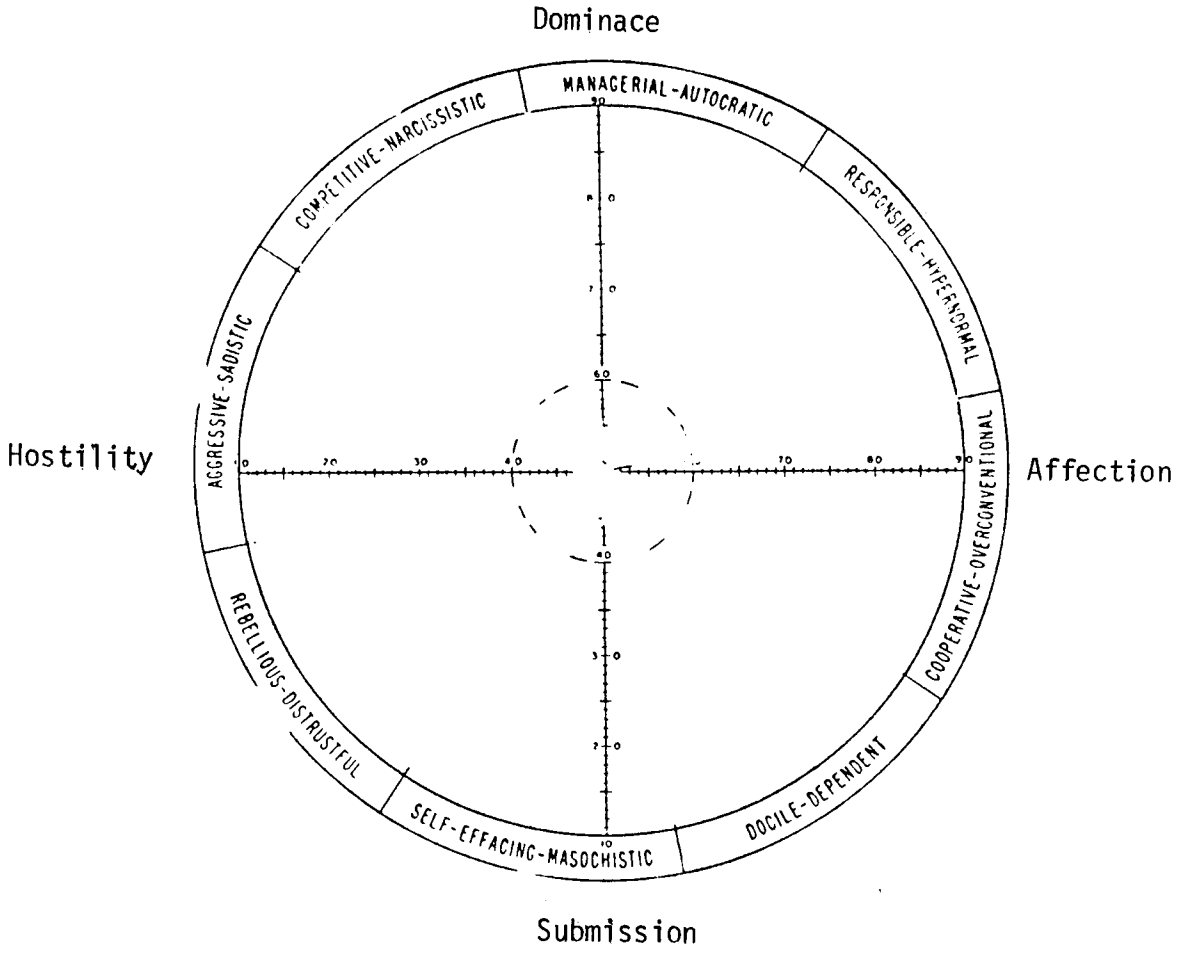


Figure 1. The Numerical Division of Interpersonal Behavior into Two Orthnogonal Dimensions: Power and Affiliation.

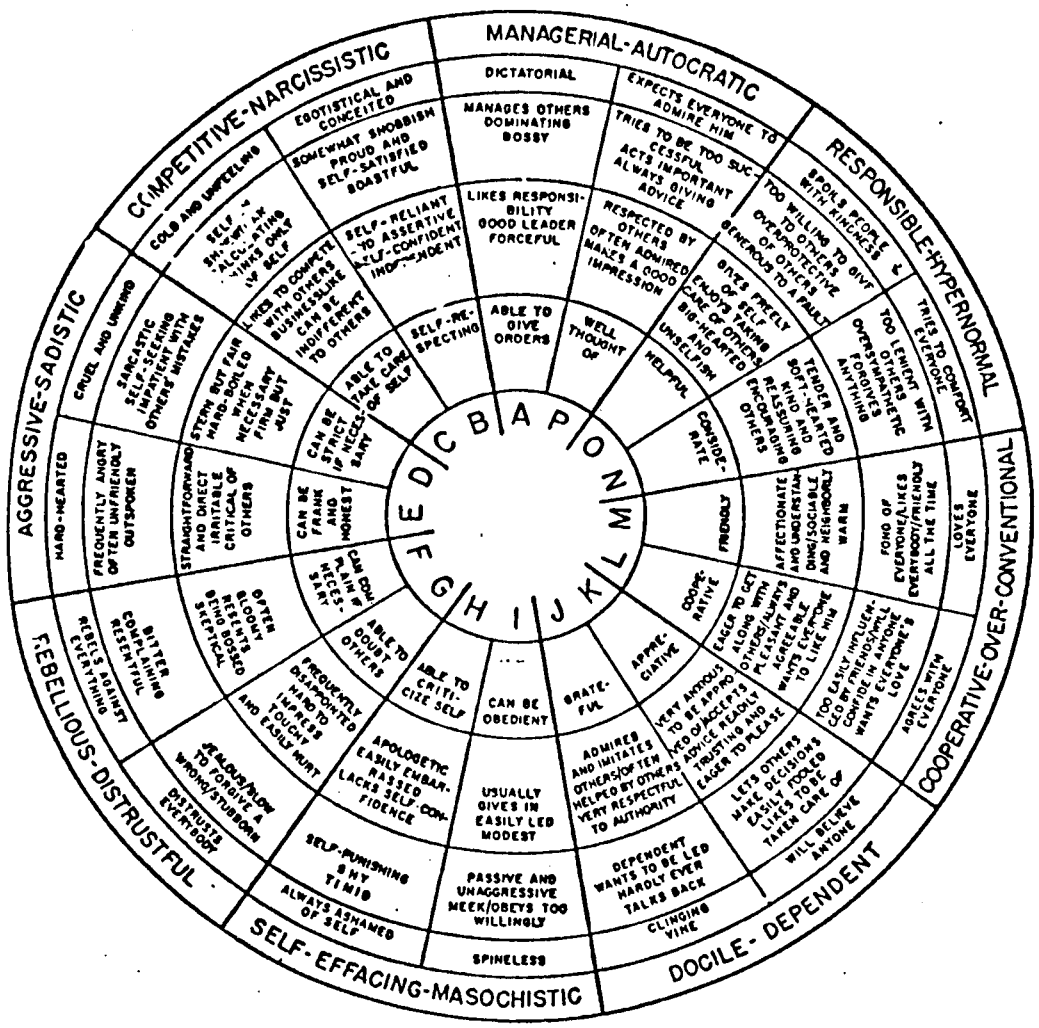


Figure 2. An Illustration of the Circumplex of Interpersonal Behaviors, Separated According to Categories and Intensity.

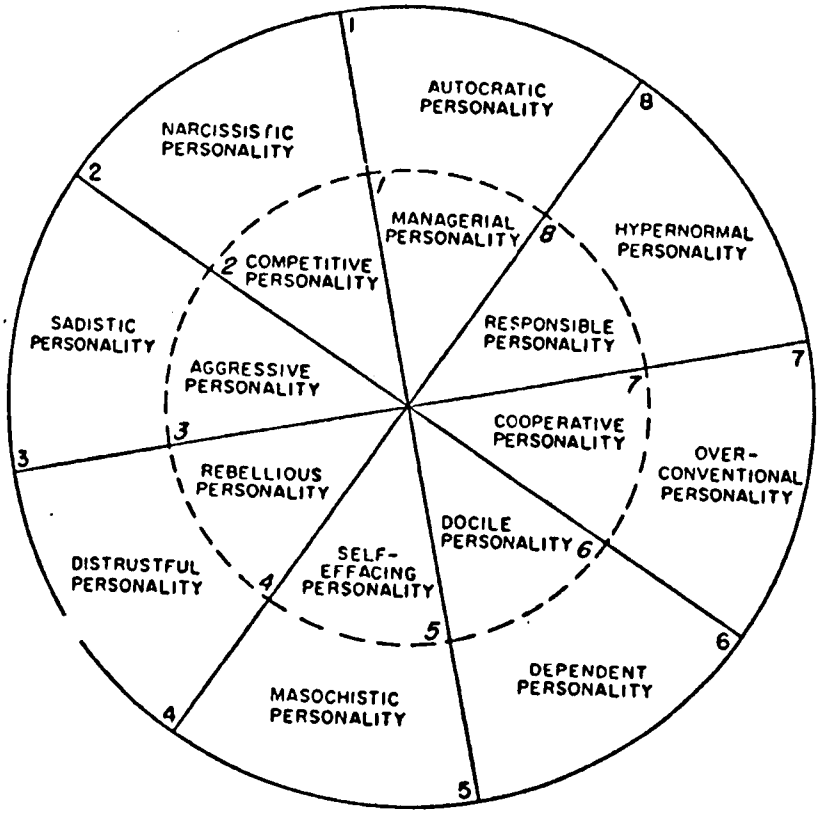


Figure 3. The Representation of Interpersonal Personalities on the Circle.

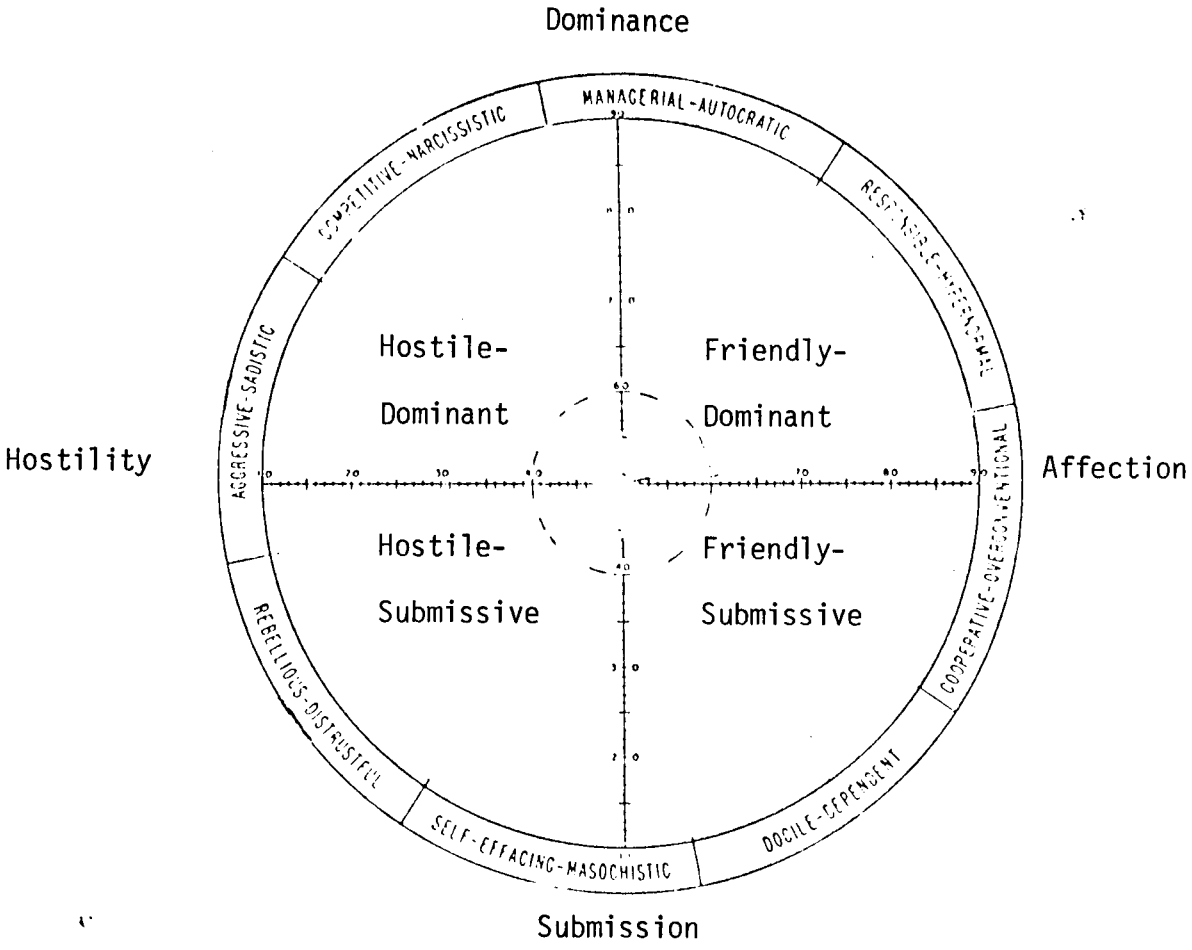


Figure 4. The Grouping of Personalities into 4 Interpersonal Styles.

formulae relate the variables. For a more detailed analysis, see Leary, T., Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality, 1957, pp. 67-70.

For the purposes of this study, the author was interested in focusing each subject's attention on the marital relationship. The original checklist, however, has reference to the individual's interpersonal behavior in general. It does not direct the individual to describe one relationship in particular. With this in mind, the ICL has been altered to refer specifically to the behaviors that the individual directs towards his/her spouse.

Example of original checklist item: able to give orders.

Altered checklist item: able to give orders to my spouse.

The ICL has been subject to a substantial amount of empirical question with more than adequate success. It has been shown to have a test-retest reliability of .78 (Freedman, 1951); the Kuder-Richardson estimates of its internal consistency range from .953 to .976 (Armstrong, 1958). A more recent validity study (Knudson, 1974) comparing both the ICL and Jackson's PRF with Stimulus-Response format inventories of interpersonal behavior, determined the ICL and PRF to be significantly higher.

Additionally, a conceptual convergence has been demonstrated between the Leary circle (ICL) and Murray's need theory, on which the IDI and the PRF ANDRO Scale are based (Knudson, 1974).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Statistical Procedures

The questions posed by the first two hypotheses are whether (1) the degree of dominant behaviors directed towards the spouse can be predicted from that individual's level of masculinity; and (2) the degree of affiliative behaviors directed towards the spouse can be predicted from that individual's level of femininity. These types of questions, whereby 2 observations can be paired and then studied, are addressed using measures of correlation. These measures are concerned with describing the degree of relationship between variables, and with estimating one variable from knowledge of the other (prediction).

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson r) is the most widely used measure of correlation used with variables that are quantitative or continuous. The dominance, masculinity, affiliation, and femininity scores are all interval variables, (they are located on scales of equal units) and as such are continuous. Further, the scores being observed were obtained in independent pairs, each pair being unconnected with other pairs, another requisite for use of the Pearson r.

The coefficient of correlation can vary from a value of +1.00, which means perfect positive correlation, through zero, which means complete independence or no correlation whatever, to -1.00, which means

perfect negative correlation. When a relationship does exist between the variables, it is a linear one, so that as one variable goes up, the other goes up (or goes down). The algebraic sign of the coefficient (+ or -) reflects the direction of the relationship (whether direct or inverse), and the size of the coefficient (distance from zero) reflects the strength of the relationship.

To test a null hypothesis, the t-test of significance for dependent samples was then performed for each Pearson r. The $p < .05$ confidence level and lower is considered significant. It is at this level that the null hypothesis can be rejected, and we are able to infer that there is some degree of correlation between the variables. The $p < .10$ confidence level is considered to "approach" significance, but is not significant itself. All p values are one-tailed.

The third set of hypotheses combines the values that are treated separately in hypotheses 1 and 2. Masculinity and femininity scores are combined to create sex-role categories, and dominance and affiliation scores are combined to create interpersonal styles. Hypotheses of this kind, which involve more than one set of data, are generally tested for significance using the chi square statistic (x^2). For each sex-role group, the sample distribution in this study is best examined in four separate 2x2 contingency tables, each of which sets forth 2 possibly related variables. The questions posed are whether:

1. Androgynous and non-androgynous subjects differ with respect to friendly-dominance;
2. masculine-typed and non masculine-typed subjects differ with respect to hostile-dominance;

3. feminine-typed and non feminine-typed subjects differ with respect to friendly-submission; and
4. undifferentiated and non-undifferentiated subjects differ with respect to hostile-submission.

Since the frequencies in some of the cells are small, the chi-squares were corrected for continuity. When the relationship between sex-role category and interpersonal style was further broken down by the variables of length of marriage and gender of subject, the 2x2 contingency chi-square could not be used. The Fisher-Yates test of significance was used to allow for the small sample and cell sizes.

Finally, when all four sex-role groups were combined, a chi-square one-sample test was performed to determine whether there is any relationship between sex-role category and interpersonal style.

Analysis of Data

The results of the statistics detailed in the previous section are described below. In addition, presented for hypotheses 1 and 2 are the r, t, and p values for each correlation performed. Also, presented for the third set of hypotheses, are the chi-square values.

Hypothesis 1: Only when all four sex-role categories are combined can a null hypothesis be rejected. That is, there is evidence for the combined groups that the expression of dominant behaviors towards the spouse is not independent of, but rather,

varies with the degree of masculine-typed characteristics of the individual. This relationship proved to be significant at the $p < .005$ level ($r = .52$) (see Table 1).

When the correlation was performed within each sex-role category, as seen in Table 2, significant results were only found for the androgynous group ($r = .69$, $p < .025$) and the undifferentiated group ($r = .49$, $p < .05$). Sex-role category did not significantly affect prediction of dominant behaviors in the Masculine-typed or feminine-typed subjects.

Length of marriage significantly affected the correlation within the feminine-typed group (see Table 3). An interesting pattern emerges here. Those feminine-typed subjects who have been married 2 to 5 years exhibit a strong positive relationship between Masc and Dom ($r = .94$, $p < .005$), and those who have been married $\geq$ 20 years exhibit a strong negative relationship ($r = -.83$, $p < .025$). Length of marriage did not yield significant effects within the other sex-role categories, although there is a trend approaching significance for the "young married" in both the androgynous and undifferentiated groups.

Hypothesis 2: When all four sex-role categories are combined, a null hypothesis can again be rejected. That is, the expression of affiliative behaviors towards the spouse is not independent of, but seems to vary with the degree of feminine-typed characteristics of the individual. The relationship proved to be significant at the $p < .005$ level ($r = .44$). The results of these correlations are presented in Table 4.

Table 1

Results of Correlating Masculinity with Dominance Scores for Combined Sex-Role Groups

Sex-role categories combined	Correlation of Masc with Dom		
	r	t	p value
Total subjects	.52	4.23	$< .0005$
Married 2-5 years	.61	3.72	$< .005$
Married $\geq$ 20 years	.39	2.04	$< .05$

Table 2

Results of Correlating Masc with Dom Scores for Each Sex-Role Group

	r	t	p value
Masculine-typed subjects	-.17	.53	NS
Feminine-typed subjects	.15	.50	NS
Adrogynous subjects	.69	2.71	$p < .025$
Undifferentiated subjects	.49	2.09	$p < .05$

Table 3

Results of Correlating Masc with Dom Scores According to Length of Marriage for Each Sex-Role Group

Sex-Role Group		r	t	p value
Masculine-typed:	2-5 years	-.18	.41	NS
	≥ 20 years	-.13	.23	NS
Feminine-typed:	2-5 years	.94	5.40	$p < .005$
	≥ 20 years	-.83	3.29	$p < .025$
Androgynous:	2-5 years	.76	2.03	$p < .10$
	≥ 20 years	.05	.09	NS
Undifferentiated:	2-5 years	.54	1.59	$p < .10$
	≥ 20 years	.21	.54	NS

Table 4

Results of Correlating Femin with Affiliative (LOV) for Combined Sex-Role Groups

Combined Sex-role categories	r	t	p value
Total Subjects	.44	3.45	$p < .005$
Married 2-5 years	.37	1.95	$p < .05$
Married ≥ 20 years	.51	2.81	$p < .005$

Length of marriage affected these results such that the relationship between affiliative behaviors and feminine characteristics is somewhat stronger for the group married $\geq$ 20 years ($r = .51$, $p < .005$). The group married 2 to 5 years also yielded significant results.

The correlations were not significant when each sex-role group was considered separately. These results are provided in Table 5. Only the masculine-typed subjects even approached yielding significant results. For each sex-role group, then, there is not sufficient evidence to reject a null hypothesis. Femininity with affiliative behaviors are therefore considered independent of each other.

This trend of apparent independence continues when the sex-role groups are further broken down according to length of marriage (Table 6). Those correlations yielded only one significant finding. For androgynous subjects married $\geq$ 20 years, the expression of affiliative behaviors does vary with the level of femininity. Again, this was the only group for which this proved to significant.

Hypothesis 3: The third set of hypotheses evaluates whether or not each sex-role group is independent of its corresponding interpersonal style. The 2 (sex-role group) x 2 (interpersonal style) contingency tables yielded only one result which allows for a rejection of a null hypothesis. Masculine-typed subjects proved more likely to behave in a hostile-dominant interpersonal style than non masculine-typed subjects. The other interpersonal styles were independent of the subjects' sex-role categories. Tables 7 through 10 present these data.

Table 5

Results of Correlating Femininity with Affiliation Scores for Each Sex-Role Group

Sex-Role Group	r	t	p value
Masculine-typed	.40	1.40	$p < .10$
Feminine-typed	.05	.19	NS
Androgynous	-.02	.05	NS
Undifferentiated	.04	.15	NS

Table 6

Results of Correlating Femininity with Affiliation Scores According to Length of Marriage for each S-R Group

Sex-Role Group		r	t	p value
Masculine-typed:	2-5 years	.02	.04	NS
	$\geq$ 20 years	.58	1.23	NS
Feminine-typed:	2-5 years	.18	.37	NS
	$\geq$ 20 years	-.17	.39	NS
Androgynous:	2-5 years	.58	1.23	NS
	$\geq$ 20 years	.81	2.38	$p < .05$
Undifferentiated:	2-5 years	-.02	.04	NS
	$\geq$ 20 years	.04	.10	NS

Table 7

Results of Chi-Square Analysis of Interpersonal Style by Corresponding Sex-Role Category: Freindly-Dominant and Androgynous

	Friendly-Dom	Not Friendly-Dom
Androgynous	9	1
Non-Androgynous	26	15

$X^2 = 1.74 \quad p < .10$

Table 8

Results of Chi-Square Analysis of Interpersonal Style by Corresponding Sex-Role Category: Hostile-Dominant and Masculine-Typed

	Hostile-Dom	Not Hostile-Dom
Masculine-typed	5	7
Non-Masculine-typed	3	36

$X^2 = 6.08 \quad p < .01$

Table 9

Results of Chi-Square Analysis of Interpersonal Style by Corresponding Sex-Role Category: Friendly-Submissive and Feminine-Typed

	Friendly-Sub	Not Friendly-Sub
Feminine-typed	3	10
Non-Feminine-typed	3	35

$X^2 = 1.14$ NS

Table 10

Results of Chi-Square Analysis of Interpersonal Style by Corresponding Sex-Role Category: Hostile-Submissive and Undifferentiated

	Hostile-Sub	Not Hostile-Sub
Undifferentiated	1	15
Non-Undifferentiated	1	34

$X^2 = .002$ NS

When the relationship between sex-role category and interpersonal style was further broken down by the variables of marriage and gender, there was only one significant finding, using the Fisher-Yates Test of Significance. Female subjects who are masculine-typed behave in a hostile-dominant style more frequently ($p < .04$) than female subjects who are not masculine-typed. This effect accounts for the overall finding (cited previously) that masculine-typed subjects (length of marriage and gender combined) are more likely to behave in a hostile-dominant style than non masculine-typed subjects.

Finally, the chi-square one sample test was performed for all subjects combined. The result significantly supported a null hypothesis, finding interpersonal style to be independent of sex-role category at the $p < .025$ level of significance. For all subjects, sex-role type was <u>not</u> an effective predictor of corresponding interpersonal style toward the spouse. (See Table 11).

Table 11

Results of Chi-Square One Sample Test For all Subjects Combined

	Corresponding Interpersonal Style	
	yes	no
All subjects	18	33

$X^2 = 4.41 \quad p < .025$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The interpretation of the data is, as always, affected by certain limitations of the study. In this case, the small sample size, may have obscured some of the significance. Another problem may be the system of sex role classification. The use of median cut-off scores affects the distribution of subjects in such a way that small differences in endorsements can result in a different sex role classification. Even with high test--retest reliability, there will be some variation from test to retest, so that some subjects might be categorized erroneously. Further, when small differences determine how subjects are classified, the nature or complexion of the group is affected in unknown ways. In other words, people who fall marginally within the masculine-typed range, for example, may or may not be similar to people whose scores lie in the more extreme end of the category. The pattern of masculinity and femininity scores and how that affects classification must be subject to more investigation and refinement.

Other recent criticisms of the bi-polar assessment of sex roles suggests that the newer measures do not control for social desirability as well as the authors of those instruments believe. Jones et al. present data (1972) supporting the assertion that it is the masculine-typed behaviors that significantly distinguish among sex role groups. Since masculine behaviors lead more frequently to positive outcomes in our society, they are more highly valued, and

therefore likely to be maintained across situations and relationships.

The import of this particular criticism is likely to vary with the kind of information being sought. In terms of the present study, whether or not social desirability is a factor influencing endorsement of items could result in false classifications, but it is hoped that the strict protection of anonymity and the absence of someone to impress or convince, would control for that possibility. Conversely, if social desirability is so powerful an influence that the subjects have come to see themselves as behaving in certain ways, that experience is part of the information the author is seeking, regardless of the underlying motivation. Finally, the individual's perceptions regarding socially desirable behavior are part of the attribution process, the relevance of which was discussed in Chapter II.

The originally stated problem is whether interpersonal behavior is determined (and therefore limited) by sex-role characteristics. Throughout this discussion, it must be remembered that the study surveys how the subjects experience themselves, rather than what others may observe about their behavior. More specifically, hypotheses 1 and 2 ask whether power-oriented behaviors and affiliation-oriented behaviors directed toward the spouse are independent of (respectively) masculine and feminine-typed characteristics. When sex-role groups are combined, there is a fairly strong correlation between masculinity and power, as well as between femininity and affiliation. This relationship is misleading, however, which is evident when the

sex-role groups are considered separately. The variables are clearly independent with a couple of exceptions that account for the overall correlation for combined groups. The differential support for those hypotheses, for all subjects combined, suggests that, while behavior in each dimension does vary somewhat with sex-role characteristics, the power dimension is more closely related to the degree of masculine-typing than the affiliation dimension is related to the degree of feminine-typing.

Given the different focuses of the inventories, such that the IDI (sex-role measure) asks subjects to describe themselves relative to the wide variety of contexts that characterize their lives, and the ICL specifies only one context, the marital relationship, it follows that the range of expression of power (dominant through submissive) behaviors is perceived by these individuals as being more stable, regardless of context, than the range of expression of affiliation (affectionate through hostile) behaviors. In other words, while both dimensions are fairly independent of context, the affiliation dimension does show more sensitivity to marriage. The marital relationship does provide a context for a different experience and a change in self-expression, theoretically creating the possibility of a broader self-definition.

Further, length of marriage as a determinant (for the combined groups) has an additional small, but interesting effect when the two dimensions are compared. Over time, the expression of power-oriented behaviors shows a <u>decrease</u> in cross-situational stability (that is, becomes more independent of the degree of masculine-typed

characteristics in all contexts), while the expression of affiliation-oriented behaviors shows an increase (that is, is more strongly correlated with feminine-typed characteristics). Cross-situational stability here refers to the maintenance of a particular style regardless of context, both outside and within the marriage. Implicit in such behavior is the strength of the investment in a particular view of the self. The results of this study suggest that over time, married people change with regard to those investments. The need and wish to assert the instrumental (masculine-typed) domain is relaxed, while the need to be consistent in the expressive (feminine-typed) mode becomes more important.

While age alone may be related to those changes, it is reasonable to consider marriage as an important variable. A marriage that lasts at least 20 years reflects a commitment which is not a known quantity in the earlier years. We can speculate that the assurance of such a commitment provides a degree of security and trust that would be strongly related to those changes, since the desire for affiliation is a source of vulnerability and anxiety, and power is often used as a means of self-protection. The significance of commitment has also been reported by Swenson and his collaborators (unpublished paper, 1979). These investigators consistently found that marriage problems seem to be mostly related to the commitment of the husband and wife to each other, with increased commitment leading to the solution of problems. Perhaps then, an increase in the ability to solve problems is also related to the changes in self and other involvement, i.e., the increased investment in the

affiliative, expressive domain and/or a decrease in the power motive.

When the affiliation dimension is analyzed according to each sex-role category and length of marriage, the singular strength of one of the relationships is again consonant with Swenson's research. The expression of affiliative behaviors toward the spouse varies with the degree of feminine-typed characteristics only in the androgynous subjects who have been married 20 years or longer, so that this group of androgynous (high in feminine-typed characteristics) subjects will be highly affectionate toward their spouses. In turn, Swenson found that if over time the husband and wife transcend the sex-role stereotypes (which would classify them as androgynous), the expression of love increases. Again, in this study, those subjects who are not limited by sex-roles (androgynous), and who are secure in the knowledge of a lengthy mutual commitment (married $\geq$ 20 years), were most likely to express affection towards their spouses. None of the other groups showed this kind of consistency of affiliation in all contexts.

When the power dimension is analyzed according to sex-role groups and length of marriage, those subjects who are low in masculine-typed characteristics (feminine-typed and undifferentiated) show a greater tendency toward cross-situational stability than those subjects who are high in masculine-typed characteristics (masculine-typed and androgynous). Further, it is the feminine-typed subjects married 2-5 years who appear most tied to a particular degree of expression of power-oriented behaviors. These subjects are the

most limited on the power dimension. That is, they tend toward a low frequency of those behaviors regardless of context. These are the subjects whose self-definition is clearly low in masculine-typing and high in feminine-typing, and who do not know the security of a lengthy commitment.

For Hypothesis 3, the power and affiliation scores are considered together to determine each subject's general interpersonal style toward the spouse. The results showed that predictions about interpersonal style based on sex-role category will not be accurate for most groups; behavior in that context is independent of sex-role category.

Only the masculine-typed subjects were found to be at all consistent in overall style across relationships. Further, it is the masculine-typed female subjects--women who have crossed traditional gender-bound roles--whose interpersonal style toward the spouse will be most predictable from the sex role category that reflects a comparable range of behaviors in other relationships.

Perhaps the most interesting finding of this study has to do with how the majority of subjects describe themselves in relation to their spouses. 35 of the 51 subjects, almost 70 percent, fall into the Friendly-Dominant category. These people, then, see themselves as guiding, advising, generally directing their spouses in a warm, affectionate, loving way. This is the category that corresponds most closely to the androgynous sex role classification. In other words, regardless of how they describe themselves with most people, these subjects conform to a particular image of themselves as spouses.

The predominance of the Friendly-Dominant style raises a variety of thoughts and questions. This is typically viewed as the most socially desirable category, which certainly could create a demand for people to experience and/or describe themselves in that way. It would be interesting to determine, first, how many of those subjects do consider friendly-dominance to be ideal, and then, to find out why. The fact that a majority of people believe themselves to behave in that mode is enlightening, in view of the potential for marital conflict. The idea that interpersonal behavior reflects intrapsychic needs has been discussed. Individuals high in dominant behaviors, then, need to dominate (and also have others submit). As stated, this involves helping, managing and giving on the dominance side, and appreciating, receiving, and depending on the submission side. Theoretically, there is reciprocity along the power dimension, such that dominance pulls submission and vise versa. If most of the individuals in this study see themselves as being dominant toward the spouse, who is available to submit? There is a strong possibility that the need to be submitted to is being continually frustrated. Further, if the individual feels that his/her efforts are not being received, accepted and appreciated, a number of problems and changes could develop along the power dimension, which would in turn effect the affiliation dimension. He/she could conceivably withdraw due to feeling rejected, or become more overtly hostile in reaction to being frustrated. Another possibility is for the individual to increase the degree or intensity of dominance, in a greater effort to have those needs met. This

could disturb the implicit expectations (based on prior interactions) and upset the balance in the relationship. It could also simply anger the spouse and create a change in the affiliative expression. All these possibilities obviously depend on how the individual's behavior is perceived and experienced by the spouse, which provides another immense area for study.

Summary

The results of this study indicate that, while most people feel some consistency in their behavior regardless of context, they do not see themselves as bound in the marital relationship by the sex-role characteristics they experience relative to the other context that characterize their lives. This was determined by analyzing the relationship of power (masculine-typed characteristics) and affiliation (feminine-typed characteristics) in marriage to the degrees of masculine and feminine-typing in other contexts. Marriage is thus seen as providing a context for a different interpersonal experience. Relative to each other, the power dimension generally proved to be more stable or binding than the affiliation dimension, which demonstrated a greater sensitivity to the marital relationship.

Length of marriage proved to be a significant variable for both dimensions, but with contrasting effects. Over time, power becomes more independent of the degree of masculine-typed characteristics, while affiliation is more strongly correlated with feminine-typed characteristics. The instrumental (masculine-typed) domain becomes less fixed across contexts, while the expressive (feminine-typed) domain develops more stability.

The analyses for each sex-role category on the affiliation dimension showed a marked absence of consistency of affiliation across relationships. Only the androgynous subjects married 20 years or longer are bound by their levels of feminine-typing, and so for them, the results suggest a consistently high level of expressive, affiliative functioning. Conversely, those subjects who show a low frequency of functioning on the power dimension, are likely to be limited in the instrumental sphere regardless of context. These are the feminine-typed and undifferentiated subjects.

For all subjects combined, interpersonal style with the spouse is independent of sex-role category. Separate analyses yielded one significant relationship: masculine-typed female subjects will be most likely to maintain that same combination of behaviors, and therefore have a hostile-dominant style with their spouses.

It was found that most subjects conform to a description of themselves as spouses, which falls into the friendly-dominant category, regardless of how they describe themselves in other contexts. This is seen by the author as a potential source of conflict, where givers and directors are left without receivers and dependers. The power motive is subject to intense frustration, which can result in changes along both dimensions.

Finally, the system of sex-role classification is criticized for the potential for errors in categorizing subjects. The present groupings incorporate such a wide range of functioning that the within group similarity is questionable.

The bi-polar assessment of sex-roles is an important change from the traditional masculinity-femininity scales. Whether psychological androgyny can be measured and defined in those terms is also in question. The effect of the strong reinforcement of masculine-typed behaviors has not been adequately investigated or related to the optimal development that is theoretically achieved by androgynous people.

Future research is clearly indicated relative to the impact of marriage on interpersonal behavior and a continually developing self-definition. A similar, but longitudinal study of married people would be a significant contribution to the literature. In terms of the inferred potential for conflict, it would be important to determine how closely the individuals' self-descriptions match their spouses' perceptions. Further, the choice of spouses of corresponding or reciprocal styles can also be examined relative to marital conflicts and problem-solving ability. The identification of explicit behaviors according to the dimensions used in this study could provide a useful tool for couples who are attempting to both understand and influence the communication patterns they have developed with each other.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

I am a Ph.D. candidate in Clinical Psychology at the University of Tennessee, conducting research in the area of interpersonal behavior in marriage. You and your spouse fit into one of the two categories I am surveying, having been married:

(1) between 2 - 5 years;
(2) 20 years or longer.

Participation consists of each partner separately and without discussion or collaboration completing two questionnaires. The time involved for each of you is less than two hours. The surveys will be anonymous. Nobody (besides yourself) will know how you answered the questions. You are free at any time to withdraw your participation from this project without penalty or prejudice.

I am available to answer any questions you might have about the project. When the study is completed, I will be happy to send or discuss the results with you, if you desire.

Your informed consent is a requirement for being included in the study. Therefore, I need your signature after the following statements.

Thank you very much.

Ellen R. Jacobs
523-1685
974-2161

"I have read and understand the above explanation, and consent to participate in the study. In addition, I understand that in the event of physical injury resulting from the research procedure, financial compensation is not available and medical treatment is not provided free of charge."

Signature _____

Witness _____

Appendix B

INSTRUCTIONS (Interpersonal Disposition Inventory)

Following is a list of statements which a person might use to describe himself. Read each statement and decide whether or not it describes you. If you decide that a statement does describe you, answer TRUE (or T) in the space provided. If it is not descriptive of you, answer FALSE (or F).

Answer every statement either TRUE (T) or FALSE (F).

In the following example, the subject has indicated that statement A describes him and that B does not:

A. If I have a problem, I work it out alone. True

B. I am quite soft-spoken. False

Sex: Male _____ Female _____

Couple #: _____

years married: _____

IDI 1

1. I like to be with people who assume a protective attitude toward me. _____
2. I try to control others rather than permit them to control me. _____
3. Surf-board riding would be too dangerous for me. _____
4. If I have a problem, I like to work it out alone. _____
5. I seldom go out of my way to do something just to make others happy. _____
6. Adventures where I am on my own are a little frightening to me. _____
7. I feel confident when directing the activities of others. _____
8. I will keep working on a problem after others have given up. _____
9. I would not like to be married to a protective person. _____
10. I usually try to share my problems with someone who can help me. _____
11. I don't care if my clothes are unstylish, as long as I like them. _____
12. When I see a new invention, I attempt to find out how it works. _____
13. People like to tell me their troubles because they know I will do everything I can to help them. _____
14. Sometimes I let people push me around so they can feel important. _____
15. I am only very rarely in a position where I feel a need to actively argue for a point of view I hold. _____
16. I dislike people who are always asking me for advice. _____
17. I seek out positions of authority. _____
18. I believe in giving friends lots of help and advice. _____
19. If someone finds fault with me I either listen quietly or just ignore the whole thing. _____

(go to next page)

20. I get little satisfaction from serving others. _____

21. I make certain that I speak softly when I am in a public place. _____

22. I am usually the first to offer a helping hand when it is needed. _____

23. When I see someone I know from a distance, I don't go out of my way to say "Hello." _____

24. I would prefer to care for a sick child myself rather than hire a nurse. _____

25. I prefer not being dependent on anyone for assistance. _____

26. When I am with someone else I do most of the decision-making. _____

27. I try to get at least some sleep every night. _____

28. I don't mind being conspicuous. _____

29. I would never pass up something that sounded like fun just because it was a little hazardous. _____

30. I get a kick out of seeing someone I dislike appear foolish in front of others. _____

31. When someone opposes me on an issue, I usually find myself taking an even stronger stand than I did at first. _____

32. When two persons are arguing, I often settle the argument for them. _____

33. I will not go out of my way to behave in an approved way. _____

34. I am quite independent of the people I know. _____

35. I make all my clothes and shoes. _____

36. If I were in politics, I would probably be seen as one of the forceful leaders of my party. _____

37. I prefer a quiet, secure life to an adventurous one. _____

38. I prefer to face my problems by myself. _____

39. I try to get others to notice the way I dress. _____

(go to next page)

40. When I see someone who looks confused, I usually ask if I can be of any assistance. _____

41. It is unrealistic for me to insist on becoming the best in my field of work all of the time. _____

42. The good opinion of one's friends is one of the chief rewards for living a good life. _____

43. If I get tired while playing a game, I generally stop playing. _____

44. I could easily count from one to twenty-five. _____

45. When I see a baby, I often ask to hold him. _____

46. I am quite good at keeping others in line. _____

47. I feel uncomfortable when people are paying attention to me. _____

48. I am quite soft-spoken. _____

49. I think it would be best to marry someone who is more mature and less dependent than I. _____

50. I would resist anyone who tried to bully me. _____

51. I don't want to be away from my family too much. _____

52. I can run a mile in less than four minutes. _____

53. Once in a while I enjoy acting as if I were tipsy. _____

54. I feel incapable of handling many situations. _____

55. I delight in feeling unattached. _____

56. I would make a poor judge because I dislike telling others what to do. _____

57. Seeing an old or helpless person makes me feel that I would like to take care of him. _____

58. I usually make decisions with out consulting others. _____

59. It doesn't affect me one way or another to see a child spanked. _____

(go to next page)

60. My goal is to do at least a little bit more than anyone else has done before. _____

61. I usually wear something warm when I go outside on a cold day. _____

62. To love and to be loved is of greatest importance to me. _____

63. I avoid some hobbies and sports because of their dangerous nature. _____

64. One of the things which spurs me on to do my best is the realization that I will be praised for my work. _____

65. People's tears tend to irritate me more than to arouse my sympathy. _____

(End)

Appendix C

INSTRUCTIONS (Interpersonal Check List)

Following is a list of statements which you will use to describe your behavior and attitudes towards your spouse. Read each statement quickly. If it is generally true of your present behavior, circle the number of that statement. If a statement does not describe you, do not do anything.

In the following example, the sujbect has indicated that statement 1 descirbes him and that 2 does not:

(1.) I am forceful with my spouse.

2. I encourage my spouse.

Your first impression is generally the best, so work quickly, and don't be concerned about duplications, contradicitons, or being exact.

1. My spouse thinks well of me.
2. I make a good impression on my spouse.
3. I am able to give orders to my spouse.
4. I am forceful with my spouse.
5. I am self-respecting with my spouse.
6. I am independent of my spouse.
7. I am able to take care of myself.
8. I can be indifferent of my spouse.
9. I can be strict with my spouse, if necessary.
10. I am firm but just with my spouse.
11. I can be frank and honest with my spouse.
12. I am critical of my spouse.
13. I can complain to my spouse.
14. I am often gloomy around my spouse.
15. I am able to doubt my spouse.
16. I am frequently disappointed in my spouse.
17. I am able to criticize myself to my spouse.
18. I am apologetic to my spouse.
19. I can be obedient to my spouse.
20. I usually give in to my spouse.
21. I am greateful to my spouse.
22. I admire and imitate my spouse.
23. I am appreciative of my spouse.
24. I am very anxious for my spouse to approve of me.
25. I am eager to get along with my spouse.

(go to next page)

26. I cooperate with my spouse.
27. I am friendly to my spouse.
28. I am affectionate and understanding of my spouse.
29. I am considerate of my spouse.
30. I encourage my spouse.
31. I help my spouse.
32. I am big-hearted and unselfish with my spouse.
33. I am often admired by my spouse.
34. I am respected by my spouse.
35. I lead my spouse.
36. I take responsibility for my spouse, and like it.
37. I am self-confident around my spouse.
38. I am self-reliant and assertive with my spouse.
39. I am businesslike with my spouse.
40. I like to compete with my spouse.
41. I am hard-boiled with my spouse when necessary.
42. I am stern but fair with my spouse.
43. I am irritable with my spouse.
44. I am straightforward and direct with my spouse.
45. I resent being bossed by my spouse.
46. I am skeptical of my spouse.
47. It is hard for my spouse to impress me.
48. I am touchy and easily hurt by my spouse.
49. I am easily embarrassed by my spouse.
50. I lack self-confidence around my spouse.

(go to next page)

51. I am easily led by my spouse.
52. I am modest with my spouse.
53. I am often helped by my spouse.
54. I am very respectful of my spouse.
55. I accept advice readily from my spouse.
56. I am trusting and eager to please my spouse.
57. I am always pleasant and agreeable to my spouse.
58. I always want my spouse to like me.
59. I am sociable with my spouse.
60. I am warm toward my spouse.
61. I am kind and reassuring toward my spouse.
62. I am tender and soft-hearted to my spouse.
63. I enjoy taking care of my spouse.
64. I give freely of myself to my spouse.
65. I always give advice to my spouse.
66. I act important around my spouse.
67. I am bossy toward my spouse.
68. I am dominating around my spouse.
69. I am boastful to my spouse.
70. I am proud and self-satisfied around my spouse.
71. I think only of myself around my spouse.
72. I am shrewd and calculating about my spouse.
73. I am impatient with my spouse's mistakes.
74. I am self-seeking with my spouse.

(go to next page)

75. I am outspoken with my spouse.

75. I am bitter toward my spouse.

77. I complain to my spouse.

78. I am often unfriendly to my spouse.

79. I am jealous of my spouse.

80. I am slow to forgive my spouse.

81. I am self-punishing around my spouse.

82. I am shy with my spouse.

83. I am passive and unaggressive with my spouse.

84. I am meek with my spouse.

85. I want to be led by my spouse.

86. I am dependent on my spouse.

87. I let my spouse make decisions.

88. I am easily fooled by my spouse.

89. I am too easily influenced by my spouse.

90. I will confide too easily in my spouse.

91. I am fond of everything about my spouse.

92. I like everything my spouse is and does.

93. I forgive anything my spouse does.

94. I am oversympathetic of my spouse.

95. I am generous to a fault with my spouse.

96. I am overprotective of my spouse.

97. I try to be too successful with my spouse.

98. I expect my spouse to admire me all the time.

(go to next page)

99. I manage my spouse.

100. I am dictatorial toward my spouse.

101. I am somewhat snobbish toward my spouse.

102. I am egotistical and conceited with my spouse.

103. I am selfish toward my spouse.

104. I am cold and unfeeling with my spouse.

105. I am sarcastic with my spouse.

106. I am cruel and unkind toward my spouse.

107. I am frequently angry with my spouse.

108. I am hard-hearted with my spouse.

109. I am resentful of my spouse.

110. I rebel against everything my spouse says.

111. I am stubborn with my spouse.

112. I usually distrust my spouse.

113. I am timid around my spouse.

114. I am always ashamed of myself around my spouse.

115. I obey my spouse too willingly.

116. I am spineless around my spouse.

117. I hardly ever talk back to my spouse.

118. I am like a clinging vine with my spouse.

119. I like to be taken care of by my spouse.

120. I always believe my spouse.

121. I want my spouse's love constantly.

122. I agree with my spouse.

(go to next page)

123. I am friendly toward my spouse all the time.

124. I love my spouse all the time.

125. I am too lenient with my spouse.

126. I always try to comfort my spouse.

127. I am too willing to give to my spouse.

128. I spoil my spouse with kindness.

(End)

VITA

Ellen Rachael Jacobs was born in New York City on September 14, 1950. She was raised on Long Island and in New Jersey, where she was graduated from Union High School in June, 1968. The following September she entered the University of Rochester and in June, 1972, was graduated cum laude with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Spanish.

After working for 3 years as a Social Worker in New York City, she entered the Graduate School of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, in September 1975. After completing a year of clinical internship at the Nassau County Medical Center in New York, she received the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Clinical Psychology in December, 1980.

The author is presently employed with the Psychiatry Service of Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center in New York City.